

# A KURDISH GRAMMAR

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# A KURDISH GRAMMAR

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AMERICAN COUNCIL OF LEARNED SOCIETIES  
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A KURDISH GRAMMAR  
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE KURDISH  
OF SULAIMANIYA, IRAQ

by

Ernest N. McCarus

American Council of Learned Societies  
New York  
1958

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.0 The Kurdish Language

This study is a description of the Kurdish of the city of Sulaimaniya, Iraq. Kurdish is a member of the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European family of languages. Kurdish dialects cover an area embracing parts of eastern Turkey, Soviet Armenia, northern Syria, northern Iraq, and western Iran, as well as Khorasan in Iran. (See Figure 1.) It is difficult to obtain reliable figures on the total Kurdish population in the Near East, estimates ranging from 1.5<sup>1</sup> to 9 million.<sup>2</sup>

Further study remains to be done on the classification of Kurdish dialects. The most systematic study is Karl Hadank's *Untersuchungen zum Westkurdischen: Bōtī und Ēzādī*<sup>3</sup>, in which a limited number of phonological, morphological, and lexical isoglosses are used to set up two major areas, West Kurdish and East Kurdish, with the boundary coinciding roughly with a line drawn from Lake Urmia to the junction of the Greater Zab with the Tigris. According to this classification, the Sulaimaniya and Mukri dialects are East Kurdish, and the Zaza, Hakari, and Bahdinan dialects are West Kurdish. The Kurdish of Sulaimaniya is mutually intelligible with Mukri Kurdish, as well as with dialects as far north as Ruwandiz in Iraq and Sujbulak in Iran and as far south as Sinna and Kermanshah in Iran.

Of all the Kurdish dialects in Iraq, that of Sulaimaniya seems to enjoy the greatest cultural prestige, as is acknowledged by speakers of other dialects. It is the Sulaimaniya dialect that the central government in Baghdad has chosen to be used in Kurdish textbooks for elementary schools throughout Iraqi Kurdistan, and for all Kurdish language broadcasts from Radio Baghdad. It is in this dialect too that the United States Information Service in Baghdad published (as of 1951) its weekly Kurdish language news bulletin.

#### 1.1 The Data

The corpus of data for this description was gathered on the occasion of a University of Michigan expedition to Iraq and Iran in the spring and summer of 1951. In Baghdad I obtained, through the offices of Professor George Cameron, the director of the expedition, the services of Mr. Abdul Qadir Qazaz, then an official in the Department of Post and Telegraph.

<sup>1</sup>Encyclopaedia Britannica (Chicago, 1942) 13.520.

<sup>2</sup>Lucien Rambout, *Les Kurdes et le droit* (Paris, 1947) 18.

<sup>3</sup>Karl Hadank, *Untersuchungen zum Westkurdischen: Bōtī und Ēzādī*, Arbeiten aus dem Institut für Lautforschung an der Universität Berlin 6.1-6 (1938).

He was a native of Sulaimaniya and had completed secondary school there. His English and his Arabic, as well as his Kurdish, were excellent, and he proved ideal as an interpreter and informant. He had translated works into Kurdish from English and Arabic, and was considered by other literate Kurds as having an excellent command of the language. He was then approximately forty years of age. The expedition eventually established its field headquarters in the village of Ruwandiz, where I worked with Mr. Qazaz and some members of the local population. After about a month, Mr. Qazaz was obliged, because of personal reasons, to return to Baghdad, just as I had arranged to go to Sulaimaniya itself to continue field work there. I worked two months more in Sulaimaniya, where I was the sole foreigner in town. This town, the capital of the Liwa of Sulaimaniya, has a predominantly sedentary Kurdish population, with a few Assyrian and Armenian families, totaling about twenty thousand people.<sup>1</sup>

In Sulaimaniya I received the wholehearted cooperation of the Director of Education and the excellent assistance of Mr. Fuad Rasheed and Mr. Majeed Saeed of the local school system. Both were natives of Sulaimaniya, and their command of English and Arabic, as well as of Kurdish, was impeccable. Mr. Rasheed was a senior teacher, a lecturer in arithmetic and English, and a director in the primary school system. He had translated works into Kurdish from other languages and at that time was compiling a Kurdish-English dictionary. Then about forty years of age, he had resided all his life in Sulaimaniya. Mr. Saeed was a teacher of English in the primary schools. He had been graduated from normal school in Baghdad; he was approximately thirty years of age and had lived all his life in his native town.

In addition to these excellent informants I was able to record the speech of many other townspeople as well—tradesmen, students, etc. In Ann Arbor I was able to fill in the data with the help of students who had come there from Sulaimaniya. Of these, Mr. Hassan R. Mahmoud, a native of Sulaimaniya and a graduate of the Engineering College in Baghdad, was particularly helpful. He was then approximately thirty years of age, and was studying advanced engineering at the University of Michigan. His English was good and his Arabic excellent, and he proved very cooperative and of valuable assistance. Finally, Mr. Mahdi M. Abdulla, also a native of Sulaimaniya but in recent years a resident of Baghdad, was most helpful to me in completing the analysis. A graduate of Commercial and Economic College in Baghdad and an accountant in the Ministry of Health, Mr. Abdulla, then about thirty-five years old, had come to Ann Arbor under the auspices of the Point Four Program to study vital statistics. He had made regular weekly radio broadcasts in Kurdish for Radio Baghdad.

<sup>1</sup>Chambers's Encyclopaedia (New York, 1950) 13.271.



The primary materials constituting the basis for the analysis described in the following chapters consist of texts recorded in phonetic notation from the sources mentioned in the preceding paragraphs. These filled three notebooks, totaling approximately three hundred and eighty pages. Supplementary materials (not utilized for the purposes of this study) include tape recordings made in the field and certain written materials. The tape recordings contain about two hours of stories and conversations in the Ruwandiz and Sulaimaniya dialects of Kurdish and about three hours of songs. The written materials include a copy of Mr. Rasheed's dictionary mentioned earlier, containing over three thousand items; a year's issues of the newspaper *Žin* published in Sulaimaniya; some elementary school readers; and a number of history books in Kurdish.

## 1.2 Previous Works on Kurdish

Kurdish studies are numerous and date back at least to Garzoni's *Grammatica e vocabolario della lingua kurda* of 1787. In the following discussion, however, only the major grammars and grammatical sketches of interest to this description will be annotated; for a complete list of all the titles I have been able to compile, the reader is referred to the Bibliography. The studies discussed here have not been used in arriving at the description of Kurdish presented in this work, but they have been used as a check on the analysis, and differences in fact or analysis have been noted throughout where appropriate. The following list is arranged in chronological order. Complete bibliographical data will be found in the Bibliography.

1. P. Maurizio Garzoni, *Grammatica e vocabolario della lingua kurda*, 1787. This work consists of a 79-page grammatical sketch and 200-odd pages of vocabulary of the Kurdish of Amadiya, Iraq. The book is the result of a stay of many years as a missionary in northern Iraq. The Kurdish is spelled in terms of Italian orthography.

2. A. Chodzko, *Etudes philologiques sur la langue kurde*, 1857 (60 pages). This grammatical sketch was made in Paris with a native of Sulaimaniya as informant, the author having previously been in Kurdistan. Citations are in Persian script, with a French transcription. The transcription is not always consistent, and the analysis is not very penetrating.

3. Peter Lerch, *Forschungen über die Kurden und die iranischen Nordchaldäer*, 1857-58. Part I contains 103 pages of Kurmanji and Zaza texts, obtained from Kurdish prisoners of war in Smolensk, with German translation. Part II consists of an 80-page introduction in which the author interprets the transcription systems used in previous works on Kurdish, and a 30-page Kurdish-German glossary.

4. Ferdinand Justi, Kurdische Grammatik, 1880. This author's stated purpose is to convert all previous works on Kurdish into a basis for further investigation. Accordingly, he takes all previous works and compares the information they offer on phonology and morphology. Although he compares (i.e., juxtaposes) the various forms, he does not use the comparative method to set up any kind of Proto-Kurdish. For example, in the phonology section he lists 15 vowels, 3 diphthongs, and 29 consonants for Kurdish. These are patently not separate phonemes, but rather reflect the various notational systems of the several works consulted.

5. Samuel A. Rhea, Brief Grammar and Vocabulary of the Kurdish Language of the Hakari District, 1880. This sketch is based on more than eight years of contact with the Kurds of the mountain village of Memikan in southeastern Turkey. The Kurdish of Sulaimaniya and Sinna is reported to be quite different from that of Hakari. The author lists the vowels and consonants of Hakari Kurdish, with corresponding English words to indicate the equivalent pronunciation, and then gives a short description of the various parts of speech and a 20-page Kurdish-English vocabulary.

6. Albert Socin, Die Sprache der Kurden, 1898. This article includes a general section on the distribution of the Kurdish dialects and a discussion of the literature on Kurdish, with a bibliography. The other sections are devoted to phonology, the noun, the verb, and texts. Like Justi, Socin brings together comparable forms from the various dialects, but makes no attempt at historical reconstruction.

7. J. de Morgan, Etudes linguistiques: Dialectes kurdes, 1904. These studies are based on two years of field work in Persia, as well as on certain other published works. Eleven different dialects, including Sulaimaniya and Mukri, are compared (i.e., juxtaposed) with each other, as well as with Persian, Sanskrit, etc. The vowels and consonants of these dialects and inflections of the parts of speech are treated, and extensive lists of words with etymologies, arranged by subject, are included.

8. Oskar Mann, Die Mundart der Mukri-Kurden, 1906. This volume of the *Kurdisch-persische Forschungen* series contains an excellent 74-page grammatical sketch of Mukri Kurdish, followed by 302 pages of text in Latin script and 58 pages in Persian script. The text is without transcription or notes. The sketch, based on research done in Sujbulak, Iran, in 1903, shows Mukri Kurdish to be remarkably similar to Sulaimaniya Kurdish.

9. E. B. Soane, Elementary Kurmanji Grammar, 1913. This abridgement of Major Soane's *Kurdish Grammar* deals specifically with the Sulaimaniya dialect and was intended primarily for the use of officers and others whose duties led them to southern Kurdistan. Though an unsophisticated work, it is valuable for its vocabulary lists and can be useful to one who already knows Kurdish.

10. L. O. Fossum, A Practical Kurdish Grammar, 1919. The author's design is "to discover the best Kurdish in the dialects of Central Kurdistan, particularly in the Somai-Soujbulak-Suleimania Groups, and to put it into as clear and simple a system as possible" (9). The description is well arranged, but suffers from the fact that it is oriented from the point of view of the Persian-Arabic script. On the one hand, the author is forced to devote considerable space to explaining the intricacies of the writing system, and, on the other, he misses such phonemic contrasts as are not indicated by the script, e.g., the /r ř/ contrast.

11. Abbé Paul Beidar, Grammaire kurde, 1926. This grammar of the Zakho-Gesirah western dialect (northern Iraq) also contains a contextual orientation to Kurdish culture. Each chapter is liberally interspersed with proverbs and comments and has a short Kurdish text, with more comments, at the end. There is a 14-page Kurdish-French vocabulary.

12. Şa'id Şidqi, Mukhtaşar şarf u nahu i kurdi (Sketch of Kurdish Grammar), 1928. This sketch of the Sulaimaniya dialect is intended to provide a system of writing Kurdish by using a modified form of the Persian-Arabic script. Arabic loans, however, are written in their original Arabic spelling. The principal emphasis is on describing the various parts of speech, using Arabic grammar as the model.

13. Tawfiq Wahby, Destur i zman i kurdi (Grammar of the Kurdish Language), 1929. This is an excellent description of Sulaimaniya Kurdish by a native speaker of that dialect. The grammar is prescriptive in nature, attempting to "purify" the language of its non-Kurdish elements. The author uses a modified Arabic script, with a special character or combination of characters for each phoneme, including the vowels. This is the only Arabic script adapted for Kurdish that I have seen which does this. The bulk of the work is devoted to the eight parts of speech (corresponding to the eight parts of speech of Latin grammar), with the inflections and formation of each part of speech. There are some notes on morphophonemic processes, but nothing, unfortunately, on prosodic features.

14. Tawfiq Wahby, Xöndewariy' baw (<sup>modern</sup> Reader's Style), 1933. This little work is intended for those Kurdish teachers who wish to improve their Kurdish and for non-Kurds wishing to learn the language. It presents a Latin alphabet for Kurdish, with explanations in an Arabic script. This Arabic script is not Wahby's own (cf. item 13, above), but the conventional—and inferior—one used in Iraq. The booklet has four parts: (1) presentation of the Latin symbols; (2) pronunciation and reading drills; (3) a series of grammatical and spelling rules; and (4) reading selections.

### 1.3 Correlation of Orthographic Systems

Kurdish in Iraq is generally written in a modified form of the Persian-Arabic script. This use of a form of Arabic script for Kurdish dates back at least to the eleventh century A.D., when Ali Hariri (1009-1079) wrote a collection of poems in his Hakari dialect. In the following century the Shaykh Ahmad Mala'i Jizri wrote his famous Diwan in honor of the sister of Emir Umād al-Dīn, then prince of the Jazira. The text of these verses was published in an excellent lithographed volume by Martin Hartmann in 1904.<sup>1</sup>

A correlation of the native orthographies of Iraqi Kurdistan with that arrived at in the present work follows. Three native systems are included: first, that of Sa'id Şidqi (cf. item 12 under 1.2 above), a modified Arabic script and the system in general use in Iraq today; second, the Arabic script of Tawfiq Wahby (cf. item 13 above); and, third, Wahby's Latin script (cf. item 14 above). The second and third items are not mutually convertible, Wahby's Arabic script being the more accurate. Table 1 compares the vowel symbols in the four systems and Table 2 compares the consonants.

<sup>1</sup>Der kurdische Diwan des Schēch Ahmed von Ġezīret ibn 'Omar genannt Māla'i Gizri (Berlin, 1904). For a description of the earliest known Kurdish texts, see Alexandre Jaba, Recueil de notices et récits kourdes (St. Petersburg, 1860) 8-11.

Table 1  
Kurdish Orthographies: Vowels

This Work	Şidqi	Wahby-1929	Wahby-1933
i	ى	ى (i.e., ى + ى)	iy;Cy <sup>a</sup>
î	. . . .	ى	i;Cy <sup>a</sup>
e	ى <sup>b</sup>	ى	ê
ə	ە	ە	e
a			a
î	. . . .	ي	i
u	و	و	uw
u	و	و	u
o	و <sup>b</sup>	و	o

Also<sup>c</sup>

we	. . . .	وي	ö
ü	. . . .	و	. . . .

<sup>a</sup>C stands for any consonant; this use of y as equivalent to /i/ or /î/ obtains only in final position in the word.

<sup>b</sup>Special characters— ى for /e/ and و for /o/—are listed by Şidqi in his listing of the letters of the alphabet, but these special diacritics are never used in the body of the work, nor in Kurdish publications in general.

<sup>c</sup>Wahby lists these characters in his lists of vowels, but they are in reality either a sequence of phonemes /we/ or a vowel [ü] found not in Sulaimaniya but in a different dialect in Kurdish.

Table 2  
Kurdish Orthographies: Consonants

This Work	Şidqi <sup>a</sup>	Wahby-1929	Wahby-1933
p	پ	پ	p
b	ب	ب	b
t	ت	ت <sup>b</sup>	t
d	د	د <sup>b</sup>	d
k	ک	ک	k
g	گ	گ	g
q	ق	ق	q
ʔ	ء	ء	... <sup>c</sup>
c	چ	چ	ch <sup>d</sup>
j	ج	ج	c
f	ف	ف	f
v	ڤ	ڤ	v
s	س	س	s
z	ز	ز	z
ʃ	ص	ـ	... <sup>c</sup>
ʂ	ش	ش	sh <sup>d</sup>
ʒ	ژ	ژ	j
x	خ	خ	x
g̱	غ	غ	gh <sup>c</sup>
ẖ	ح	ح	h <sup>d</sup>
ɛ	ع	ع	... <sup>c</sup>
h	ه	ه	h <sup>cd</sup>
m	م	م	m
n	ن	ن	n
ŋ	ڭ	ڭ	ng

Table 2 — Continued

This Work	Şidqi	Wahby-1929	Wahby-1933
l	ل	ل	l
ɬ	ل <sup>e</sup>	ل	lh <sup>d</sup>
r	ر	ر	r
ʀ	. . . .	ر.	rh <sup>d</sup>
w	و	و	w
y	ی	ی	y

<sup>a</sup>In addition to the consonant symbols listed in this chart, Şidqi includes five more in his alphabet. These occur in Arabic loans, and are as follows:

- ث (Arabic voiceless interdental fricative [θ]) becomes Kurdish /s/  
 ذ (Arabic voiced interdental fricative [ð]) becomes Kurdish /z/  
 ض (Arabic voiced velarized dental stop [ɖ]) becomes Kurdish /z/  
 ظ (Arabic voiced velarized fricative [z̤]) becomes Kurdish /z/  
 ط (Arabic voiceless velarized dental stop [t̤]) becomes Kurdish /t/.

<sup>b</sup>In his Arabic script Wahby puts a dot under the dental stops, thus ڤ ڇ in those words where they may be omitted according to style of speech; see 2.323.

<sup>c</sup>The phonemes /ʔ s ʕ/ are not represented in Wahby-1933, and the symbol h is made to represent both /h/ and /ʕ/.

<sup>d</sup>Possible confusion in Wahby-1933 between the digraphs ch, sh, gh, lh, and rh and c, s, g, l, and r followed immediately by h is avoided by the use of the hyphen in the latter case: e.g., /mec-hul/ 'passive voice'.

<sup>e</sup>Şidqi uses a special diacritic to indicate velar /ɬ/, thus: ل̣; however, this is not used in the body of the text.

Şidqi, in writing Arabic loans, retains the original Arabic spelling. Since Arabic has the five consonants listed in footnote a, Table 2, he uses the symbols for these consonants even though they are not phonemes of Kurdish. Thus, in his system for writing Kurdish, there are four spellings for the phoneme /z/. When it comes to vowels, however, Arabic lacks certain vowel phonemes of Kurdish, so that certain vowels of Kurdish are not represented in Şidqi's alphabet.

The Latin script for Kurdish has never gained currency in Iraq.<sup>1</sup> The newspaper *Žin* (/žin/), which is published in Sulaimaniya, and the magazine *Hetaw* (/hetaw/), published in Arbil, as well as official and private publications, are all in the modified Arabic script.

#### 1.4 Style of Kurdish Described

The Kurdish represented in this description is that of a male speaker using a normally informal colloquial style. When no indication of style is given, it is to be assumed that this style is meant; when special reference is necessary the symbol (N) preceding the citation will be used. The symbol (D) preceding a citation indicates a more deliberate, conscious, or formal style of spoken Kurdish, while (R) indicates a very informal style with more collapsing of forms.

Female speech seems to differ from male speech in this dialect primarily in the potential substitution of /r/ for /l/. Thus male or female /smé/ 'moustache' is female /smér/.

Normal informal style is characterized by certain of the unconditioned, i.e., optional, morphophonemic processes described in 2.3, such as excrescence and loss of consonant. Rapid style shows a greater degree of collapsing of forms, while deliberate style generally shows a zero functioning of these processes, the morphemes mostly occurring in their original uncombined shapes. For example, /bót/ 'for you' & /lé/ 'from' & /ʔədém/ 'I give' (/le ʔədém/ = 'I hit', 'I play (music)') combine to form the following styles of utterance translated 'Shall I play it (phonograph record, musical instrument) for you?'

<u>Deliberate</u>	<u>Normal</u>	<u>Rapid</u>
bot le ʔədém?	bot le ʔədém?	bot lém?
or		
bot le ʔaíém?		

Those optional morphophonemic processes which, when they occur, serve to identify normal style (and also rapid style) are: syncope of /i/ (see (1) (b) under 2.312), excrescence (2.322), and loss of consonant (2.323). Assimilation of /d/ (2.321) is characteristic of rapid style. These processes do not obtain in deliberate style.

<sup>1</sup>For comments on the development of Romanized Kurdish scripts in Iraq, see the articles listed under Edmonds and Minorsky in the Bibliography.



A further difference between normal and deliberate style is on the subphonemic level. Palatalization (see (3) under 2.12) regularly occurs in style N, but does not obtain in style D. Thus, /ké/ 'who' is pronounced [k<sup>y</sup>e~:] in N but [ke~:] in D.

Finally, D style is generally identifiable not only by the lack of the allophonic and morphophonemic processes mentioned above, but by certain differences in the lexicon as well. Kurdish contains a considerable number of Arabic loans which are the normal, everyday items heard in most situations. Many of these loans are so deeply rooted in the language that illiterate Kurds often cannot distinguish between words of Arabic origin and words of Kurdish origin. The literate Kurd, however, when conscious of his speech, may tend to choose words of Kurdish rather than Arabic origin, even if the former are not commonly used. Thus, Kurdish (D) /tká ʔəkém/ 'I beg (you), please' would be preferred to the synonymous (N) /řjá ʔəkém/ which uses /řjá/ of Arabic origin.

Use of the deliberate style may (1) present the effect of formal speech, as on a radio broadcast, or (2) provide emphasis, usually in combination with stress placement (see 2.22).

Within any of these styles of speech there may also occur an honorific style: special forms showing respect for the other person. These may take the form of plural forms for singular referents, as the plural verb in /tó cí ʔəxwenin/ 'What are you (singular, polite) studying?'; or as the plural suffix /yan/ in the sentence /məlá bāŋ ʔəkəṭə mał-i-xóyan/ 'He invites the mullah to his (polite) house.' Respect may be shown also by special lexical items, as /jnáb/ 'you' (singular, polite) for the usual /tó/ 'you' (singular); or /ogírbe/ 'Where are you (singular, polite) going?' In this description, honorific forms will be indicated by (polite) after the corresponding item in the English gloss.

Table 3

## Vowel Phonemes

		Front	Central	Back	
		Unrounded	Unrounded	Unrounded	Rounded
High	Close	i		ɪ	u
	Open	ɪ			ʊ
Mid	Close	e			
	Open		ə		o
Low			a		

Table 4

Consonant Phonemes<sup>a</sup>

		Bi-labial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alve-olar	Alveo-palatal	Velar	Uvu-lar	Pha-ryngal	Glottal
Stops	vl	p		t			k	q		ʔ
	vd	b		d			g			
Affri-cates	vl					c				
	vd					j				
Frica-tives	vl		f	s		ʃ	x		ħ	h
	vd		(v)	z		ʒ	ʁ		ʕ	
Fric.:	vl				(s)					
Velarized										
Nasals	vd	m		n			ŋ			
Later-als <sup>b</sup>	vd			l	ɭ					
Flap <sup>b</sup>	vd				r					
Trill <sup>b</sup>	vd				ʀ					
Semi-cons.	vd	w				y				

<sup>a</sup> ( ) indicates consonants of limited distribution (2.122).

<sup>b</sup> Flaps and trills are classed as vibrants, and vibrants and laterals are classed as liquids.

## CHAPTER II

### PHONOLOGY

#### 2.0. Introductory

This chapter presents linear phonemes (vowels and consonants and their principal allophonic types, and distribution of phonemes in the word<sup>1</sup>) and syllable structure in 2.1; non-linear phonemes (including stress and intonation) in 2.2; and morphophonemics in 2.3. Such an extensive treatment precludes a detailed and exhaustive presentation of each of these features, and some sections, such as the one on intonation, attempt merely to suggest the general nature of the material.

#### 2.1. Linear Phonemes

The linear phonemes include nine vowels: /i ɪ e ə a ɪ u ʊ o/ and thirty-one consonants: /p b t d k g q ʔ c j f v s z ʃ ʒ ʒ x ɣ h ɬ ʁ m n ŋ l ɭ r ʁ ʁ w y/. The consonants /v ʒ/ are of phonemic status but their occurrence in the lexicon is quite limited. They are accordingly called consonants of limited distribution (2.122). See Table 3, Vowel Phonemes, and Table 4, Consonant Phonemes.

The word has as many syllables as it has vowels (see 2.13). Stress is phonemic and is indicated by the acute accent (´) over the stressed vowel (see 2.21).

#### 2.11. Vowels<sup>2</sup>

All vowels are voiced. Vowel length is not phonemic: close vowels /i e u/ and the vowel /a/ are longer in quantity than the other vowels, except in word final unstressed position, where they are short. Thus:

<sup>1</sup>A word is defined as any free morpheme (see (1) in 3.0); it is indicated in this description by spaces before and after it.

<sup>2</sup>The best grammar of Sulaimaniya Kurdish I have seen is the excellent Destur i zman i kurdi of Tawfiq Wahby (see 1.2, item 13): his is the only script, whether Latin or Arabic, that has, with a few minor exceptions, a one-to-one correspondence of symbol with linear phoneme. He has a single character for each of the seven vowels /i ɪ e ə a ɪ u ʊ o/ and digraphs for the vowels /i u/ (see Table 1). In addition, he has a digraph for the phoneme sequence /we/. In his Latin script Wahby uses the symbol ö for this sequence, probably influenced by the fact that in German orthography ö is equivalent to oe. Finally, in his list of vowels he has a digraph for a high front rounded vowel [u], but notes that this vowel occurs not in Sulaimaniya Kurdish but in other parts of Kurdistan. In listing the alphabet Wahby merely names the phonemes without describing their phonetic value.

The other excellent description of Kurdish of special interest here

is Oskar Mann's *Die Mundart der Mukri-Kurden* (see 1.2, item 8). Although the dialect he describes is Mukri Kurdish (found in Iran), it is close enough to Sulaimaniya Kurdish to merit comparison.

Mann's transcription is in Latin orthography, and is provided with some description of allophones. He lists six long vowels â ê î ô û ü and seven short ones a ä ä e i o u. The first five long vowels correspond to my /a e i o u/ respectively. His ü corresponds to the allophone [w] of my phoneme /w/ (see 2.121). Mann's a is a cover symbol for his a and ä, which together with his e correspond to my vowel phoneme /ə/. Mann says that i fluctuates in its vocalic timbre, at times even approaching Slavic y; this is my /i/. Mann's o is quite rare, corresponding, when it does occur, to my /ə/ occurring before /w/. The following table compares the vowels of Mann, Wahby (1929), and this work:

Mann	Wahby	This Work
î	ۛ	i
i	ۛ	ɪ
	ۛ	ɪ
ê	ۛ	e
a ä ä e o	•	ə
â	l	a
u	ۛ	ʊ
û	ۛۛ	u
ü	ۛ ۛ	we
ô	ۛ	o

W. Ivanow, in *Notes on Khorasani Kurdish*, *Journal and Proceedings, Asiatic Society of Bengal*, New Series 23.167-236 (1927), comes to a rather similar statement on the vowels. His symbol ä corresponds to my /ə/.

None of the other works on Sulaimaniya Kurdish merits particular note here: Şidqi's listing of the Arabic alphabet is not very revealing of the phonemes or their phonetic nature. Soane is inaccurate and incomplete. Chodzko, although inconsistent in his transcription, does show one point of special interest: he uses sometimes the symbol y where I have /i/. Although he gives no explanation of his symbol, this must be an instance of the traditional use of y for the Slavic high central vowel.

/azaí/ [a:za:'i:] 'freedom' but /dǽsti/ ['dǽsti] 'his hand'. The phonemes listed below occur in all positions of the word unless otherwise noted. Square brackets [ ] enclose phonetic notations.

- /i/ [i:] High close front unrounded long vowel; does not occur in unstressed word-final position. Examples: /ʔəcín/ 'we go'; /ǵǵ/ 'work'; /bír/ 'mind'; /žín/ 'life'; /sí/ 'thirty'; /šaí/ 'ceremony'; /azaí/ 'freedom'.
- [i] High close front unrounded short vowel; occurs only in unstressed word-final position. Examples: /dǽsti/ 'his hand'; /náwi/ 'his name'; /ʔəzáni/ 'you know'.
- /ɪ/ [ɪ] High open front unrounded short vowel; does not occur final in the word. Examples: /mumkín/ 'possible'; /ǵmtihán/ 'examination'; /siftáɪ/ 'first sale of the day'.
- /e/ [eː:] Mid very close front unrounded long vowel; does not occur in unstressed word-final position. Examples: /éš/ 'ache'; /sé/ 'three'; /bé/ 'without'; /ʔəcé/ 'goes'; /šéw/ 'evening meal'; /ewaré/ 'evening'; /helká/ 'egg'; /tér/ 'full'; /žér/ 'under'.
- [eː] Mid very close front unrounded short vowel; occurs only in unstressed word final position. Example: /dwéne/ 'yesterday'.

/ə/ This phoneme has three principal allophonic types:

- [ɛ] mid open front unrounded short vowel
- [ə] mid central unrounded short vowel
- [æ] low front unrounded short vowel

These three allophonic types demarcate the area of fluctuation of this phoneme; that is, an area ranging from mid open front to mid central to low front. In general, there is free fluctuation within the area, with the front allophones tending to appear in stressed syllables and the central allophones in unstressed ones: /gǵrm/ = [gǵɛɾm ~ gǵɛɾm ~ gǵæɾm] 'hot'; also: /bǵr/ 'front'; /sǵr/ 'head'; /bǵ/ 'with'; /tǵrs/ 'dung'; /ǵsp/ 'horse'. The allophones are in complementary distribution in the following environments:

only [ɛ]: before /y/ or /i/ but not in the same syllable:

/háya/ 'there is, are'; /gǵwǵryə/ 'is big'; /asudəí/ 'comfort'.

only [ə]: before /y/ and in the same syllable:

/ʔəybínɪm/ 'I see him'; /háybɪ/ 'he had'; /qǵsý kǵrd/ 'he spoke'.

only [æ]: before /w/ (with lip rounding when in utterance medial position):

/ǵw/ 'he'; /ǵwán/ 'they'; /šǵw/ 'night'; /šǵwán/ 'nights'.

Finally, the phoneme /ə/ has the allophone [ʌ] in the two words /šéd/ 'one hundred' and /šəšt/ 'sixty', where it is lowered and backed adjacent to velarized /š/.

- /a/ [a:] Low central unrounded long vowel; does not occur in unstressed word-final position. Examples: /áw/ 'water'; /žán/ 'pain'; /asmán/ 'sky'; /már/ 'snake'; /səwá/ 'haggling'.
- [a] Low central unrounded short vowel; occurs only in unstressed word-final position. Example: /káka/ (title of respect in addressing elder brother).
- /i/<sup>1</sup> [i] High back unrounded short vowel; occurs only before velar consonants, or in word-final position or adjacent to another vowel as the result of the dropping of a dental stop (see 2.323); never occurs in word-initial position. Examples: /désti/ 'your hand'; /gít/ 'soil'; /síg/ 'stomach'; /dí/ 'heart'
- [i] High central unrounded short vowel; does not occur before velar consonants, nor in word-initial or word-final position. Examples: /žín/ 'woman'; /déstit/ 'your hand'; /ʔəcin/ 'they go'; /tírs/ 'fear'; /kílk/ 'tail'; /cíl/ 'forty'.
- /u/ [u:] High close back rounded long vowel. Examples: /kúr/ 'hunchback'; /utél/ 'hotel'; /púl/ 'money'; /túr/ 'radish'; /dúr/ 'distant'; /xanú/ 'house'.
- /ʌ/ [ʊ] High open back rounded short vowel; does not occur in word-final position. Examples: /káf/ 'boy'; /gál/ 'leprosy'; /kák/ 'hen ready to lay eggs'; /kák/ 'scratch'; /astáz/ 'professor'.
- /o/ [o~] Mid open back rounded short vowel. Examples: /kór/ 'party' (people); /tór/ 'fishing net'; /gól/ 'lake'; /kók/ 'target'; /ostá/ 'master'; /bó tó/ 'for you' (sing).

## 2.12. Consonants<sup>2</sup>

Subsections (1)-(8) describe consonantal coarticulation processes. Section 2.121 is a listing of consonants with description and distribution of allophones (for distribution of phonemes see 2.14). Since a listing of all the allophones for each phoneme is not practicable, only principal allophonic types are given. Section 2.122 describes the two consonants of limited distribution.

(1) Voicing. Voiced consonants remain fully voiced after voiceless consonants or after silence, as /t r z/ in /piá/ 'rung' (of a ladder),

<sup>1</sup>Acknowledgement is made to Professor Kenneth L. Pike for help in analyzing the structure of this vowel.

<sup>2</sup>As in the case of vowels (see footnote 2, page 13), Wahby and Mann merit the greatest consideration in making comparisons. Both of these

/trozí/ 'wild cucumber', and /zewí/ 'ground' (as contrasted with /séwi/ 'his apple'). Stops and fricatives undergo partial regressive assimilation as to voicing before other stops or fricatives, e.g., /báš/ 'good' and /bážbu/ 'it was good'. These assimilation processes are described in morphophonemics, 2.3. Before silence, voiced stops and fricatives may become partially or fully unvoiced, as [ség ~ ségk ~ sák] 'dog'. Those final phonemes which vary in the degree of their voicing are regularly represented in this analysis by the symbols of the voiced phonemes, as /ség/.

(2) Release and Aspiration. All stops are fully released in all positions of the utterance. Voiceless stops (except uvular and glottal) are slightly aspirated in word-initial position, and may or may not be aspirated in word-final position. This aspiration in word-initial position occurs both with single consonants (as in /káka/) and with consonant clusters (as in /ktéb/ 'book', /tféj/ 'rifle').

(3) Palatalization. In normal style, the stops /p k g/ and the fricative /f/ are usually palatalized before higher front vowels and semiconsonants, that is, before the front vowels /i i e/, the semiconsonant /y/, and the allophone [w̃] of the semiconsonant /w/. In the case of the velar stops, it is not so much a matter of palatalized stops as it is of palatal affricates. That is, these are not sequences of stop plus /y/, but palatal affricates which, to the uninitiated, sound more like [tš] and [dž]. /p/ and /f/ are coarticulated simultaneously with a palatal off-glide (that is, the middle of the tongue approaches the palate to produce the off-glide); these can be represented phonetically by [p<sup>y</sup>] and [f<sup>y</sup>]. Palatalization ordinarily does not occur in deliberate style.

(4) Affricates. The phonetic sequences [tš] and [dž] have been interpreted as compound unit phonemes /c/ and /j/ rather than as sequences of two single phonemes for the following reasons:

agree with the analysis in this work for the following consonants: /p b t d k g q ʔ f s z š ž x ɣ ʕ h c j m n l ɭ r w y/. In addition to these 27 consonants, Wahby and this work show the consonants /v/ and /ʕ/. This work, alone of the three, shows /ŋ/ as well as /ɣ/. Wahby has two special symbols and for and respectively, merely to show in which positions /t/ and /d/ may be dropped (see 2.323). Wahby uses single letters for all consonants except /ŋ/, for which the digraph (= ng) is used. All three works distinguish between dental /l/ and velarized /ɭ/, but only Wahby and this work distinguish between flap /r/ and trill /ʀ/. /v/, like /ɣ/, is limited in its distribution, occurring in a dozen words at most. Mukri Kurdish shows no v at all. On the other hand, Chodzko, writing in 1857, recorded no w at all, showing v where Sulaimaniya has /w/ today. While it is possible that the dialect has seen a change in phoneme in the past hundred years, it seems more likely that this inconsistency is due to a difference in dialect or idiolect.

(a) Interpretation as a series of two consonants would create a word-initial cluster of three consonants. Since three-consonant clusters do not otherwise exist in word-initial position<sup>1</sup>, only an interpretation as unit phonemes avoids violating the basic structure of Kurdish words (see 2.132).

(b) The combinations /ʃt/ and /ʒd/ do not occur in word-initial position; this strengthens the interpretation as unit phonemes.<sup>2</sup>

(c) In every instance where the sequences /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ occur in Sulaimaniya Kurdish, the closely-related dialects of Ruwandiz and Batas show /ts/ and /dz/ respectively. On the other hand, the sequences /ts/ and /dz/ do not occur in the corpus. Thus, these two sequences each function as integral units when compared with other dialects.

(d) Native orthographies treat these as two unit phonemes (see 1.3). Thus, the reaction of the literate native speaker favors this interpretation, although it must be noted that in every case the native orthographies are based on other orthographies which themselves have special characters for the affricates /c/ and /j/.

An argument against the interpretation of /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ as compound unit phonemes is the fact that affricates alone of all types of consonants do not occur as the first member of two-consonant clusters (including geminate clusters) (see 2.143).

(5) Laterals. Kurdish distinguishes phonemically between a "clear" and a "dark" lateral, as /gɬ/ 'leprosy' and /gɬ/ 'rose'. The clear lateral /l/ is articulated with the tongue tip making contact behind the teeth and the tongue back neutral as to vocalic quality. The dark lateral /ɬ/ is alveolar and is articulated with the tongue dorsum raised in the oral cavity, giving velar resonance. This velar resonance appreciably colors the quality of the preceding vowel /i/, which is realized in this environment as its back allophone [ɨ], as opposed to [ɪ] before clear /l/.

(6) Velarization. In addition to the velarized lateral of the preceding subsection, there is a velarized voiceless alveolar sibilant /ʃ/, a phoneme of limited distribution (see 2.122). The velarization colors the adjacent vowel: in the words /ʃɛd/ 'one hundred' and /ʃɛʃt/ 'sixty' the vowels are actualized as lowered mid open, slightly backed [ʌ].

<sup>1</sup>Except /txwá/, an interjection of surprise. I reject this as establishing a pattern because (1) it is unique in the language (excepting, of course, the clusters in /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ which are themselves under analysis), and (2) interjections very often contain extra-systematic sounds or arrangements of sounds; cf. the alveolar click, which denotes commiseration for English speakers and 'no' for Arabic speakers, although the click is not a phoneme in either language; and (3) this form exists alongside of /tuxwá/ with the same meaning and is obviously a contraction of it.

<sup>2</sup>See Kenneth L. Pike, *Phonemics: A Technique for Reducing Languages to Writing* (Ann Arbor, 1947) 132.



(7) Gemination. All types of consonants except affricates occur geminate; for a listing of these consonants see 2.142. Geminate consonants are phonetically long, and occur only intervocalically in the word. <sup>p. 29</sup>

(8) Vibrants. There is a phonemic contrast between the flap /r/ and the trill /ʀ/. The flap is articulated by striking the tip of the tongue once against the alveolar ridge; the trill is a rapid succession of flaps. The distinction is not a heavily marked one; it is especially difficult to detect the difference in word-final position. The contrast is neutralized at the beginning of the word, only the trill occurring there. Only the flap occurs intervocalically as a rule; the trill occurs there only as the result of word formation (see 4.22). There are two possible interpretations of the trill; as a single phoneme or as a series of separate phonemes. The latter interpretation is supported by the fact that of the vowels /a/ and /u/, only /a/, which tends to occur only before consonant clusters (see 2.141), occurs before /ʀ/ while /u/, which tends not to occur before consonant clusters, does not occur before /ʀ/. However, the trill is interpreted here as a single phoneme because (1) it contrasts in identical environment with the flap: /brín/ 'to wound' and /bʀín/ 'to cut'; (2) if interpreted as a geminate cluster it would be the only geminate cluster occurring in an environment other than intervocalic; and (3) clusters as /rr/ and /ʀr/ occur, as /nerrábu/ 'it has been sent' and /ʔəkiʀré/ 'it will be sold'; if interpreted as a geminate cluster then the existence of clusters of three identical consonants would have to be assumed.

2.121. The Consonant Phonemes. This subsection treats of the structure of the individual phoneme; phoneme distribution, both in clusters and as single phonemes, is described in 2.14. In the following listing, it is to be understood that, unless otherwise noted, a phoneme occurs initially, intervocalically, or finally in the word. Numbers in parentheses refer to respective paragraphs in the preceding subsection.

#### Stops (2,3,7)

- /p/ [p] Voiceless bilabial stop (2); does not occur before /e/.  
Examples: /pénd/ 'pun, trick'; /pšilś/ 'cat'; /bapír/ 'grandfather'; /śsp/ 'horse'.
- [pʲ] Palatalized voiceless bilabial stop (3); occurs only before /e/.  
Example: /pénj/ 'five'.
- /b/ [b] Voiced bilabial stop. Examples: /bénd/ 'cord'; /bīrínj/ 'rice'; /mrəbbś/ 'jam'; /ktéb/ 'book'.
- /t/ [t] Voiceless dental stop (2). Examples: /tś/ 'you' (sing); /kért/ 'short'; /tśéŋ/ 'rifle'; /xótan/ 'yourselves'; /jút/ 'a pair' (rugs, dice).

- /d/ [d] Voiced dental stop. Examples: /dó/ (a fermented milk drink); /kúrd/ 'Kurd'; /dán/ 'tooth'; /šažadé/ 'prince, princess'; /bórd/ 'rock'.
- /k/ [k] Voiceless velar stop (2) (3); does not occur before mid close front or high front vowels or semiconsonants. Examples: /kwá/ 'where?'; /káy/ 'when?'; /kés/ 'person'; /kón/ 'old'; /nə́kə/ 'if he does not do'; /kə́ř/ 'boy'; /ktéb/ 'book'; /gə́lek/ 'a little'.
- [kʲ] Palatalized voiceless velar stop; occurs only before mid close front or high front vowels or semiconsonants (i.e., /i i e y/ and /w̃/; see (3)). Examples: /kwé/ 'where?'; /ké/ 'who?'; /munkín/ 'possible'; /kwér/ 'blind'.
- /g/ [g] Voiced velar stop; does not occur before close mid front or high front vowels or semiconsonants (3). Examples: /gə́z/ 'bite'; /agá/ 'care'; /gú/ 'excrement'; /gə́št/ 'meat'; /sə́g/ 'dog'.
- [gʲ] Palatalized voiced velar stop; occurs only before close mid front or high front vowels or semiconsonants (3). Examples: /gwé/ 'eye'; /gián/ 'soul'; /ʔə́gə́rnəwə/ 'they relate'.
- /q/ [q] Voiceless uvular stop (2). Examples: /qə́y náka/ 'it doesn't matter'; /qə́rbán/ 'you' (polite); /bə́rqiýə/ 'telegram'; /láq/ 'leg'; /fə́rq/ 'difference'.
- /ʔ/ [ʔ] Glottal stop. Examples: /nə́ʔəhat/ 'he wasn't coming'; /ʔə́ʔawsét/ 'it swells up'; /ʔə́yʔə́ngə́wim/ 'I'll shoot him'; /nə́ʔ/ 'no'.

#### Affricates (4)

- /c/ [tʃ] Voiceless alveopalatal affricate. Examples: /cám/ 'my tea'; /cə́/ 'go'; /cón/ 'how?'; /cə́nd/ 'how much?'; /kícek/ 'a girl'; /mác/ 'kiss'.
- /j/ [dʒ] Voiced alveopalatal affricate. Examples: /jám/ 'bowl'; /jə́/ 'barley'; /jú/ 'Jew'; /hənjár/ 'figs'; /táj/ 'crown'.

#### Fricatives (3)

- /f/ [f] Voiceless labiodental fricative; does not occur before /e/. Examples: /fə́rř/ 'rug'; /fanilə́/ 'undershirt'; /haífz/ 'Protector'; /zaíf/ 'weak'.
- [fʲ] Palatalized voiceless labiodental fricative; occurs only before /e/. Examples: /feník/ 'cool'; /fér bún/ 'learning' (verbal noun).
- /v/ [v] Voiced labiodental fricative; see 2.122.

- /s/ [s] Voiceless dental sibilant. Examples: /siné/ 'tray'; /tírs/ 'fear'; /kés/ 'person'; /pəsté/ 'chorus'; /spí/ 'white'; /šusé/ 'glass' (material); /sér/ 'strange'.
- /z/ [z] Voiced dental sibilant. Examples: /zín/ 'saddle'; /góz/ (unit of measure for cloth); /hərzán/ 'cheap'.
- /ʃ/ [ʃ] Velarized voiceless alveolar sibilant; see 2.12. (6) and 2.122.
- /š/ [š] Voiceless alveopalatal sibilant. Examples: /šin/ 'blue'; /tírš/ 'sour'; /báš/ 'good'; /mešulá/ 'mosquito'; /štəkánim/ 'my things'.
- /ž/ [ž] Voiced alveopalatal sibilant. Examples: /žín/ 'life'; /žapón/ 'Japan'; /šažín/ 'queen'; /dréž/ 'long'.
- /x/ [x] Voiceless velar fricative. Examples: /xwá/ 'god'; /xóš/ 'pleasant'; /xəw/ 'dream'; /dák/ 'sorrow'; /širəxór/ 'infant'.
- /g/ [g] Voiced velar fricative. Examples: /agá/ 'agha'; /gəlót/ 'mistake'; /garibí/ 'foreign land'; /bag/ 'garden'.
- /ħ/ [ħ] Voiceless faucalized pharyngeal fricative. Examples: /ħəywán/ 'animal'; /zəhmét/ 'trouble, bother'; /ħəwt/ 'seven'; /təzbíħ/ 'prayer beads'.
- /ʕ/ [ʕ] Voiced faucalized pharyngeal fricative; no word-final occurrence noted. Examples: /ʕáyb/ 'shame'; /ʕəbə/ (woman's black cloak); /səʕát/ 'time, watch, clock, hour'; /məʕnə/ 'meaning'.
- /h/ [h] Voiceless glottal fricative. Examples: /ħəywán/ (corridor bordering courtyard of house); /səhól/ 'ice'; /gunáh/ 'crime'.

#### Nasals

- /m/ [m] Voiced bilabial nasal. Examples: /mám/ 'uncle'; /més/ 'fly'; /masí/ 'fish'; /həmané/ 'leather'; /ʔəkém/ 'I do'.
- /n/ [n] Voiced dental nasal; does not occur before velar stops or in the environment /a...z/. Examples: /nán/ 'bread'; /bán/ 'roof, plateau'; /pənjá/ 'fifty'; /ʔəkén/ 'they do'.
- [~] Nasalization of preceding vowel; occurs only in environment /a...z/. Examples: /panzə/ [pāːzə] 'fifteen'; /yanzə/ 'eleven'; /banzín/ 'gasoline'.
- /ŋ/ [ŋ] Voiced velar nasal; does not occur initial in the word. Examples: /bánŋ/ 'call, invitation'; /maŋú/ 'tired'; /ħəŋwín/ 'honey'; /dəŋ/ 'voice'.

Laterals (l) (5)

- /l/ [l<sup>i</sup>] Voiced clear dental lateral. Examples: /gɛl/ 'leprosy'; /lɛw/ 'lip'; /lɛ/ 'side'; /gɔl/ 'lake'; /glɛw/ 'unclean'.
- /ɫ/ [l<sup>u</sup>] Voiced dark alveolar lateral (with tongue dorsum raised); does not occur initially in the word. Examples: /gɛɫ/ 'rose'; /gɛɫw/ 'rose water'; /pɫɛ/ 'rung' (of ladder); /gɪɫ/ 'soil'.

Vibrants (l) (8)

- /ɾ/ [ɾ] Voiced alveolar flap; does not occur initially in the word. Examples: /brɪn/ 'to wound'; /krɪn/ 'to buy'; /ʔənerrɛ/ 'it will be sent'; /ʃirɪn/ 'sweet'; /kɔɾ/ 'donkey'; /bɔɾ/ 'snow'.
- /ʀ/ [ʀ] Voiced alveolar trill; occurs intervocally only as result of word formation: see 4.22. Examples: /bɛɾɪn/ 'to cut'; /kɛɾɪn/ 'to rub'; /ʀɔʒ/ 'sun, day'; /kɔʀ/ 'deaf'; /snoqɛʀɛʃɛkɔ/ 'the black box'; /ʀɛ/ 'away'.

Semiconsonants

- /y/ [y] Voiced palatal glide. Examples: /yarɪ/ 'game, play'; /ʔəyɛwɛ/ 'he wants'; /ʔəynásɪm/ 'I know him'; /cáy/ 'tea'.
- /w/ [w] Voiced labiovelar rounded glide; does not occur before close front vowels. Examples: /wá/ 'thus'; /wutucí/ 'laundryman'; /səwá/ 'haggling'; /xwardɪn/ 'to eat'; /áw/ 'water'.
- [w̥] Voiced high front rounded glide; occurs only before close front vowels. Examples: /werán/ 'ruin, ruination'; /áwi/ 'his water'; /həɹwɪn/ 'honey'; /gwéʒ/ 'nuts'.

2.122. Consonants of Limited Distribution. There are two consonants which are greatly restricted in their incidence in the lexicon, one consonant occurring mostly in onomatopoeic words and the other occurring in only two words. These are listed below with a complete accounting of their occurrences.

- /v/ [v] Voiced labiodental fricative; occurs in any position of the word; limited to the following words: /vɪʃ ~ vrɛvɪʃ/ (onomatopoeic sound of machines); /gɪv ~ gɪvɛgɪv/ (onomatopoeic sound of bullets); /həvvɛ ~ həvdɛ/ 'seventeen'; /govár/ 'magazine'; /vɪɲɛvɪŋ/ (onomatopoeic sound of buzzing of bees).
- /s̺/ [s̺] Voiceless velarized alveolar sibilant (see 2.12 (6)); occurs in two words: /s̺ɛd/ 'one hundred'; /s̺ɛʃt/ 'sixty'.

### 2.13. The Syllable

Every word contains at least one syllable. The structure of the syllable was arrived at by having informants say certain words, giving each word in segments. Thus the syllable is defined as the smallest division of a word as pronounced in isolation by speakers of this dialect. The results obtained were uniform, and are summarized as follows:<sup>1</sup>

(1) A word has as many syllables as it has vowels. Thus /béfr/ 'snow' has one syllable; /niáz/ 'intention' has two syllables; and /azaí/ 'freedom' has three syllables.

(2) A single consonant between two vowels forms a syllable with the following vowel, as /názanım/ 'I don't know'=[ná.za.nım].

(3) In clusters of two or more consonants, syllable division comes between the last two consonants; however, if the last consonant of the cluster is a vibrant or a semiconsonant the division comes before the last two consonants. In the following, V represents any vowel; C represents any consonant; S, any stop, affricate, or fricative; N, any nasal, liquid, or semiconsonant; R, any vibrant or semiconsonant; and the period . indicates syllable division:

-C.C-	təš.pí	həv.və	dər.pé
-CC.C-	məwq.na.tís	řəsm.gír	řoyš.tín
-CCC.C-	gəyst.mə.wə		

However,

-.CR-	ka.brə	bə.nə.xwén	
-C.CR-	řas.trə	yək.trí	mái.myán
-CC.CR-	none		

2.131. Syllable Structure. Every syllable must contain one vowel, which may be preceded and/or followed by one or two consonants; two patterns show V preceded or followed by three consonants:

V	a.frét	'woman'
VC	aw.sán	'to swell up'
VCC	ašt	'peace'
CV	ša	'king'
CVC	fən.ján	'cup'
CVCC	fərš	'rug'

<sup>1</sup>Wahby mentions syllables in his Xöndewariy' baw. He states on page 4 that there are as many syllables as there are vowels, but does not formulate rules for dividing the word into syllables. In his examples, a consonant occurring between vowels forms a syllable with the following vowel, as mamizeke = ma mi ze ke ['the fox': my /mamizəkə/]. The sole illustration with a consonant cluster is Xurmalh which he divides thus: Xur malh.

CVCCC	řóyšt	'he went'
CCV	třé	'grapes'
CCVC	ktéb	'book'
CCVCC	ša.trínj	'chess'
CCCV	txwá	(interjection expressing surprise)

this is the only occurrence of this pattern: see  
see footnote, page 18.

Any combination of these syllable patterns is possible, if no cluster of more than four consonants results, as /řóyštım/ 'I went' - /řóyštıməwə/ 'I went back'.

#### 2.14. Distribution of Phonemes

Sections 2.11 and 2.12 list the vowels and consonants respectively, giving the distribution of the principal allophonic types of each phoneme. This section gives the distribution of phonemes in both the syllable and the word, without reference to allophonic variations. For the phonemes of limited distribution /v ʂ/, see 2.122.

2.141. Vowels. Although it is necessary to set up two sets of phonemes /i ɨ/ and /u ʊ/ because of such contrasts as /ʔəcín/ 'they go': /mʌmkín/ 'possible' and /púl/ 'money': /gʌl/ 'leprosy', the contrasts are, in effect, neutralized in the environment VCC, where only the open varieties tend to occur, e.g., /dá nʌštın/ 'they sat down' and /nʌštın/ 'they slept'. The present stems of these verbs show the close varieties, as /dá ʔəníšın/ 'they sit down' and /ʔənún/ 'they sleep'. In case of forms like /nʌštın/, (D) /núštın/ may also occur as a careful pronunciation, without difference in meaning.

The formulas at the left refer to syllable types found in 2.131.

##### (1) One vowel

- V- (a) Initial. All vowels except /i/ occur initially in the syllable or word.
- .V. (b) Medial. All except high vowels occur as a complete syllable.
- V- All vowels occur medially in the word.
- CV. (c) Final. All vowels occur finally in the syllable. All vowels
- CV except /ɨ/ and /ʊ/ occur finally in the word. /i/ occurs finally in words only as the result of the dropping of a dental stop: see 2.323.

##### (2) More than one vowel

- V.V- Two vowels may occur contiguously in a word, forming separate syllables, as /ni.áz/ 'intention' and /ša.í/ 'ceremony'; however high open vowels do not occur contiguous to other vowels. /i/ provides exceptions to these rules: as the result of the dropping of dental stop (2.323) /i/ occurs contiguous to another vowel

and does not form a separate syllable when it occurs finally in the word and after another vowel. For vowel morphophonemics, see 2.31. Sequences of more than two vowels have not been recorded.

2.142. Consonants. In 2.122 the full occurrence of the phonemes of limited distribution /v ʃ/ is given. From observation it is evident that there are other consonants, all of back articulation (from velum to glottis) and occurring for the most part in loan words, which are also of comparatively low incidence in the corpus, although not so low as to merit a complete listing of the items in which they occur. These are /ɣ ɬ ʁ ʔ/. In the following, all consonants except /v ʃ/ are considered.

(1) One consonant

- C- (a) Initial. All consonants except /ɣ r ɬ/ occur initially in the syllable and the word; /ɣ r ɬ/ may occur initially in the syllable, however, only if that syllable is not initial in the word: /kɪrɪm/ 'worm'; /xakɪz/ 'charcoal'; /dɛʁɪ/ 'his voice'. Thus, loan words which begin with /r/ in the lending language, e.g. Arabic *ramadân* 'Ramazan', regularly show /ʁ/ in Kurdish: /ʁamazân/.
- C- (b) Medial. No consonant occurs medially in the syllable, but all consonants occur medially within the word.
- C- (c) Final. All consonants occur finally in the syllable. /c j ɟ ʔ/, however, occur finally in the syllable only when that syllable itself is final in the word: /kɪc/ 'girl'; /dɛrɛj/ 'degree'; /qɛləbɛlɛɟ/ 'crowd'; /nɛʔ/ 'no'. /ɣ/ occurs finally in the syllable but not in the word: /mɛɣnɛ/ 'meaning'; /ɬ/ is the only consonant for which no word-final occurrence was noted in the corpus.

(2) Two consonants

- CR- (a) Initial. When in word-medial position, the syllable may begin with a stop plus /r/ or with any consonant plus a semi-consonant. Formulas at the left refer to the cluster types of 2.13 (3):

consonant + vibrant or semiconsonant

zir.brá	'step-brotler'
bənə.xwén	'belt-cord'
máɬ.myan	'they...my house'
(cf. (1) under 5.41)	

- CC- The word, or, when it is in word-initial position, the syllable, may begin with the following combinations:

		<u>stop + stop</u>			
(D) tk tká	'thanks'	kt	ktéb	'book'	

			<u>stop + affricate</u>		
pc	pcūk	'little'			
			<u>stop + fricative</u>		
pš	pšilě	'cat'	qs	qsě	'speech'
tf	tfěŋ	'rifle'			
			<u>stop + liquid</u>		
pł	płá	'rung' (of ladder)	dr	drěŋ	'late'
bl	blé	'say!'	dř	dřandín	'to tear'
pr	propelantě	'propaganda'	kr	krín	'to buy'
br	brayetí	'brotherhood'	kř	křín	'to rub'
bř	břín	'to cut'	gr	grów	'a bet'
tr	trozí	'wild cucumber'	gř	gřán	'expensive'
			<u>stop + semiconsonant</u>		
py	pyáw	'man'	dy	dyáre	'obviously, of course'
tw	twé	'slice'	kw	kwér	'blind'
			<u>affricate + nasal</u>		
x jn	jnábtan	'you' (polite)			
			<u>affricate + semiconsonant</u>		
cw	cwár	'four'	jw	jwán	'beautiful'
			<u>fricative + stop</u>		
sp	spí	'white'	šk	škáyewə	'is broken'
sk	skút	'silence'			
			<u>fricative + fricative</u>		
sf	sfúr	'without /ǵaba/' (said of women)			
			<u>fricative + nasal</u>		
sn	snóq	'box'	žm	žmardín	'to count'
zm	zmán	'language'			
			<u>fricative + liquid</u>		
fl	flán	'So and So'	vr	vrəvíř	(sound of machines)
fr	frošyar	'customer'	zř	zřě	(sound of tinkling object)
xr	xráp	'bad'			
			<u>fricative + semiconsonant</u>		
xw	xwarú	'south'			
			<u>nasal + semiconsonant</u>		
nw	nwé	'new'			
			<u>liquid + affricate</u>		
řj	řjá	'hope'			



liquid + semiconsonant

řw řwán 'to grow'  
(intransitive)

(b) Medial. The syllable never contains consonants in medial position. The word may contain the following two-consonant clusters in medial position:

			<u>stop + stop</u>		
-C.C-					
pq	qəpqép	(sound of wooden shoes)	qq	hoqqá	-(a measure of weight)
bb	mrəbbé	'jam'	tt	ǵəttár	'perfume shop, notions shop'
bt	jnábtaŋ	'you' (polite)	kk	təšəkkúr	'thanks'
bk	gobkə	(a kind of flower)	kg	yəkgirtwəkán	'united'
			gb	səgbáz	'dog fancier'
			<u>stop + affricate</u>		
pc	qopcé	'button'			
			<u>stop + fricative</u>		
ks	yəksér	'directly'	qx	ǵəřəqxór	'a heavy drinker'
			<u>stop + nasal</u>		
bn	libnán	'Lebanon'	tn	wətnəwə	'they taught'
			<u>stop + liquid</u>		
-C.R-					
pr	yapréx	'stuffed cabbage rolls'	đr	ʔədrúm	'I sew'
			kr	bikrím	'I buy' (subjunctive)
br	kabré	'fellow, old man'	kř	ʔəkrím	'I rub'
tr	šatrínj	'chess'	ql	ǵaqlə	'intelligence'
			<u>stop + semiconsonant</u>		
ty	ʔətyešé	'it pains you'	qy	fəqyanə	'Kurdish long-sleeved shirt'
			<u>fricative + stop</u>		
ft	haftə	'week'	šb	išbílíə	'Lisbon'
fk	lɪfkə	'wash-rag'	št	šustín	'to wash'
vd	həvdə	'seventeen'	žd	əždihə	(a fabulous animal)
sb	nɪsbət	'comparison'	xt	nəxtək	'a little bit'
st	está	'now'	ǵt	təǵtál	'vacation'
zb	təzbíh	'prayer beads'	ht	ih̥tirám	'respect'
zg	mɪzgəwt	'mosque'	ht	məhtəsməl	'possible'
šp	təšpí	'wooden dish'			
			<u>fricative + fricative</u>		
vv	həvvə	'seventeen'	xš	bəxšín	'to forgive'
žh	řəžhəlát	'sunrise, east'			

		<u>fricative + nasal</u>		
ʒm	ʔəʒmériṃ	'I count'	ʒm zəhṃət	'trouble, bother'
ʒn	məʒnə	'meaning'		
		<u>fricative + liquid</u>		
fr	sifrə	'zero'	zr dīzrā	'was stolen'
sr	nəsriṃ	(girl's name)		
		<u>fricative + semiconsonant</u>		
ʃy	huʃyār	'sober'	hw ʃəhwaní	'hermaphrodite'
xw	bəndəxwén	'belt-cord'		
		<u>nasal + stop</u>		
nb	boinbáx	'necktie'	nd mandú	'tired'
nt	ʒantikéi	'funny'	nk mīlwanṃ	'necklace'
		<u>nasal + affricate</u>		
nj	fənján	'cup'		
		<u>nasal + fricative</u>		
mʃ	ʃəmʃəməkwér	'bat' (animal)	nz dwanzə	'twelve'
ns	insánek	'a person'		
		<u>nasal + nasal</u>		
mm	səmmún	'French bread'	nm gənmesámi	'corn'
mn	məmnún	'thanks'	nn geránnəwə	'to tell, relate'
		<u>nasal + liquid</u>		
mř	kəmřəṅ	'light' (in color)	nř honřáwə	'poem'
		<u>nasal + semiconsonant</u>		
my	ʔəmyeʃə	'it pains me'	nw ʔənwé	'he will sleep'
		<u>liquid + stop</u>		
lb	pulbáz	'stamp collector'	rt girtín	'to take, grasp'
lt	dīltəṅ	'sad'	rd bīrdín	'to carry'
lk	cawilkə	'eyeglasses'	rg dərgá	'door'
lt	galtə	'joke'	rq bərqiyə	'telegram'
lk	bəiku	'perhaps'	řb tořbə	'musette bag'
rp	dərpə	'undershorts'	řd bīřdótəwə	'you won'
rb	oḡirbe	'Where are you going?' (polite)		
		<u>liquid + affricate</u>		
rc	ʒəttarcí	'perfumer, notions shopkeeper'		
		<u>liquid + fricative</u>		
lf	jīlfá	'slang'	rz dərzi	'needle'
lx	xəbələkə	'top' (which spins)	rx zirxəšk	'step-sister'
rf	gīrfán	'pocket'	rḡ qurḡán	'Koran'

<u>liquid + nasal</u>			
rm	hærmé	'pear'	rn zorná 'flute'
<u>liquid + liquid</u>			
ll	kállé	'mosquito net'	
<u>liquid + semiconsonant</u>			
lw	milwanké	'necklace'	rw mirwari 'pearl'
ly	məlyún	'million'	ry qəryolé 'cot'
<u>semiconsonant + stop</u>			
wb	səwbé	(a kind of flower)	wq məwqnatis 'magnetism'
wt	kəwtín	'to fall'	yt paytéxt 'capital'
wk	pərdəwkállé	'mosquito net'	
<u>semiconsonant + affricate</u>			
yc	qəycí	'scissors'	
<u>semiconsonant + fricative</u>			
wx	təwxá	'bobby pin'	
<u>semiconsonant + nasal</u>			
yn	ʔəynásim	'I know him'	
<u>semiconsonant + liquid</u>			
wl	xawlí	'towel'	wr awrišim 'silk'
<u>semiconsonant + semiconsonant</u>			
ww	əwwál	'first'	yy ʔəyyešé 'it pains him'
yw	həywán	'corridor along patio'	

x' Gemination. All types of consonants except affricates occur in geminate clusters. (four more, arabic!)

bb	mrebbé	'jam'	mm səmmún	'French bread'
tt	ʔəttár	'notions shop'	nn kužánnəwə	'to turn off'
kk	təšəkkér	'thanks'	ll kállé	'mosquito net'
qq	hoqqá	(measure of weight)	ww əwwál	'first'
vv	həvvé	'seventeen'	yy ʔəyyešé	'it pains him'

(c) Final. The syllable in word-final position may end in a two-consonant cluster provided that the following syllable begins with any consonant other than a liquid or semiconsonant: /ʔəsm.gir/ 'photographer'. The following types of clusters occur in syllable-final position when the syllable itself is not word-final:

<u>continuant + stop</u>			
-CC.C-	semiconsonant and stop:	məwq.natis	'magnetism'

	<u>continuant + continuant</u>	
fricative and nasal:	řəsm.gír	'photographer'
nasal and fricative:	yanz.dě	'eleven'
liquid and fricative:	qərz.dár	'debtor'
semiconsonant and fricative:	gəyř.tim	'I arrived'

The following types of clusters occur finally in words and in syllables which are final in the word:

<u>-CC</u>		<u>stop + fricative</u>	
qf	səqf	'ceiling'	
		<u>fricative + stop</u>	
st	mást	'yoghurt'	řt ařt 'peace'
řk	zırxóřk	'step-sister'	
		<u>fricative + nasal</u>	
sm	řəsm	'picture'	žn jěžn (Muslim holiday)
zm	nızm	'low'	hm řəhm 'mercy'
		<u>fricative + liquid</u>	
řt	nařt	'leather slippers'	
		<u>nasal + stop</u>	
nt	kánt	'straight' (in poker)	nd pənd 'trick, pun'
		<u>nasal + affricate</u>	
nj	qazánj	'profit'	
		<u>nasal + liquid</u>	
mr	řəmr	'age' (years)	
		<u>liquid + stop</u>	
lk	křlk	'tail'	rd mérd 'man, husband'
lq	xəlq	'people'	rg měrg 'pasture'
řk	kəřk	'use' (noun)	rq fěrq 'difference'
rt	řərt	'condition, proviso'	
		<u>liquid + affricate</u>	
rc	naqərc	'a pinch'	
		<u>liquid + fricative</u>	
rf	sərf	'spending' (noun)	rř fěřř 'rug'
rs	qərs	'difficult'	rx běrx 'lamb'
rz	řərz ~ řərz	'ground'	
		<u>liquid + nasal</u>	
rm	gərm	'hot'	

		<u>semiconsonant + stop</u>	
wt	həwt	wq	šəwq
	'eight'		'light' (noun)

		<u>semiconsonant + fricative</u>	
wz	səwz		
	'green'		

Semiconsonants do not occur as the final member of word-final clusters. Geminate clusters do not occur finally in the word.

### (3) Three consonants

- (a) Initial. No occurrence noted in either syllable or word (see footnote, page 18). (Amf STR (Amf). CBX 561, 20 p. 49)
- (b) Medial. No occurrence noted in syllable; in the word, the following types of word-medial three-consonant clusters occur:

- C.CR Third member a vibrant or a semiconsonant: the first two members may be either continuants or stops; syllable division is between the first two members:
- |         |                   |
|---------|-------------------|
| yək.trí | 'each other'      |
| fas.trə | 'is more correct' |
- RC.C- Third member is any consonant but a vibrant or a semiconsonant: the first two consonants are continuants (the first being a liquid or semiconsonant and the second being a fricative); syllable division is between the second and third consonants:
- |          |          |
|----------|----------|
| řoyš.tín | 'to go'  |
| qerz.dár | 'debtor' |
- CCC (c) Final. Syllable, word: here occur clusters of two continuants and a stop, with the first continuant a semiconsonant:
- |       |           |
|-------|-----------|
| řóyšt | 'he went' |
|-------|-----------|
- CCC.C- This same combination may occur finally in any syllable which is followed by another syllable beginning with any consonant other than a vibrant or semiconsonant:
- |            |                  |
|------------|------------------|
| gáyšt.məwə | 'I arrived back' |
|------------|------------------|
- (4) Four consonants
- Syllable: no occurrence. Word: only the word-medial cluster of the type continuant-continuant-stop-continuant occurs:
- CCCC- gáyštməwə 'I arrived back'
- (5) No occurrences of clusters with more than four consonants have been noted.

**2.143. Summary.** (1) Vowels. Any vowel may occur in any position in the word, with the following two exceptions: that /i/ never occurs initially in the word, and that no high open vowel except /i/ occurs finally in the word. Any vowel except /ɛ ʌ i/ may constitute an entire syllable. Clusters of two vowels occur in word-medial or word-final position; they may contain any combination of vowels, except that no high open vowel except /i/ occurs contiguous to other vowels.

It is evident that the high open vowels /ɛ ʌ i/ are different from the other vowels in their distribution and occurrence. These three vowels alone of all the vowels do not form entire syllables and do not occur contiguous to other vowels or in final position in the word, except that /i/ does occur in these two latter positions when dental stops are dropped (for which see 2.323).<sup>1</sup>

(2) Consonants. (a) One consonant: any consonant may occur in any position in the word, except that /ŋ r ɬ/ do not occur initially in the word, and no word-final occurrence of /ɣ/ has been found. /ʁ/ is rare intervocally, resulting only from word formation, and /c j ɟ ʔ/ occur syllable-final only when the syllable is final in the word.

(b) Two consonants: initially, any type of consonant may be either the first or second member of a word-initial two-consonant cluster, except that 1) semiconsonants are never the first member of the cluster; 2) stops are not followed by nasals; 3) only stops and affricates take a stop as second member; and 4) clusters of stop + stop are the only clusters with two consonants of the same category. Medially, all thirty-six of the theoretically possible combinations of categories occur except those beginning with affricates. By the same token, consonants of every category except affricates occur in geminate clusters. In final position in the word, at least one of the two consonants must be a continuant, except that no affricate or semiconsonant occurs as the second member and that no cluster contains both members of the same category.

(c) Three-consonant clusters do not occur initially in words. Medially, they must have at least one continuant, and may contain as many as three. If there is one stop or affricate, it occupies the second

<sup>1</sup>This would imply that these vowels may be in a transitional stage. This is further substantiated in the case of /ɛ/ and /ʌ/ by the fact that while /i/ is of very high incidence in the lexicon the vowels /ɛ/ and /ʌ/ are greatly restricted in their occurrence. Further investigation shows that (1) /i/ occurs generally in words of Iranian origin; and (2) most instances of /ɛ/ and /ʌ/ are in loans from Arabic, although even words which are of Iranian origin historically now show /ɛ/ and /ʌ/ rather than /i/ and /u/ before two-consonant clusters, as /ɛnʃa/ 'then, in that case' and /kɛrd/ 'Kurd'. Before a single consonant, either may occur, as /mɛmɛn/ and /ʔɛcɛn/; /gɛl/ and /pɛl/.

Thus, it would appear that /i/, although a normal development in Kurdish, is in transition as a result of the patterning of the dental stops as referred to above.

or third place. If there are two stops or sffricates, the third member of the cluster is a vibrant. Three-consonant clusters in word-final position contain a semiconsonant and continuant and stop.

(d) The only four-consonant clusters occurring are of the type semiconsonant-continuant-stop-continuant in word-medial position.

It is possible, in a general way, to rephrase this clustering using numbers, in which the higher the number the greater the degree of sonority indicated and the greater the proximity of the consonant to the vowel, as

- 6 semiconsonants
- 5 liquids
- 4 nasals
- 3 fricatives
- 2 affricates
- 1 stops

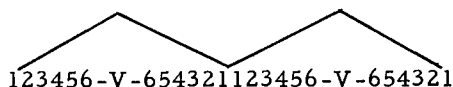
The occurrence of consonants in clusters can be charted as follows, with the first member of the cluster in the horizontal row and the second member in the vertical column:

CC-	6	5	4	3	2	1	-CC-	6	5	4	3	2	1
6		56	46	36	26	16	6	66	56	46	36		16
5			45	35		15	5	65	55	45	35		15
4				34	24		4	64	54	44	34		14
3				33		13	3	63	53	43	33		13
2					12		2	62	52	42			12
1				31		11	1	61	51	41	31		11
-CC	6	5	4	3	2	1	-CCC-	-614-	-416-	-315-			
6								-631-	-531-	-431-	-341-	-115-	
5			45	35			-CCC	-631-					
4		54		34			-CCCC-	-6314-					
3	63	53				13							
2		52	42										
1	61	51	41	31									

As indicated above, the greater the sonority of a consonant the greater its relative proximity to the syllabic (vowel). Thus, the consonants in a word-initial cluster show increasing sonority, word-final clusters show a decrease in sonority, while medial clusters may show a decrease or increase or first an increase and then a decrease in sonority. Exceptions to this general trend do occur, as /spí/ 'white' = 31-, a decrease in sonority even though the second consonant is closer to the syllabic.

With initial clusters limited to two consonants, final clusters limited to three, and medial clusters limited to four, a given cluster will for

the most part contain any combination or categories of consonants in the same relative sequence as they appear in the following formula (solid line indicates relative amount of sonority):



## 2.2. Non-linear Phonemes<sup>1</sup>

Non-linear phonemes are lexical stress, primary stress, and intonation. They will be presented in that order.

### 2.21. Lexical Stress

Stress is phonemic in Kurdish, as evidenced by the pairs /morá/ 'dice' and /mórə/ 'it is purple', and /lə pášəwə/ 'afterwards' and /lə páš əwá/ 'after that'. Phonetically, there are three degrees of stress, or loudness of pronunciation: loud, medium, and weak. These are indicated by the acute accent (´) for loud stress, the grave accent (`) for medium stress, and no mark for weak stress. The placement of loud stress is not predictable, although in general it falls on the ultima unless the ultima is an inflectional suffix. The placement of both medium and weak is determined by the position of loud stress: a word has only one loud stress; all other syllables receive weak stress, except that the pre-pretonic or the post-posttonic, if any, receives medium stress, as

qələbáleg = qələbáleg 'crowd'  
 gáyštməwə = gáyštməwə 'I arrived back'

Thus, there are two stress phonemes, phonemic loud, consisting of phonetic loud, and phonemic quiet, consisting of phonetic medium and phonetic weak. The latter are mutually exclusive in their placement, which is determined by the placement of loud stress. Only loud stress, therefore, is marked on words cited in this description.

### 2.22. Primary Stress

In the previous section, lexical or word stress is described as that particular fixed stress that every word pronounced as an entire utterance must have, as /nawit/ 'your name', /penjərák/ 'the window'. A word and its meaning are identified by the placement of this stress; compare /həmaná/ 'leather' and /həmánə/ 'we have'. However, most utterances consist of more than one word, and usually not all of the words in the utterance are stressed fully. Any given word in an utter-

<sup>1</sup>Stress is not described in most works on Kurdish, and intonation is not described in any. When it is treated (Mann, Socin, Barr) stress seems to be similar in all the dialects — phonemic stress usually occurs on the ultima, except that inflectional suffixes are generally unstressed.



ance may be pronounced louder than the rest, thereby receiving the primary emphasis or focus of attention in that utterance; the lexical stress of all the other words in the utterance is then suppressed. This type of stress is called primary stress and is symbolized in this section by ° before the word bearing it. The other words, with suppressed stress, are said to have secondary stress. Thus, every word has a fixed lexical stress, while it may have either primary or secondary stress in a given utterance. Thus,

lérə °gəním hýə 'There is wheat here.'

oto gəním °nárweni, gəním °ʔacéni 'You don't plant wheat, you sow it.'

In the first sentence above, the syllable /nim/ has loud stress and the other syllables all bear weak stress. In both the following sentences /wa/ means 'thus' and /ʔəxóm/ means 'I (will) eat':

owa ʔəxóm 'I eat like this.'

wa °ʔəxóm 'I'm going to eat right now.'

It must be pointed out that lexical meaning is not affected by the presence or absence of primary stress; in the first sentence /wa/ (manner) is emphasized over the verb (action), whereas in the second sentence the action is so strongly emphasized as to make it seem immediate or even in the act of beginning.

As a rule, negative forms (as /náxoyt/ 'you don't eat'), interrogatives (as /bóci/ 'why?'), and preverbs (as /dá/ 'down') receive primary stress:

°bóci nanəkət °náxoyt 'Why don't you eat (your bread)?'

hatá to °néyet mın °náxom 'I won't eat until you come'

(literally, until you don't-come I don't-eat)

°štəkánim °da na 'I put my things down.' °da nišə 'Sit down.'

The subjunctive prefix /bi-/ is usually not stressed, as °cənd bihénim 'How much shall I bring?'

However, it may be stressed for special emphasis:

şgar °bízani, pem °bıe 'If you do know, tell me.'

da °bínişim 'Shall I sit down?'

A sentence has at least one primary stress; the maximum is limited only by the length of the utterance. After this section, lexical stress as such will not be indicated. Primary stress will be indicated by ° and secondary stress by the absence of any such mark.

### 2.23. Intonation

Kurdish intonation will be analyzed on two levels: first, the pitch phonemes will be presented, and then a sketch of pitch morphemes will be given.

2.231. Pitch phonemes. Kurdish intonation can be described in terms of three phonemic levels of pitch or pitch phonemes, /1 2 3/. The higher the number, the higher the level of pitch it represents.

Acoustically, these pitch phonemes do not represent absolute frequencies of pitch, but rather constitute a structure of three ranges of pitch relative to each other. Pitch /2/ may be lower on an absolute scale at certain times than at other times, but it is always higher than /1/ and lower than /3/ in any given utterance. Further, if pitch /2/ occurs a number of times within a single utterance, it may well never hit the same absolute frequency twice, but will fall within a range of pitch, which can be characterized as pitch phoneme /2/. The relative distances between pitches, too, vary according to the style of speech: quiet style versus loud style, etc.; but such variations are not within the scope of this treatment.

Three separate pitch phonemes have been set up on the basis of the following types of contrast, in which the final pitches in the utterances contrast with each other:

$\overset{3}{\sim}$ -2 hícyan	<u>hícyan</u>	'Neither of them?' (question)
$\overset{3}{\sim}$ -1 hícyan	<u>hícyan</u>	'Neither of them.' (affirmation)
$\overset{2}{\sim}$ -3 hícyan	<u>hícyan</u>	'Neither of them (did you say)?' (repeated question)

In the examples above, numbers are phonemic representation and the solid lines are an approximate phonetic transcription. The acute accent over a number indicates a stressed syllable. The phonetic transcription is graphic and is not intended to show the exact pitch of each phoneme. In the utterance  $\overset{3}{\sim}$ -1/hícyan/, the pitch falls from level /3/ to level /1/. This is a gradual fall occurring over the length of both syllables. The exact shape of this fall is not significant; it is the beginning point and the ending point that determine the meaning of the intonation pattern. Such curves or changes in pitch may occur over a series of syllables, as above, or over a single vowel, as in

$\overset{2}{\sim}$ - $\overset{3}{\sim}$ -1 ?əykərm	<u>?əykərm</u>	'I'll do it'
---	----------------	--------------

This often happens when the last syllable of an utterance is a stressed one. In the utterances cited in the preceding paragraph, the pitch sequences such as  $\overset{3}{\sim}$ -1/ and  $\overset{2}{\sim}$ -3/, which begin with stressed pitches, are called contours. The sequence  $\overset{2}{\sim}$ - $\overset{3}{\sim}$ -1/ contains a contour,  $\overset{3}{\sim}$ -1/, and a precontour, /2/, which is an unstressed pitch occurring before a contour.

Three phonemic levels of pitch have been posited for Kurdish in this analysis. However, experience with two languages as widely separated as English and Turkish, both of which have four pitch phonemes, would make it seem reasonable to expect four levels in Kurdish as well. Kurdish does not, however, have the extra-high pitch that the other two languages have. This may be purely fortuitous in that no extra-high pitch occurred in any situation recorded in the

corpus, and it is theoretically possible that further research would reveal an additional higher level or two for Kurdish.

**2.232. Pitch Morphemes.** Pitch morphemes may be simple, consisting of a single pitch phoneme, or compound, consisting of a sequence of pitch phonemes. These pitch morphemes never affect lexical meaning (as do pitches in a tone language), but rather betray the attitude of the speaker during the utterance: question versus affirmation; anger, sarcasm, surprise, etc. This meaning is spread over the entire length of the pitch morpheme sequence, whether it be over a monosyllable, as /<sup>3</sup>con<sup>-1</sup>/ 'How?', or over an utterance of a number of syllables; e.g.:

<sup>2</sup>-fəsmkešəkəsm <sup>3</sup>-nəhenawbū<sup>-1</sup> 'I hadn't taken my camera.'

(1) Simple pitch morphemes. There are three simple pitch morphemes, as follows:

- {.} consisting of pitch phoneme /1/ (stressed or unstressed) and signifying completion.
- {,} consisting of pitch phonemes /<sup>3</sup>/ (stressed), /3/ (unstressed), or /2/ (unstressed) and signifying lack of completion in utterance-medial position and question in utterance-final position.
- {-} consisting of pitch phoneme /<sup>2</sup>/, and signifying emphasis.

These pitch morphemes occur only in pitch contours (see (2) below), and may be compared to bound morphemes on a lexico-morphological level, as the -ish in English boyish.

(2) Pitch Morpheme Contours. There are three basic pitch morpheme contours, rising {^}, falling {˘}, and level {˙}. In describing these contours, a two-component symbol will be used in which the upper component indicates the type of contour (^˘) and the lower component indicates the final pitch morpheme of the contour (.,-). Thus, {˘} means a falling contour terminating on the simple pitch morpheme {˙}, i.e. /2- -1/. The symbols ^ and ˘ denote a change of one level only; if the rise or fall is over two levels, the accent is doubled: {˘˘} means a fall of two levels to {˙}, i.e., /<sup>3</sup>- -1/.

(a) Falling contours have the general meaning of completion.

The following types occur in the corpus:

- 1) Falling to {˙}: {˘˘} (i.e., completion + completion) = affirmation:

<sup>2</sup>-šəcmə māləwə<sup>-1</sup> (= ʔəcmə māləwə˘˘) 'I'm going home.'

If this sentence contains an interrogative (see 3.453) it is a question:

<sup>2</sup>-nāwī cīyə<sup>-1</sup>

'What is his name?'

- 2) Falling to {,}: {;} (completion + lack of completion) = question:

$\overset{2}{-}$   $\overset{3}{-}$ -2  
to mæḡašxóri

'Are you employed?'

(/mæḡašxór/ = 'salary-eater')

If this utterance contains an interrogative, then it is a double question – that is, it may be

- a) a repeated question asking for clarification of a previous utterance, as

$\overset{2}{-}$   $\overset{3}{-}$ -2  
naw cíbu

'What was the name?' ('What did you say the name was?')

- b) a question expressing surprise or incredulity, as

$\overset{2}{-}$   $\overset{3}{-}$ -2  
naw cíə

'What is your name?'

(Surely not that!)

The meanings given under a) and b) obtain in utterance-final position; in utterance-medial position this contour means lack of completion, as

$\overset{3}{-}$ -2  $\overset{3}{-}$ -2  
cóni cáki škər

'How are you – well, I hope?'

$\overset{3}{-}$ -2  $\overset{3}{-}$ -1  
bále wábu

'Yes, it was like that.'

The more usual contour for expressing lack of completion in utterance-medial position is {,} (see (b) 1) below); the use of {;} here for lack of completion implies a greater division between the two segments of the utterance than does {,}.

- (b) Rising contours have the meaning of lack of completion.

- 1) Rising to {,}: {;} (lack of completion + lack of completion) = emphatic question:

$\overset{2}{-}$   $\overset{2}{-}$ -3  
be gáita

'No kidding?'

This contour is regularly used on monosyllabic words to denote question, as

$\overset{2}{-}$   $\overset{2}{-}$ -3  
wá

'Like this?'

If the monosyllable is an interrogative, this is a repeated question (see 2) a) above):

$\overset{2}{-}$   $\overset{2}{-}$ -3  
cón

'How (did you say it was)?'

The use of this contour on non-interrogative words with stress on the final syllable, as in the case of /wá/ immediately above, is complementary with the use of {;} ((a) 2) above) also meaning question but occurring in utterances where the final syllable is not stressed as in

$\overset{2}{-}$   $\overset{2}{-}$ -3  
wá

'Like this?'

compared with  $\overset{3}{-}$ -2 wábu 'Was it like this?'

In utterance-medial position a rising intonation means lack of completion:

$\overset{2}{\sim} - \overset{3}{\sim} \overset{3}{\sim} - 1$   
nāwīt ciyē

'What is your name?'

- 2) Rising to  $\{,\}$ :  $\{\dot{\sim}\}$  may embrace not only the contour  $/\overset{2}{\sim} - \overset{3}{\sim}/$  but also the contour  $/\dot{\sim} - \overset{2}{\sim}/$ ; this contour also combines lack of completion with lack of completion but the fact that it begins from  $\{.\}$  gives it an affirmative element as well. This contour is restricted to that situation wherein the speaker wishes to affirm that he is attentive to the conversation, and wishes the other person to continue—rather, complete his say:

$\dot{\sim} - \overset{2}{\sim} \dot{\sim} - \overset{2}{\sim}$   
bāle bāle

'Yes, yes...' (Go on – I'm listening)

- 3) Rising to  $\{,\}$ :  $\{\dot{\sim}\}$  (lack of completion + lack of completion); this is a two-level rise from  $/\dot{\sim}/$  to  $/-3/$ ; the additional level adds the element of emphasis, making this an incredulous question:<sup>1</sup>

$\dot{\sim} - \overset{3}{\sim}$   
txwā

'Indeed?!'

- (c) Level contours denote intensity. Compare

$\overset{3}{\sim} - \overset{3}{\sim} \overset{1}{\sim}$   
dā nišē

'Sit down!' and  $\overset{2}{\sim} - \overset{2}{\sim} \overset{2}{\sim}$  'Sit down (I say)!'

This level contour may potentially occur at any pitch morpheme level.

(3) Combinations of contours. In a series of utterances there will of course be found instances of more than one contour within a single utterance; each contour will contribute to the overall meaning of the utterance. For example, in the following illustration, the first contour, which is level, intensifies the injunction and the second one (lack of completion) leaves unsaid, as it were, what may well happen to the person addressed if he does not obey; the sum effect of these two contours is to produce a threat:

$\overset{3}{\sim} - \overset{3}{\sim} \overset{3}{\sim} - \overset{2}{\sim}$

māke tōwē 'Don't do that, you!' (māke = 'don't do!')

2.233. Summary. Kurdish intonation can be described in terms of at least three pitch phonemes, three simple pitch morphemes, and three basic pitch morpheme contours, the latter structuring into an undetermined number of combinations of contours. Also significant are position in the utterance (medial as opposed to final) and the number of levels involved in rising and falling contours (one-level change as opposed to a two-level change).

<sup>1</sup>These last two rising contours would imply a contrast between pitch allomorphs  $/3/$  and  $/2/$  of the morpheme  $\{,\}$  which would necessitate a different analysis from the one presented here. It seems preferable to interpret the difference in number of levels involved in the two rising contours as the significant element rather than the different pitch allomorphs.

### 2.3. Morphophonemics.

When vowels come into contact with vowels and consonants come into contact with consonants as the result of morphological processes, certain regular and predictable modifications of the phonemes involved take place. These morphophonemic changes are discussed first for vowels and then for consonants. It should be pointed out here that the transcription used outside of this section is regularly phonemic only and not morphophonemic. The immediate utility of this section is to clarify what might otherwise seem irregular changes in the phonemic writings. Thus, the morpheme {y} '3rd sing.' has the allomorph /i/ after consonants, as in /náwi/ 'his name', and the allomorph /y/ after a vowel, as in /bráy/ 'his brother'. Such morphemic alternations are indicated by the distributional formula  $C_i/V_y$ , which means that the allomorph /i/ is found after any consonant and the allomorph /y/ is found after any vowel. The style of speech described herein is normal informal (N); processes which are characteristic of deliberate style (D) or rapid style (R) are so marked.

#### 2.31. Vowels

The morphophonemics of vowels must take into consideration stress and height, in which

high vowels are    i    u  
mid vowels are    e    ə    o  
low vowels are    a

No instances have been noted in which the vowels /i u/ occur contiguous to other vowels, even as the result of a morphological process. /i/ occurs contiguous to other vowels only as the result of the dropping of dental stops (2.323); when this takes place the regular morphophonemic processes described below do not obtain. Since /i/ is unique in its behavior, it is described separately in 2.312.

2.311. Vocalic Processes. The vowels in the chart in 2.31 do occur contiguous to other vowels, but not as the result of morphological processes, as /šái/ 'ceremony', /boinbáx/ 'necktie'. In general, when two vowels are juxtaposed, unstressed high vowels alternate with their semiconsonant counterparts and non-high vowels are separated by /y/. These processes are presented in relation to height of vowel and stress

(1) Both vowels of the same height:

(a) High: the unstressed vowel alternates with its corresponding semiconsonant

ú + i > úy; ?ənú- + -it > ?ənúyt 'you sleep'

u + í > wí; ?ədru- + ítəwə > ?ədrwítəwə 'you reap'

í + u

i + ú

} no occurrence noted

i + i > i; di- 'saw' + -i '3rd sing.' > dí 'he saw'

## (b) Mid: V + V &gt; VyV

e + ə > əyə; əsterós 'star' + -ə 'is' > əsterəyə 'It is a star.'

o + ə > oyə; dró 'lie' + -ə 'is' > dróyə 'It's a lie.'

e + ə: (1) eyə: xwé 'salt' + -ə > xwéyə 'It's salt.'

(2) eə : xwé + əwə > xwéəwə in the phrase  
bə xwéəwə 'with salt'

It is not predictable whether (1) or (2) will obtain for a given suffix.

## (c) Low: a + a &gt; aya; cırá 'light' + -án (plural) cırayán 'lights'

## (2) Vowels of different heights:

## (a) High unstressed + mid or low: the high vowel is replaced by the corresponding semiconsonant.

mid + high: ʔə + i + -kə- + -it > ʔəykəyt 'you make it.'

ʔəxó- + -in > ʔəxóyn 'we eat'

pe- + -i > péy 'to him'

high + low: kaní 'spring' + -án > kanyán (for \*kanián) 'springs'

low + high: brá 'brother' + -i > bráy 'his brother'

## (b) High stressed + mid or low: V + V &gt; VyV, as

i + ə > iyə: ni- 'not' + -ə 'is' > níya 'is not'

u + ə > uwə: zu 'early' + -ə > zúwə 'is early' (contrast

zu + -i '3rd sing.' + -ə > zúyə 'it is early for him')

## (c) Mid + Low: In general, V + V &gt; VyV, as

e + a > eya; hərmé 'pear' + -án > hərmeyán 'pears'

o + a > oya; həló 'eagle' + -án > həloyán 'eagles'

However, ə + a > a, as ktebəkə 'the book' + -án > ktebəkán 'the books';

and the present stem vowel o + -át '3rd sing.' > -wát, as

ʔəxo- 'eat' + -at > ʔəxwát 'he eats'

## (d) Low + Mid: a + ə &gt; ayə; əm...ə 'this' + lá 'side' əmlayə 'this side'

2.312. The vowel /i/ is syncopated under certain conditions and is assimilated to /i/ under other conditions. The processes described here do not obtain when /i/ comes into contact with another vowel as the result of the dropping of a dental (see 2.323).

## (1) Syncopation

## (a) /i/ is always syncopated when it occurs adjacent to another vowel:

bi- + -i- + -xo > \*biixo > bixó 'Eat it!' (bixó = 'Eat!')

ʔənú- 'sleep' + -im '1st sing.' > ʔənúm 'I sleep'

(b) /i/ is usually syncopated in normal style when it is unstressed and is followed by a single consonant and a vowel, provided that the resultant consonant cluster is a permissible one (as defined in 2.131). That is, C<sub>i</sub>CV ~ CCV

ʒin 'woman' + -án > (D) ʒinán ~ (N) ʒnán 'women'  
 báwkit 'your father' + -im di > báwktim di 'I saw your father'

ʔəcim 'I go' + -ə 'to' > ʔəcmə 'I go to'

However, a stressed /i/ is not syncopated, as

hi 'the one of' + min 'I' + -ə > hi minə 'It's mine.'

This syncopation does not occur in deliberate style.

- (2) Assimilation: /i/ is assimilated to /i/ before /y/: i + y > iy;  
 bi- + -yan 'them' + -xo > biyanxó 'Eat them!'

**2.313. Elision.** Monosyllabic words in -ə, as bó 'to,' ló 'in, from,' elide their vowel before words beginning in a vowel, as

bə + əw 'him' > bów 'to him'

lə + əwé 'there' > ləwé 'there, in that place'

lə + éré 'here' > lére 'here, in this place'

The transcription in this analysis, being phonemic rather than morphophonemic, shows the elision of vowels just described.

**2.314. Summary.** When two vowels are juxtaposed as the result of a morphological process, the following changes occur: typically, the two vowels are separated by /y/. Unstressed high vowels, however, alternate with the corresponding front or back semiconsonant, while stressed high vowels show no such alternation. /i/ is unique in its behavior, usually being lost when it comes in contact with another vowel or syncopated when followed by a single consonant and a vowel.

## 2.32. Consonants

Consonants may undergo assimilation, may occur intrusively, or may be lost completely, depending on position in the utterance.

**2.321. Assimilation.** Stops (except uvular and glottal) and sibilants undergo partial regressive assimilation as to voicing in any position in the utterance.

- (1) Utterance-initial: (D) bićuk ~ \*bcuk > (N) pcuk 'little' (b ~ p)

- (2) Utterance-medial: (D) ci bićəm ~ (N) ci pkəm 'What shall I do?'  
 (b ~ p)

xóš 'nice' + -bu 'was' > xóžbu 'It was nice'  
 (š ~ ž)

paš 'after' + niwəřó 'noon' > paž niwəřó  
 'after noon' (š ~ ž)

- (3) Utterance-final: sígim ʔəcé 'I have diarrhoea' (lit., 'my stomach goes'), but sík 'stomach' (k ~ g)



In rapid style, voiced dental stop /d/ undergoes complete progressive assimilation after the nasals /m/ and /n/, as

(N) lém dayt ~ (R) lém mayt 'I hit you'

(N) qələmdán ~ (R) qələmmán 'pencil box'

(N) řəsməkəý pišán da ~ (R) na 'He showed the picture'

**2.322. Excrescence.** The cluster /nř/ fluctuates freely with the cluster /ndř/, which is the more usual pronunciation in normal style.

(D) cenřáv ~ (N) cendřáv 'sown'

(D) dřenřáv ~ (N) dřendřáv 'torn'

**2.323. Loss of Consonant.** /h/ and the dental stops /t/ and /d/ are lost under certain conditions of normal (or rapid) style, although retained in deliberate style, as follows:

(1) /h/ may be lost in utterance-medial position before a vowel:

(D) řožhəlát ~ (N) řožəlát 'sunrise; east'

(N) nəhat ~ (R) nət 'he didn't come'

(D) bihəne ~ (N) bəne 'bring!'

(2) In informal conversational style, dental stops /t/ and /d/ are dropped in certain environments, as follows:

(a) /t/ may be dropped only in word-final position after vowels.

(N) dəstít ~ (R) dəstí 'your hand'

(D) ʔəcét ~ (N) ʔəc 'he goes'

(b) /d/ may be dropped in several environments, with various results:

1) When intervocalic and contiguous to /i/, /d/ is dropped without other changes:

(N) qadír ~ (R) qaír 'Qadir' (proper name)

(N) nadír ~ (R) naír 'Nadir' (proper name)

2) When intervocalic and not contiguous to /i/, or when utterance-final and not following /n/, /d/ is dropped and /i/ occurs; this /i/ is a high back unrounded vowel:

(N) ʔədóm ~ (N) ʔəióm 'I give'

(N) bəd ~ (R) bəi 'bad'

3) When /d/ is in the cluster /nd/:

a) If that cluster is word-final or word-medial, the cluster alternates with velar nasal /ŋ/:

pénd ~ pəŋ 'pun, trick'

cəndít ʔəwé ~ cəŋít ʔəwé 'How much do you want?'

mandí ~ maŋí 'tired'

- b) If that cluster is in word-medial position the /d/ may be dropped without other change:<sup>1</sup>

céndit ʔəwé ~ cénit ʔəwé 'How much do you want?'

bəndəxwén ~ bənəxwén 'belt-cord'

əfəndí ~ əfəní 'gentleman'

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<sup>1</sup>There seems to be a connection between the following facts: (1) that the vowel /i/ which alternates with /d/ is a high back (or velar) vowel and (2) that, on the dropping of /d/ from the cluster /nd/, the /n/ may alternate with velar nasal /ŋ/. Indeed alternation between a consonant and a vowel as in (b) 2) above is unusual in itself. These interesting phenomena are worthy of further research.

## CHAPTER III

## MORPHOLOGY: FORM CLASSES AND THEIR INFLECTION

3.0. Introductory<sup>1</sup>

In this analysis, morphology is defined as the structure of the word (see (1) below) and syntax is defined as the structure of the sentence (see 5.0). Inflections provide formal criteria for setting up form classes, although syntactic criteria are adduced at times as secondary considerations. Accordingly, Chapters 3 and 4 are devoted to morphology, Chapter 3 presenting the form classes and their inflections and Chapter 4 presenting word formation. These two deal with the word, while Chapter 5, Syntax, deals with utterances of more than one word.

(1) **The Morpheme.** The morpheme is a phonemically defined segment of speech or set of segments of speech with a constant range of meaning. A morpheme which can be preceded and followed by silence on the part of the speaker is a free morpheme (or word), as /pyáw/ 'man'; a morpheme which cannot so occur is a bound morpheme, as the /-etí/ in /pyawetí/ 'humanity'. Thus, a word can consist of a single free morpheme, as /cwár/ 'four', /dó/ 'ten'; it can be a compound of two or more free morphemes, as /cwardó/ 'fourteen'; it can be a morpheme complex of free and bound morphemes, as /náwim/ 'my name' (/náw/ 'name' and /-im/ '1st sing. '); or, finally, it can be a compound or a complex plus a bound morpheme, as /dibxóšim/ 'I am happy' (/dib/ 'heart' and /xoš/ 'pleasant'). A stem is that form of a word bare of affixes: the stem of /náwim/ is /náw/ and of /léyan/, /lé/. Hyphenated forms are bound forms: a form preceded by a hyphen is a suffix, a

<sup>1</sup>The following symbols are used in this description: the vertical bar | separates allomorphs of a single morpheme which are in complementary distribution; thus, their occurrence is predictable. For example, /Cim|Vm/ means that the suffix allomorph /-im/ occurs after any consonant and the suffix /-m/ occurs after any vowel.

The symbol ~ means "varies with" and separates items which are not predictable in their occurrence; thus, /həmú ~ həməú/ 'each, every' means that either form may occur in a given context. As far as possible the more frequent form is given first.

The hyphen - identifies a bound morpheme; it never has reference to juncture.

The colon : occurring between items without intervening spaces separates the two stems of a verb, as /xward-xo-/, the past stem and the present stem respectively of the verb 'to eat'.

Suspension points ... separate the constituent parts of a discontinuous morpheme, as

lə...-da + zıstán 'winter' > ló zıstánda 'in winter'.

form preceded and followed by a hyphen is an infixed form, and a form followed by a hyphen is a prefix. No words consist solely of bound forms; every word is based on a free morpheme.

(2) Form Classes. Common features of form permit a grouping of words into five parts of speech or form classes. Each form class has specific characteristic formal features which define it, all of which are borne by every member of that class. Within classes there may be subclasses, also based on formal features. Thus, nouns are words which take definition and number suffixes (but not comparative suffixes, as can adjectives). A subclass of nouns is composed of those nouns which can take the vocative suffix /-ə/. The five form classes are nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and particles.

(3) Pronominal Suffixes. Bound forms can be grouped also into affix classes, according to the form class to which they convert. That is to say, a nominal suffix is a bound form which might be appended to any of certain form classes, but the resultant form is always a noun. Affix classes are presented in Chapter 4.

There is, however, a set of suffixes, the pronominal suffixes, which may occur with any form class and which do not convert the stem word to a different form class. Their basic meaning remains constant, but the resultant forms acquire various additional meanings according to the form class of the stem word and sometimes according to the position of the pronominal suffix in the word (that is, whether they are infixed or suffixed). Consequently, since any word may receive a pronominal suffix when preceded and followed by silence, the pronominal suffixes are presented at this point so that the special meanings obtaining with the various form classes can be indicated as that form class is discussed.

The pronominal suffixes express both person and number; they are listed as follows:

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st per	Cim Vm	-man
2nd per	Ci(t) Vt	-tan
3rd per	Ci Vy	-yan

They are composed of the elements /m/ (1st person), /t/ (2nd person), /y/ (3rd person), and /-án/ (plural). Parenthesis in the 2nd person singular signifies that this /t/ may or may not be pronounced. The special meanings obtaining through affixation are given under the respective form classes. In honorific style, /-tan/ and /-yan/ may be used with singular referent (see 1.4).

(4) The Form Classes. The form classes are presented in the following order: nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and particles.

Under each heading is given the following information in addition to a definition of the form class in terms of its distinctive formal features: (1) description of each of the distinctive features; (2) subclasses, if any; (3) patterning and meaning of the pronominal suffixes for this form class; and (4) a structural diagram.

The distinctive features which every word of a given form class must invariably show constitute its inflection. Thus, the pronominal suffixes are inflectional forms when added to preterite stems of verbs – a feature which every transitive verb must show in the preterite tense when the verb alone constitutes the entire utterance. The features found under (3) above, however, are in each case optional and as such are not part of the inflection of the word. Pronominal suffixes, when infixed before the stems of verbs in the present tense, accordingly, are not inflectional forms, since verbs in this tense may or may not occur with this feature (direct object of verb).

### 3.1. The Noun

The noun is a word which may be inflected for (1) definition and (2) number. There are two subclasses of nouns, those which can receive the locative suffix /-e/, and those which can receive the vocative suffix /Cə|Vwə/. There is a special class of verbal nouns or infinitives which does not show these inflections; they are subsumed under nouns because their distribution patterns that of nouns. For the formation of infinitives, see 4.314.

#### 3.11. Noun Inflection<sup>1</sup>

3.111. Definition. The noun shows inflections for definition or lack of definition.

(1) The usual definite suffix is /Cəkə|Vkə/ affixed directly to the noun stem; it precedes all other suffixes in order of suffixation. This suffix has the alternate forms /Cək-|Vk-/ before the plural suffix. Rarely, and in a more formal style, the definite article suffix /-ə/ may occur. The definite article suffixes indicate that the referent of the noun is a specific one to which reference has already been made or to which specific reference is now being made.

<sup>1</sup>Wahby says in his *Destur i Zman i Kurdi*, section 114, page 35, that nouns have gender also, corresponding to the sex of the referent. For formal criteria, he reports that sometimes the definite article suffix is /-ə/ on masculine nouns and /-e/ on feminine nouns instead of the usual /-əkə/; these, however, are "used very little." He further states that /-e/ sometimes occurs on feminine nouns in place of the regular vocative suffix /Cə|Vwə/. Hadank and Mackenzie also refer to gender in Northern Kurdish.

kíc	'girl'	:	kícəkś	'the girl'
cirá	'light'	:	círakś	'the light'
ktébit	'your book'	:	ktebəkśt	'your book'
	= a book of yours			= that book of yours
kér	'donkey'	:	(D) kərś	'the donkey'

(2) The indefinite suffix is (D)(N) /Cek|Vyek/, (N) /Ce|Vye/; for a morphophonemic statement of the alternation see 2.311. Like the definite suffix, this suffix precedes all others in order of suffixation. It signifies that the referent is singular and that the referent is not a specific one.

pyáw	'man'	:	pyáwek ~ pyáwe	'a man'
hərmé	'pear'	:	hərméyek	'a pear'

3.112. Number. Nouns show two numbers, singular and plural. In form, the bare noun stem is singular; the plural is formed for the great majority of nouns by the suffixation of /Cán|Vyán/, where V = /a/ or /e/.

žin	:	žnán	'women'
kaní	:	kanyán	'springs'
bərú	:	bərwán	'oak trees'
cirá	:	círayán	'lights'
təxtś	:	təxtán	'boards'
hərmé	:	hərmeyán	'pears'

The following words form their plural in /-hát~wát~át/:

dé	:	dehát	'villages'
səwzś	:	səwzəwát	'greens'
bág	:	bagát	'gardens'

The following noun shows reduplication plus addition of extra element:

gá	:	gagál	'oxen'
----	---	-------	--------

The plural suffix is second in order of suffixation; that is, it follows the suffix of definition, if any (note: before /-án/ the suffix of definition is /Cək-|Vk-/).

máĭ	'house'	:	małán	'houses'
małəkś	'the house'	:	małəkán	'the houses'

The uninflected singular noun may be used in a generic sense, as  
pšilś góšt ʔəxwá 'Cats eat meat.'

### 3.12. Noun Subclasses

3.121. Locative. The locative suffix /-é/ appears on the following words with the meaning of 'in' or 'at':

šśw	'night'	:	šśwé	'in the night, last night'
šár	'city'	:	šaré	'in the city'

3.122. Vocative. Singular nouns may receive the vocative suffix /Cə|Vwə/ for single referent and /-inə/ for plural referent, indicating direct address.

kář	'boy'	:	kářə	'hey, boy!'
kér	'donkey'	:	kéřə	'you ass!'
héro	(girl's name)	:	hérowə	'Hero!'
xəlk	'people'	:	xəlkine	'People!'

### 3.13. Noun with Pronominal Suffixes

The pronominal suffix added to nouns has the meaning of possessor.

náv	'name'	brá	'brother'
návim	'my name'	brám	'my brother'
návīt	'your name'	brát	'your brother'
náwi	'his name'	bráy	'his brother'
návman	'our name'	bráman	'our brother'
náwtan	'your name'	brátan	'your brother'
náwyan	'their name'	bráyan	'their brother'

Pronominal suffixes added to the infinitive (or verbal noun) mean either (1) actor or (2) goal of action, as

(1) actor:

paš hatinim bó éřə 'after my coming here'

(2) goal:

miwáneř hář bó bininim 'A guest came to see me.'

### 3.14. Noun Diagram

All possible noun-word structures (except for infinitives) are included in the following diagram:

stem	definition	plural	pron.suffix
mái	-əkə	-án	-im
	-ek		(-im)

Thus, every noun is based on a stem, as /mái/ 'house'. It may include as well any combination of affixes which are on the same horizontal level and always in the same relative relationship to the stem. Thus, definition always precedes any other suffix, plural always precedes the pronominal suffix, if any, etc. The possible word types are accordingly, /mái mařəkə mařəkán mařəkánim mařəkém mařán mařánim mařim mářek/. For /mářekim/ see 5.41.

### 3.2. The Adjective

Adjectives share some of the features characteristic of nouns, and in addition possess a feature peculiar to adjectives. The former include definition and number; the form and function are the same as for nouns. The special adjective feature is comparison. The participle is a special form of adjective derived from verbs; this derivation is described in 3.414 (6).

### 3.21. Adjective Inflection

3.211. Definition. There are two article suffixes, the definite /Cəkə|Vəkə/ and the indefinite /Cək|Vyek/.

cək	'good'	:	cəkəkə	'the good one'
			cəkək	'a good one'

3.212. Number. The plural suffix /-án/ is attached to the adjective to signify that more than one item of the quality or state named by the adjective is indicated (/əkə/ has the alternate form /ək-/ before the plural suffix):

cəkán	'good ones'	:	cəkəkə	'the good one'
			cəkəkán	'the good ones'

3.213. Comparison. Degrees of comparison are two: comparative and superlative.

(1) Comparative. The comparative is formed by suffixing /-tír/ to the adjective stem. It signifies a greater degree of the quality named than one or more other items.

báš	'good'	:	baštír	'better'
gəwrə	'big'	:	gəwrətír	'bigger'

(2) Superlative. The superlative degree is formed by suffixing /-trín/ (that is, the allomorph /-tr-/ of the comparative plus /-ín/) to the adjective stem. It signifies the greatest degree of the quality named by the adjective.

báš	'good'	:	baštrín	'best'
gəwrə	'big'	:	gəwrətrín	'biggest'

### 3.22. Adjective plus Pronominal Suffix

The pronominal suffix when appended to this adjective may mean (1) possessor or (2) item of reference.

(1) Possessor: cəkəkánım 'my good ones'

(2) Person or object to which item is oriented:

zúyə 'It is early for him' (zu 'early + y '3rd sing.' + -ə 'is').

Compare zúwə 'It's early'

bəstə 'it's enough for you' (bəs 'enough' + t '2nd sing.' + -ə 'is').

### 3.23. Adjective Diagram

The following diagram shows the possible word structures for adjectives:



<u>stem</u>	<u>definition</u>	<u>plural</u>	<u>pron. suffix</u>	<u>comparison</u>
cák	-əkə	-án	-im	
	-ek			
				-tir
				-trín

### 3.3. The Pronoun

Pronouns show distinction of person and number. Syntactically, they differ from nouns in that nouns occur in agreement with verbs only in the third person, whereas pronouns occur in agreement with verbs in the first and second persons as well.

#### 3.31. Pronoun Inflection

3.311. Person. Pronouns show first, second, and third persons. These forms are all suppletive, and are listed below.

3.312. Number. Pronouns show two numbers, singular and plural. The plurals in the first and second persons are suppletive; only in the third person is the plural derived from the singular by the suffixation of /-án/ (compare the plurals of nouns and adjectives). The pronouns are:

	<u>Singular</u>		<u>Plural</u>
1st person	mín 'I, me'	émə	'we, us'
2nd person	tó 'you'	éwə	'you'
3rd person	əw 'he, him, she, her, it'	əwán	'they, them'

#### 3.32. Pronoun Subclasses

3.321. Vocative. Second person pronouns may receive the vocative suffix /Cə|Vwə/, which gives the pronoun added force in direct address.  
máke towə 'Don't do that, you!' (máke = 'don't do!')

#### 3.33. Pronouns with Pronominal Suffixes

Pronominal suffixes may be added to pronouns, but only within larger utterances, such as clauses. This construction is described in 5.4, Displaced Suffixes.

#### 3.34. Pronoun Diagram

The following diagram shows the possible word structures for pronouns:

<u>stem</u>	<u>vocative</u>
to	-wə

### 3.4. The Verb

Verbs, when they constitute the entire utterance, must show the following categories by means of formal features: (1) person (1st, 2nd, 3rd) and number (singular or plural); (2) aspect (completive or incomplete); (3) transitivity (transitive or intransitive); (4) tense (present, preterite, imperfect, present perfect, past perfect); (5) mood (indicative, subjunctive, imperative); and (6) voice (active or passive). Verbs have two principal parts, with the past tenses based on the past stem and the present tense and the imperative mood based on the present stem; this is described under (4) Tenses.

#### 3.41. Verb Inflection

3.411. Person and Number. Person and number are indicated by means of suffixation in all tenses except the imperfect, where infixation obtains. Two sets of suffixes are used, one for transitive verbs in the past tenses, and another for all other verbs.

Transitive verbs in the past tenses indicate person and number by the pronominal suffixes of 3.0 (3). Intransitive verbs in the past tenses and all verbs, both transitive and intransitive, in the present tenses indicate person and number by the Verbal Suffixes below:

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st person	Cim Vm	Cin Vyn
2nd person	Ci(t) Vy(t)	Cin Vn
3rd person	-e(t) -a(t)	Cin Vn

The (/t/) of the 2nd and 3rd singular is omissible: it may or may not be pronounced in usual discourse, without difference in meaning. For the /-e(t)|-a(t)/ alternation in the 3rd singular, see 3.414 (2), the Present Tense. Note that verbal suffixes are identical in the 2nd and 3rd persons in the plural, and that the first person singular of the verbal suffixes and of the pronominal suffixes also are identical.

Intransitive verbs in the past tenses (as well as suffixes for pronominal goal in the past tenses) have a zero suffix in the 3rd singular.

3.412. Aspect. Each tense characteristically includes or omits the incomplete aspect prefix /ʔə-/;<sup>1</sup> this prefix occurs only in the indicative mood and never occurs in any other mood. Those tenses which receive it (the present and the imperfect) signal an action of

<sup>1</sup> The prefix /ʔə-/ is peculiar to the dialect of Sulaimaniya itself; in all other dialects of Kurdish, even those of nearby communities, the prefix /də-/ regularly occurs, as /dəxóm/ 'I eat'.

incompletive aspect; that is, the action is one that is in progress (/ʔəxóm/ 'I'm eating'), one that has not yet begun (/ʔəxóm/ 'I'll eat, I'm going to eat'), or is a customary or habitually repeated action (/həmú ʔəxék ʔəxóm/ 'I eat every day.'). The other tenses are of completive aspect; that is, they describe a single completed action, as preterite /xwárdim/ 'I ate'.<sup>1</sup>

**3.413. Transitivity.** All verbs can be classified on a formal basis as to their transitivity (transitive or intransitive); this distinction is manifested in (1) the person-number suffixes in the past tenses; (2) in the fact that only transitive verbs are inflected for passive voice (for which see 3.416); and (3) in the fact that only transitive verbs may show pronominal goal (for which see 3.421). In the past tenses, transitive verbs take the pronominal suffixes of 3.0 (3), and intransitive verbs take the verbal suffixes of 2.411 with a zero suffix in the 3rd singular. In the present tense this feature is neutralized, all verbs taking the verbal suffixes of 3.411.

The meaning of transitivity is a syntactic one: a transitive verb can take a direct object and an intransitive verb cannot (see 5.311).

**3.414. Tense.** The verb has five tenses based on two related tense stems. On the present stem is based the present tense (as well as the imperative mood); on the past stem are based the preterite, the imperfect, the past participle in /-u/ on which is based in turn the present perfect tense, and the past perfect. Tense stems are described first, with a description of each tense following. The following outline gives the first person singular of the various tenses of /xward-: xo-/ 'to eat':

Present Stem: xo- 'eat'

Present Tense:	ʔə-xó-m	'I eat'
(Imperative Mood :	bì-xó	'Eat!')

Past Stem: xward- 'ate'

Preterite Tense:	xwárd-ìm	'I ate'
Imperfect Tense:	ʔə-m-xwárd	'I was eating'
(Past Participle:	xward-ú	'having eaten')
Present Perfect:	xward-ú-m-ə	'I have eaten'
Past Perfect:	xwárd-ibu-m	'I had eaten'

<sup>1</sup>Since each tense occurs in only one aspect, an alternative analysis is to set up not two separate categories of aspect and tense but a single category of aspect-tense, as incomplete-present, complete-preterite, incomplete-imperfect, complete-present perfect, and complete-past perfect.

(1) Verb Stems.<sup>1</sup> Verb stems are divided primarily into two types: vowel stems (those ending in a vowel) and consonant stems (those ending in a consonant). This division permits generalizations describing the alternations between past and present forms. Numbers in parentheses indicate the total number of items recorded for a given pattern when that number is small.

(a) Past Stems in Vowels:

	<u>Past</u>		<u>Present</u>	
1.	-i ~ Ø			
	bəxší-	:	bəxš-	'to present, give'
	šəlí-	:	šəl-	'to be lame'
	biní- ~ dí-	:	bin-	'to see'
	gəzí-	:	gəz-	'to bite'
	zaní-	:	zan-	'to know'
	diží-	:	diž-	'to steal'
	nusí-	:	nus-	'to write'
	topí-	:	top-	'to die' (animals)
	krí-	:	dr-	'to buy'
2a.	-a ~ Ø			
	wəstá-	:	wəst-	'to stand'
	tirsá-	:	tirs-	'to fear'
	hená-	:	hen-	'to bring'
	žiá-	:	ži- ž-	'to live'
	sa-	:	s-	'to wake up'
b.	-a ~ -e			
	gəfá-	:	gəfe- gəř-	'to walk'
	gerá-	:	gere- ger-	'to relate'
	bra-	:	bre- br-	'to stop'
	na-	:	ne- n-	'to put'
	?awsá-	:	?awsé- ?aws-	'to swell up'
c.	-a ~ -en (2 items)			
	ška-	:	šken-	'to break'
	ma-	:	men-	'to remain'
d.	-a ~ -ə (1 item)			
	də-	:	də- d-	'to give'

<sup>1</sup>Verbs are listed by their two stems separated by a colon, with the past stem given first. If there is a vertical bar between two alternate present stems, the form to the right of the bar is the stem for the third singular only, and the stem to the left of the bar is for the other forms of the present tense.

## 3a. -u ~ -u (3 items)

fərmú-	:	fərmu-	'to honor' (polite)
drú-	:	dru- drw-	'to sew'
jú-	:	ju- jw-	'to chew'

## b. -u ~ ∅ (2 items)

cú-	:	c-	'to go'
bu-	:	b-	'to become'

## 4. Irregular stems (2 items)

hə...bu	:	hə...Cə Vyə yeti	'to have'
-bu-	:	Cim Vm; hə-; b-	'to be'

The verb for 'to have' is inflected for person and number by infixing the pronominal suffixes of 3.0, as /həmbu/ 'I had'; /həmə/ 'I have'; 3rd sing. is /həyeti/ 'he has'. See 5.4 for object of this verb.

The verb for 'to be' will be referred to as the copula. It is a suffixed form in past tenses and suffixed or free in present; suffixed forms draw the stress to the previous syllable.

Past tenses: /-bu-/ takes verbal suffixes (with 3rd sing. zero), as

gənjbum	'I was young'
trumpəlbū	'It was an automobile.'

Present tense: the suffixed forms have present meaning; inflected by verbal suffixes of 3.411 except for 3rd sing.:

Cim Vm	Cin Vyn
Ci(t) Vy(t)	Cin Vn
Cə yeti Vyə wə	Cin Vn

In the 3rd sing., the suffix is /-ə/ after all consonants except the morpheme /y/ '3rd sing. possessor', where the suffix is /-eti/; the suffix is /-yə/ after all vowels except /ú/, where the suffix is /-wə/.

sərbázim	'I am a soldier.'	
tó kéyt	'Who are you?'	(ké = 'who?')
báʃə	'It's good.'	
ʒínyeti	'She is his wife.'	(-y- = 'his')
dróyə	'It's a lie.'	(dro = 'lie')
zúwə	'It's early.'	(zu = 'early')

Present stem /hə-/ takes verbal suffixes, with /-yə/ in the 3rd sing.; means 'be, exist':

éməʃ həyn 'We also are (exist)' (-ʃ = 'also')

/b-/ takes verbal suffixes, has future meaning:

səlek-i-tír ló bəgá ʔəbim 'Next year I'll be in Baghdad.'

Summary for vowel stems: the great majority of verb stems in vowels end in /i/ or /a/, with a few in /u/ or /ə/. In general, the /i/

and /a/ of past stems alternate with zero in the present stem, and the vowels /u/ and /ə/ occur on both past and present stems of the verb.

(b) Past Stems in Consonants: with the exception of the verb /kužán...əwə:kužén...əwə/ 'to extinguish', all past stems show the past tenses morphemes /d/ or /t/. The voiced dental stop /d/ regularly occurs only after voiced consonants; voiceless /t/ occurs elsewhere, but in one case occurs after the voiced flap /r/: /girt-:gr-/ 'to take'. The past tense morphemes generally alternate with zero in the present stem. This alternation between dental stop and zero is sometimes accompanied by a vocalic alternation, most often one between /a/ in the past stems and /e/ in the present stems.

Past stems ending in one consonant are presented first, followed by those in two consonants and then by those in three consonants. The symbol C stands for any consonant; D, for /d/ or /t/; S for /s/ or /š/; Z, for /z/ or /ž/; and t, for /t/. The alternate present stem to the right of the vertical bar occurs only in the 3rd person singular. Thus, /šo-|šw-/ = /šo/ in /ʔəšóm/ 'I wash' and /šw/ in /ʔəšwát/ 'he washes'. Numbers in parentheses indicate the total number of items recorded for a given pattern when that pattern is small.

Past : Present

1. Stems in one consonant

a. -an ~ -en (1)

kužán...əwə : kužén...əwə 'to extinguish'

b. Past stem in /-t/: Suppletion (2)

hat-:ye-|y- 'to come'

wut-:le-|l- 'to say'

2. Stems in two consonants

a. CD ~ C (Major pattern)

1) Without accompanying vocalic alternation

end ~ en : xwend-:xwen- 'to read' (1)

ənd ~ ən : kənd-:kən- 'to take off' (1)

est ~ es : řest-:řes- 'to spin' (1)

əwt ~ əw : kəwt-:kəw- 'to fall' (1)

ošt ~ oš : frošt-:froš- 'to sell' (1)

urd ~ ur : burd-:bur- 'to forgive' (1)

2) With accompanying vocalic alternation

and ~ en : cand-:cen- 'to sow' (4)

ard ~ er : nard-:ner- 'to send' (3)

awt ~ ew : paławt-:paław- 'to filter' (3)

ənd ~ en : send-:sen- 'to take' (1)

išt ~ iš : ništ-:niš- 'to sit' (1)

ird ~ r : mird-:mr- 'to die' (1)

irt ~ r : girt-:gr 'to take, grasp' (1)

## b. CD ~ Ø (entire cluster alternates with zero)

## 1) With accompanying vocalic alternation

ard ~ o	:	xward-:xo- xw-	'to eat'	(1)
ird ~ ə	:	kird-:kə- k-	'to do, make'	(1)
ist ~ yə	:	bist-:byə- by-	'to hear'	(1)
ist ~ ə	:	xist-:xə- x-	'to pull'	(1)
ast ~ u	:	nast-:nu- nw-	'to sleep'	(1)
ast ~ o	:	šast-:šo- šw-	'to wash'	(1)

## c. St ~ St

## 1) Without accompanying vocalic alternation

əst ~ əst	:	pəst-:pəst-	'to press'	(2)
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## d. St ~ Z (voiceless sibilant and dental stop alternate with voiced sibilant)

## 1) With vocalic alternation

ast ~ uʒ	:	kast-:kuʒ-	'to kill'	(1)
ast ~ ez	:	parast-:parez-	'to protect'	(?)
išt ~ ež	:	fišt-:fež-	'to sprinkle'	(1)
išt ~ ež	:	hawišt-:hawež-	'to throw'	(1)

## e. St ~ l (entire cluster alternates with /l/)

## 1) Without vocalic alternation

est ~ el	:	hest-:hel-	'to permit'	(1)
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## f. Suppletion

wist-	:	əwé(t)	'to want'	(1)
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## 3. Stems in three consonants

## a. ySt ~ Ø (entire cluster alternates with zero)

## 1) Without accompanying vocalic alternation

oyšt ~ o	:	foyšt-~fo-:fo- fw-	'to go'	(1)
əyšt ~ ə	:	gəyšt-:gə- g-	'to arrive'	(1)

Summary for consonant stems: most consonant stems end in a dental stop; this stop may be preceded by one, two, or no consonants. In general, the dental stop alternates with zero in the present stem. If the preceding consonant is a sibilant, the entire cluster alternates with zero in the present stem in many instances. These alternations are often accompanied by vocalic alternations, the most usual being between /a/ in past stems and /e/ in present stems.

(2) The Present Tense. The present tense of the verb is formed of the incompleted aspect prefix /ʔə-/ plus the present stem plus the person-number suffix; for the latter, the verbal suffixes of 3.411 are used for all verbs except the verbs /wist-:əwé(t)/ 'to want' and /hə...bu:hə...Cə|Vyə|yeti/ 'to have'. The former verb is irregular in that it expresses person and number by the pronominal suffixes on both

stems, infixing them between /ʔə-/ and the stem in the present tense: /wístim/ 'I wanted' and /ʔəməwé/ 'I want'. For the latter verb, see 4 on page 55.

In this and the subsequent sections of the verb, /xward-:xo-|xw-/ 'to eat' and /hat-:ye-|y-/ 'to come' will illustrate transitive and intransitive verbs respectively. The present tense of these verbs follows:

xward-:xo-|xw- 'to eat'

ʔəxóm	'I eat'
ʔəxóyt	'you eat'
ʔəxwát	'he eats'
ʔəxóyn	'we eat'
ʔəxón	'you eat'
ʔəxón	'they eat'

hat-:ye-|y- 'to come'

yem	'I come'
yeyt	'you come'
yét	'he comes'
yeyn	'we come'
yén	'you come'
yén	'they come'

The verb /hat-:ye-|y-/ is irregular in the present tense in that the indicative mood does not prefix the aspect prefix /ʔə-/.

In the 3rd singular, all verbs take the suffix /-e(t)/ except those verbs whose present stems end in /-ə/ or /-o/, which take /-at/. The alternation between two present stems, as /ʔo-|ʔw-/, can be stated morphophonemically as /a + a > a/, /o + a > wa/, and /e + e > e/ (see 2.311). Thus,

zaní-:zan-	-	ʔəzánét	'he knows'
ʔoyšt-:ʔo-	-	ʔəʔwát	'he goes'
kird-:kə	-	ʔəkát	'he does'
hat-:ye-	-	yét	'he comes'

The /t/ of the 2nd and 3rd singular is omissible: it is generally indicated in written Kurdish, but is usually omitted in speech, except that it is always pronounced when the form receives a suffix, as

kurdí ʔəzání ~ kurdí ʔəzánit 'Do you know Kurdish?'

ʔəcé 'He goes.' but ʔəcétawə 'He goes back.'

The present tense describes any time other than past; the action is of incomplete aspect (see 3.412). A second person plural verb may be used with singular referent to show respect.

The present tense is diagrammed as follows:

ʔə-	present stem	pers.-num. suffix
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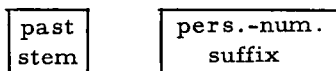
(3) The Preterite Tense. The preterite tense is formed of the past stem plus the person-number suffixes as described in 3.411: transitive verbs take the pronominal suffixes and intransitive verbs take the verbal suffixes with zero suffix in the 3rd singular. The transitive is of complete aspect, never taking the aspect prefix /ʔə-/. It names a single completed action in past time; it cannot signify a progressive or habitually repeated action. It sometimes names an action in future



time, one that is considered by the speaker to be certain to happen, as /dэгит cú bo әмәркә/ 'Your voice will go [lit., 'went'] to America.' The following paradigms are in the active indicative:

xwárdim	'I ate'	hátim	'I came'
xwárdi(t)	'you ate'	hátí(t)	'you came'
xwárdi	'he ate'	hát	'he came'
xwárdman	'we ate'	hátin	'we came'
xwárdman	'you ate'	hátin	'you came'
xwárdyan	'they ate'	hátin	'they came'

The formation of the preterite tense is diagrammed as follows:



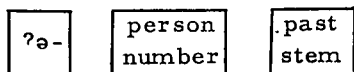
(4) The Imperfect Tense. The imperfect always takes the aspect prefix /ʔə-/ placed before the stem. It occurs only in the indicative mood, but may occur in either voice. It formally shows transitivity in two ways; the person-number suffixes are different for transitive and intransitive verbs, and the arrangement of elements is different. Transitive verbs have the pronominal suffixes inserted before the stem; intransitives take the verbal suffixes (with zero in the 3rd sing.) after the stem.

The imperfect names a past progressive action, or rarely a past habitual action. In a contrary-to-fact situation it has conditional meaning, as /э́гінә ʔәxinkáy/ 'otherwise you would have drowned.'

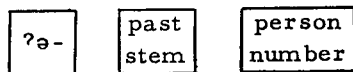
ʔәmxwárd	'I was eating'	ʔәhátim	'I was coming'
ʔәtxwárd	'you were eating'	ʔәhátí(t)	'you were coming'
ʔәyxwárd	'he was eating'	ʔәhát	'he was coming'
ʔәmanxwárd	'we were eating'	ʔәhátin	'we were coming'
ʔәtanxwárd	'you were eating'	ʔәhátin	'you were coming'
ʔәyanxwárd	'they were eating'	ʔәhátin	'they were coming'

The imperfect tense is diagrammed as follows:

Transitive verbs:



Intransitive verbs:



(5) The Past Participle. The past participle is an adjective derived from the past stem of the verb by the suffixation of /Cú|Vw/; it does not receive inflection for degrees of comparison. It is of course not a tense, but has been included here because its formation is based on the past stem of the verb and because the present perfect tense is in turn based on it. The past participle can be formed from a stem which is either active or passive in voice. The examples presented here are

in the active voice; for passive forms, see 3.416.

The past participle signifies that the underlying notion of the verb has taken place, but without reference to time or subject or object. Some illustrations follow.

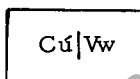
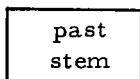
Past stem:

xwárd-	'ate'
hát-	'came'
?awsá-	'swelled up'
wéstá-	'stood up'
kird-	'did, made'
kəšt-	'killed'

Past participle:

xwardú	'eaten, having eaten'
hatú	'having come'
?awsáw	'swollen, pregnant'
wéstáw	'having stood, standing'
kirdú	'having done'
kəštú	'having killed'

The past participle is diagrammed as follows:



(6) Present Perfect Tense. The present perfect consists of the past stem plus the past participle suffix /Cú|Vw/ plus the person-number suffix; transitive verbs show also the suffix /-ə/ after the person-number suffix. The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is manifested further in the person-number suffixes, the former taking pronominal suffixes and the latter taking the verbal suffixes (with /-ə/ in the third singular). This tense shows two moods, indicative and subjunctive (3.415) and both voices (3.416).

The present perfect names not so much an action as a state or condition resulting from a completed action. The preterite names a single action completed in past time: /wéstám/ 'I stood up'; the present describes an action not yet completed: /?əwéstim/ 'I (will) stand up'; and the present perfect names a condition in present time resulting from a completed action: /wéstáwim/ 'I am in the condition of having stood up' = 'I am standing, I am afoot'. Other examples are:

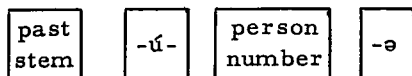
dá nistim	'I sat down'	:	dá nistúm	'I've sat down'
núst	'he slept'	:	nustúə	'he's asleep'
hát	'he came'	:	hatúə	'he's come, he's here'
səǵát dəbu	'it was ten o'clock'	:	səǵát dəbuə?	'Is it ten o'clock yet?'

Paradigms of the present perfect tense follow.

xwardúmə	'I have eaten'	hatúm	'I have come'
xwardútə	'you have eaten'	hatúyt	'you have come'
xwardúyə	'he has eaten'	hatúə	'he has come'
xwardúmanə	'we have eaten'	hatúyn	'we have come'
xwardútanə	'you have eaten'	hatún	'you have come'
xwardúyanə	'they have eaten'	hatún	'they have come'

The present perfect tense is diagrammed as follows:

Transitive verbs:



Intransitive verbs:

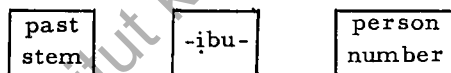


(7) The Past Perfect Tense. The past perfect is formed of the past stem plus the past perfect characteristic /-ibu-/ plus the person-number suffixes. It is of completive aspect, and distinguishes between indicative and subjunctive moods (3.415) and between active and passive voice (3.416). Person and number are indicated by the pronominal suffixes on transitive verbs and by the verbal suffixes on intransitive verbs.

Like the preterite, the past perfect names a single action completed in past time, but it characteristically implies a subsequent action also in past time. Paradigms follow.

xwárdibum	'I had eaten'	hátibum	'I had come'
xwárdibut	'you had eaten'	hátibuyt	'you had come'
xwárdibuy	'he had eaten'	hátibu	'he had come'
xwárdibuman	'we had eaten'	hátibuyñ	'we had come'
xwárdibutan	'you had eaten'	hátibun	'you had come'
xwárdibuyan	'they had eaten'	hátibun	'they had come'

The past perfect tense is diagrammed as follows:



3.415. Mood. The Kurdish verb has three moods: indicative, subjunctive, and imperative. The subjunctive and imperative are identified in the positive by the prefix /biC|bV/; in the negative the subjunctive takes only /nə-/ and the imperative takes only /mə-/ (see 3.422 for negation). The indicative is characterized by the aspect prefix /ʔə-/ in the present and imperfect tenses and by the absence of any of these prefixes in the preterite, present perfect, and past perfect tenses. The imperative is formed from the present stem, and the indicative and subjunctive are formed from both stems.

The moods reflect, as it were, the relationship of the action or state expressed by the verb to reality as conceived by the speaker: "real" versus "unreal". The indicative names an action conceived of by the speaker as "real": for example, a statement such as /ʔəcım/ 'I('ll) go'. Subjunctive names an "unreal" type of action; specifically, it may be deliberative, as /biçım/ 'shall I go?', or factitive (indirect command), as /biçé/ 'make him go!' The imperative expresses a direct command, as /biçó/ 'go!' The meanings and uses are described more fully under the various moods.

(1) The Indicative Mood. Verbs in the indicative mood are identified by the aspect prefix /ʔə-/ in the present and imperfect tenses and by the absence of this prefix as well as the absence of /biC|bV/ in the other three tenses. In the case of negative verbs, the indicative is identified by /nǎ-/ in the present tense and by /nǎ-/ in the other tenses. The indicative occurs in all tenses; all citations of verbs so far have been, except where otherwise noted, in the indicative.

A verb in the indicative makes what the speaker offers as a statement of fact; or it may pose a question, as indicated by intonation (2.32) or the presence in the utterance of an interrogative (3.453).

A listing of the 1st singular indicative of /xward-:xo-|xw-/ 'to eat' and /hat-:ye-|y-/ 'to come' follows. The full conjugations given under the various tenses above illustrate the indicative forms of the other persons and numbers.

	xward-:xo- xw-	hat-:ye- y-
Present	ʔəxóm	yém
Preterite	xwárdim	hátim
Imperfect	ʔəxwárd	ʔəhátim
Pres. Perf.	xwardúma	hatúm
Past Perf.	xwárdibum	hátibum

(2) The Subjunctive Mood. The subjunctive is identified by the prefix /biC|bV/ (with the special alternant /bi-/ before /y/) in positive forms and by /nǎ-/ in negative forms. It is further identified by /-ayə ~ -bayə/ in the preterite and past perfect subjunctive. This mood occurs in all tenses except the imperfect, and shows distinction in voice and transitivity. The order of affixation is different for transitive and intransitive verbs in the preterite and past perfect subjunctive: for transitive verbs in both these tenses the person-number suffixes are inserted immediately before the stem, while for intransitive verbs they are inserted after the stem and before the /-ayə ~ -bayə/.

The subjunctive names, in general, an "unreal" type of action (cf. supra). It may occur either as an element in a larger utterance or alone, the verb constituting the entire utterance. In the latter case, that is, when the verb in the present subjunctive constitutes the entire utterance, it may have a deliberative or a factitive meaning (cf. supra). In the present perfect, the subjunctive expresses a theoretical possibility, as /ʔóyštibet/ 'he might have gone'.

In the larger utterance, the subjunctive regularly occurs after certain conjunctions, which are listed in 3.452, or in a /kə/ clause with indefinite antecedent, as described in 5.4. In other contexts, it may indicate a wish or hope, as /bé qəzábít/ 'God protect you' (lit., 'may you be without misfortune'), or a condition contrary to fact, as in /əwbərdé bé tóyanə biməliyaə ʔəbúyt bé cwarpé/ 'If they had thrown

that rock at you, you would have become a quadruped.' (/--yan bimaŋiyayə/ = 'had they thrown', preterite subjunctive of /maŋi--maŋi-/).

Following are the paradigms of the subjunctive in the four tenses in which it occurs, preceded in each case by a formation diagram. Note that, of the four tenses, the present and the present perfect show no formal distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs. The verb /hat--ye-|y-/ has the irregular subjunctive stem /e-/ in the present tense.

#### Present Subjunctive:

bīC  bV	present stem	person number
bī-	xo-	-m = bixóm 'Shall I eat?'
b-	e-	-m = bém 'Shall I come?'
bixóm		bém
bixóyt		béyt
bixwát		bét
bixóyn		béyn
bixón		bén
bixón		bén

#### Preterite Subjunctive:

Transitive Verbs				Intransitive Verbs			
bī-	pers. num.	past stem	-ayə ~ -bayə	bī-	past stem	pers. num.	-ayə ~ -bayə
bī-	-m-	xwárd	-ayə	bī-	hat-	-m-	-ayə
	= 'had I eaten'				= 'had I come'		
bimxwárdayə				bihátmayə <sup>1</sup>			
bitxwárdayə				bihátitayə			
bixwárdayə <sup>1</sup>				bihátayə			
bimanxwárdayə				bihátinayə			
bitanxwárdayə				bihátnayə			
biyanxwárdayə				bihátnayə			

#### Present Perfect Subjunctive:

past stem	-ib-	person number
--------------	------	------------------

<sup>1</sup>For a morphophonemic statement of the assimilation of /i/ to /i/ and the syncope of /i/ in these and subsequent forms, see 2.312.

xward-	-ib-	-im = xwárdibim <sup>1</sup> 'I might have eaten'
hat-	-ib-	-im = hátibim 'I might have come'

xwárdibim

hátibim

xwárdibit

hátibit

xwárdibet

hátibet

xwárdibin

hátibin

xwárdibin

hátibin

xwárdibin

hátibin

Past Perfect Subjunctive:Transitive Verbs

bì-	pers. num.	past stem	-ibu-ayə
-----	---------------	--------------	----------

bì- -m- xward -ibwayə  
= 'I would have eaten'

bimxwárdibwayə<sup>1</sup>

bitxwárdibwayə

bixwárdibwayə

bimanxwárdibwayə

bitanxwárdibwayə

biyanxwárdibwayə

Intransitive Verbs

past stem	-ibu-	pers. num.	-ayə
--------------	-------	---------------	------

hat- -ibu- -m- -ayə  
= 'I would have come'

hátibumayə

hátibuytayə

hátibwayə

hátibuynayə

hátibunayə

hátibunayə

The copula forms the subjunctive in the present tense on the stem /b-/ , in the preterite on /bú-...ayə/, and in the past perfect on /búb-/. The subjunctive prefix /bì-/ is usually omitted, as

əgər ləwébim 'if I am there'

bəiku búbe 'he might have been'

(3) Imperative Mood. The imperative is formed on the present stem, which receives the prefix /bìC|bV/ and a suffix for number: /Cə|VØ/ for the singular and /Cin|Vn/ for the plural. The /i/ of /bì-/ is often omitted, as (D)/bìlé ~ (N)bìe/ 'say!': see 2.312.

The imperative expresses a direct command. The illustrations are of vowel stems and of consonant stems, with plural forms given in parentheses.

xward-:xo-|xw- 'to eat'  
fərmu-:fərmu- 'to honor'

bixó (bixón) 'eat!'  
fərmu (fərmun) 'Please!' (polite  
request, usually without bì-)

<sup>1</sup>The present perfect subjunctive can be alternatively analyzed as Past Stem plus /-i-/ plus the present subjunctive of /bu-:b-/ 'to become.'

In the past perfect subjunctive too the form of intransitive verbs can be analyzed as Past Stem plus /-i-/ plus the past indicative of /bu-:b-/ plus /-ayə/.



show a past stem (with thematic vowel /a/) or a present stem (with thematic vowel /e/). Thus:

kušt-:kuž-	'to kill'	-	Passive stem: kužr-
Present Passive:	kužré-	-	?əkužrém 'I am killed'
Past Passive:	kužrá-	-	kužrám 'I was killed'

The following passive forms are irregular:

(1) passive based on past rather than present stem of verb, as

Verb		Passive Stem	
wat-:lē- l-	'to say'	watr-	- ?əwatré 'it is said'
bist-:byə- by-	'to hear'	bistr-	- bistráwə 'it has been heard'
wist-:əwé(t)	'to want'	wistr-	- wistrá 'it was wanted'

(2) the vowel of the present stem varies with zero of the passive stem, as

bīrd-:bə- b-	'to carry'	br-
kīrd-:kə- k-	'to do, make'	kr-
da-:də- d-	'to give'	dr-

(3) there is a vocalic alternation between the present and the passive stems, as

xward-:xo- xw-	'to eat'	xur-
----------------	----------	------

and (4) zero vowel of the present stem varies with vowel of the passive stem, as

girt-:gr-	'to take'	gir-
-----------	-----------	------

Voice denotes the relationship between the subject (for which see 5.21) and the action of the verb: the verb in the active voice has as the goal (or direct object of the verb, for which see 5.22) something other than the subject; a passive verb, on the other hand, is one whose subject is also the goal of its action, as

?əhenīm	'I bring'	:	?əhenrém	'I am brought'
---------	-----------	---	----------	----------------

In some cases the passive has a potential meaning, as

?əkiřenřé	'it is rubbed off' or 'it can be rubbed off'
twaní-:twan-	'to be able' : ?ətwanré 'it is possible'

On the basis of the present passive stem in /re-/ and the past passive stem in /ra/ there can be formed all five tenses in the indicative, the present and the preterite in the subjunctive, and the imperative. These all receive the verbal suffixes of 3.411.

Following is the passive of /xward-:xo-|xw-/ 'to eat':



Present Tense:

<u>Indicative</u>		<u>Subjunctive</u>	
ʔəxurém	'I am eaten,	bixurém	'that I be eaten'
ʔəxuréyt	I am pestered	bixuréyt	
ʔəxurét	to death'	bixurét	
ʔəxuréyn		bixuréyn	
ʔəxurén		bixurén	
ʔəxurén		bixurén	

Preterite Tense:

xurám	'I was eaten'	bixurámaye	'had I been eaten'
xuráyt		bixuráytae	
xurá		bixuráye	
xuráyn		bixuráynaye	
xurán		bixuránaye	
xurán		bixuránaye	

Present Perfect Indicative:Past Perfect Indicative:

xuráwim	'I have been	xurábum	'I had been eaten'
xuráwit	eaten	xurábuyt	
xuráwə		xurábu	
xuráwin		xurábuyn	
xuráwın		xurábun	
xuráwın		xurábun	

Imperfect Indicative:Imperative:

ʔəxurám	'I was being	bixuré	'be eaten!' (sg)
ʔəxuráyt	eaten'	bixurén	'be eaten!' (pl)
ʔəxurá			

Past Participle:

ʔəxuráyn		xuráw	'having been eaten'
ʔəxurán			
ʔəxurán			

(Infinitive: xurán 'to be eaten')

3.42. Non-inflectional Processes.

Verbs constituting an entire utterance can indicate goal and negation by means of affixes. While these are not matters of inflection, they are closely related to the inflections of verbs, and are described in this section.

3.421. Pronominal Goal. Any transitive verb except /twaní-:twan-/ 'to be able' can indicate pronominal goal, i.e., the person and number

of the direct object of the verb, in any tense and mood. The affixes expressing pronominal goal in the present tense are different from those of the other tenses: in the present tense, the pronominal suffixes of 3.0 (3) are inserted immediately before the stem. The following illustrations are based on the form /ʔənásə(t)/ 'he knows, is acquainted with', from /nasí-:nas-/ 'to know':

Indicative Mood:

ʔəmnásə	'he knows me'
ʔətnásə	'he knows you'
ʔəynásə	'he knows him'
ʔəmannásə	'he knows us'
ʔətnannásə	'he knows you'
ʔəyannásə	'he knows them'

Subjunctive Mood:

bimnásə	'let him know me'
biṭnásə	'let him know you'
binásə	'let him know him'
bimannásə	'let him know us'
biṭannásə	'let him know you'
biyannásə	'let him know them'

Imperative Mood: bimnásə 'become (sg) acquainted with me!'  
 bimnásin 'become (pl) acquainted with me!'

All other tenses use the pronominal suffixes of 3.0 (3) for subject and the verbal suffixes of 3.411 for object, with zero suffix in the 3rd singular. The order of suffixation is different in the imperfect tense from the other tenses: in the imperfect, the subject affix immediately precedes the stem (as it does when there is no suffix for goal) and the object suffix follows the stem, as in

ʔəykəšt	'he was killing'	ʔəykəštim	'he was killing me'
		ʔəykəštit	'he was killing you (sg)'
		ʔəykəštin	'he was killing us'
ʔəmankəšt	'we were killing (him)'		
ʔəmankəštit	'we were killing you (sg)'		
ʔətankəštin	'you (pl) were killing them'		

In the preterite, present perfect, and past perfect tenses, the subject and object suffixes are both suffixed. In the following, all examples are from the preterite tense of /biní-:bin-/ 'to see':

(1) In general, the subject suffix precedes the object suffix:

binímit	'I saw you (sg)'	biníyanin	'they saw us'
binítim	'you (sg) saw me'	binítin	'you (sg) saw us'
binímanin	'we saw you (pl); we saw them'	binímanit	'we saw you (sg)'
binítanin	'you (pl) saw us'		

Exceptions are:

(2) The 3rd singular subject suffix always follows the other suffix:

biními	'he saw me'
biníti	'he saw you (sg)'

biníni<sup>1</sup> 'he saw us; he saw you (pl); he saw them'

(3) The 1st singular always precedes a plural suffix, regardless of which is subject and which is object:

binímtan 'you (pl) saw me'

binímyan 'they saw me'

binímīn 'I saw them'

These same rules obtain for the present perfect and past perfect tenses; a few examples are given for each of these tenses:

#### Present Perfect:

xwardúmə	'I have eaten'	:	xwardúmīn	'I have eaten you (pl), <sup>2</sup> I have eaten them'
xwardútə	'you (pl) have eaten'	:	xwardútānīn	'you (pl) have eaten us'

#### Past Perfect:

xwárdībum	'I had eaten'	:	xwárdībumi	'he had eaten me'
			xwárdībumit	'I had eaten you (sg)'
			xwárdībutānīn	'you (pl) had eaten us'

3.422. Negation. The negative prefixes are /ná-/ , /nə-/ , /má-/ , and /ní-/ . In addition to their basic meaning of denying of the realization of the action or state denoted by the verb, these various prefixes also signal tense and mood.

In the present tense, /ná-/ is in opposition to the /ʔə-/ of the indicative mood and /nə-/ is in opposition to the /bī-/ of the subjunctive; and in the imperative, /má-/ is in opposition to /bī-/ . Thus:

#### Present Tense:

<u>Indicative:</u>	ʔəxóm 'I eat'	yém	'I come'
	náxom 'I do not eat'	náyem	'I do not come'
<u>Subjunctive:</u>	bīxóm 'shall I eat?'	bém	'shall I come?'
	nəxom 'shall I not eat?'	náyem	'shall I not come?'
<u>Imperative:</u>	bīxó 'eat!'	wérə	'come!'
	məxo 'do not eat!'	məye	'do not come!'

The negative imperative of /hat:-ye-|y-/ is irregular in that it is based on the present stem /ye-/ rather than on the imperative stem /wər-/

The prefix /ni-/ occurs only in the present tense and with two verbs:

(1) the present negative of /-bu:-Cīm|Vm;hə-b-/ 'to be' is /ni-/ plus the verbal suffixes with /-ə/ in the 3rd singular, as /nīm/ 'am not'; /níyə/

<sup>1</sup>Through regular morphophonemic processes, /i + i > i/ (see 2.311) and /i + i > i/ (see 2.312).

<sup>2</sup>That is, 'I have pestered you to death,' etc.

'is not'; and (2) the present negative of /hó...buhó...Cə|Vyə/ 'to have' is /ni-/ plus the verbal suffixes with /-yeti/ in the 3rd singular plus the suffix /-ə/ (except that /-ə/ does not occur in the 3rd singular), as /nimə/ 'I do not have', /nīyeti/ 'he does not have'.

In all tenses other than the present, the negative prefix is exclusively /nə-/. /nə-/ is in opposition to the /bi-/ of the subjunctive, but not to /ʔə/, which it precedes. Transitive verbs in the negative in the past all take the regular pronominal suffixes immediately after the negative suffix (in the positive the person-number suffixes follow the stem); intransitive verbs in the past are of the same formation in the negative as in the positive except for the addition of the negative prefix. These formations are summarized in the following charts:

#### Transitive Verbs:

tense	nə-	pers. num.	ʔə-	past stem	-ibu-	u	-ə	illustrations 1st sing. ind.
pret.	x	x		x				nəmxward 'I didn't eat'
impf.	x	x	x	x				nəmxward 'I wasn't eating'
pres.pf.	x	x		x		x	x	nəmxwardwe 'I haven't eaten'
pastpf.	x	x		x	x			nəmxwardibu 'I hadn't eaten'

#### Intransitive Verbs:

tense	nə-	ʔə-	past stem	-ibu-	-u-	pers. num.	illustrations 1st sing. ind.
pret.	x		x			x	nəhatim 'I didn't come'
impf.	x	x	x			x	nəʔəhatim 'I wasn't coming'
pres.pf.	x		x		x	x	nəhatum 'I haven't come'
pastpf.	x		x	x		x	nəhatibum 'I hadn't come'

#### 3.43. Summary of Verbal Features

Those verbal features for which the various tenses are inflected are summarized in Figure 2 on the following page.

form	pers.	num.	aspect		transi- tivity	mood		voice		pron. goal	negation		
			inc.	cpl.		ind.	sub.	act.	pas.		né	nám	s
pres	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
pret	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
impf	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x		
prespf	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
pastpf	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
imptv	2nd	x	x		x			x	x	x			x
past part								x	x		x	x	

Figure 2 Summary of Verbal Features

### 3.5. Particles

Words which do not have characteristic inflections (indeclinables) are particles. These are subdivided into interjections, conjunctions, interrogatives, numerals, prepositions, adverbs, demonstratives, and relatives. The basis for these subdivisions is distribution in the utterance – a syntactic rather than a morphological criterion. As the criteria are distributional rather than formal, the demarcation between the subdivisions of particles is not always clear-cut and unambiguous. Thus, there are instances of a single word, e.g. /dwaí/ 'after(wards)', filling the distributional patterns of both conjunction and preposition; or of a word, as /bín/, functioning either as a noun (= 'bottom') or as a preposition (= 'under'). Another type of intersectioning of syntactic functions involves adjectives, as /cák/ 'good', which can fill the distributional patterns of adverbs.

Not only do particles have zero features, but they are different from the other form classes also in that they constitute a limited form class whose members can be listed exhaustively, whereas the other four form classes are open, or unlimited in the number of members occurring in them. In the following sections all particles occurring in the corpus have been listed. Although particles are never declined, they may receive displaced pronominal suffixes (see 5.4). But, even here, interjections and conjunctions never participate in this construction.

#### 3.51. Interjections

Interjections are particles which never receive either inflections or pronominal suffixes. They are generally initial in the utterance and usually constitute the entire utterance. They are conventional verbalizations of emotions: surprise, delight, etc.

áy	'ah!' (regret)
áferin ~ áferim	'bravo!'
bále (more formal); á, bá, éy (less formal); ére, ərewállə (emphatic)	'yes'
ciryó	'cheerio!' (a toast)
dó, déy	(asseverative, occurring only with verbs, as in /dó bfo/ 'go on!')
əmán	'alas; woe'
há	'aha!' (triumph)
mérhəbə	'hello'
né?; néxer (emphatic)	'no'
nóš	'here's to you' (a toast)
oxéy	'ah!' (delight)
txwá ~ tuxwá	'indeed!' (surprise)
xó	'I say!' (accosting)
yélə	'hurry up!'

### 3.52. Conjunctions

Conjunctions, like interjections, never receive affixes, not even pronominal suffixes. However, while interjections tend to be complete utterances in themselves, conjunctions characteristically introduce a clause, certain of them even governing the mood of the verb in the following clause. Listed below are the conjunctions occurring in the corpus with meanings and illustrative utterances. Those in the first group may be followed by verbs in either indicative or subjunctive mood, and those in the second group are followed only by verbs in the subjunctive.

#### (1) Conjunctions followed by either indicative or subjunctive:

bəlam 'but':

bəlam nəzanım kéyt 'But I don't know who you are.'

bəłku (a) with present tense and especially with the preterite this means future possibility: 'might':

bəłku ɛmšəw barí 'It might rain tonight' (barí = 'it rained')

(b) 'but' (in contradiction to previous statement):

əmə spí níə, bəłku řəšə 'This is not white, but black.'

cúŋkə ~ cúŋki 'because':

cúŋkə híçim nəwe 'Because I don't want anything.'

əgine 'otherwise':

əgine ʔəxinkáy 'Otherwise you would have drowned.'

kə (a) 'when':

kə gənjbum cúmə bəgá 'When I was young I went to Baghdad.'

(b) 'if' (with preterite tense in same clause):

kə kicimbu nəsrín pé ʔələm 'If I have a daughter, I'll call her Nasrín.'

## (c) 'that':

está kə íšim zórə... 'Now that I have a lot of work...'

tənánət 'well, then' (to resume topic after interruption):

tənánət ʔəlén bo əwə-i-paş mirdîniş xəl̥k péy pé bikənín, řáy spardúə kə... 'Well, then, they say that, in order for people to laugh at him even after his death, he requested that...'

wə ~ Cu|Vw 'and' (wə occurs in a more formal form of speech):

xóy amadé ʔəká wə jî-i-pak ləbér ʔəká 'He gets himself ready and puts on clean clothes.'

Žîniş hýəw žaniş hýə 'There is also woman and there is also pain.' (Proverb) i.e., women can be a pain.

wək 'as'

wək ʔəlén, kurd zirəkî 'As they say, the Kurds are clever.'

## (2) Conjunctions followed only by verb in subjunctive:

bá 'let, have' (indirect command):

bá břoyñ 'Let's go!'

bá bet 'Have him come.'

báškim 'maybe (so), probably'

báškim bîkrîm '[I think that] maybe I'll buy it.'

əgər 'if'

əgər nótwanîm, cí pkém 'If I'm not able to, what shall I do?'

hetá ~ tá ~ hetáku

(a) 'until':

hetá bîmrîm 'until I die'

(b) 'the more...the more':

góm hetá qúlbe mələş xósə bə insan 'The deeper a lake is the better swimming it is.' (lit., 'lake as-far-as it-be-deep its-swimming is-good for man')

məgər 'unless, if not' (after negative verb):

şəwán-i-tîr, ləpaž nō, kəz nábînit lə dərəwə - məgər sinemá nəbet 'On other nights, after nine, you won't see anybody outdoors - unless it's at the movies.'

řəŋə 'maybe' (uncertain possibility):

řəŋə bîkrîm 'Maybe I'll buy it [and maybe not].'

xóžgə 'would that':

xóžgə həmə şəw řamazánbwayə 'Would that every night were Ramazan!'

3.53. Interrogatives

Interrogatives are usually initial in the utterance, but occur medially in utterances when they introduce bound clauses (see 5.41). A feature peculiar to interrogatives is that they have a syntactic as well as a lexical meaning: signalling questions (see 2.232).

A special member within this class of particles is (D) /áyə/, which

is rare in colloquial Kurdish, occurring mostly in writing. It is always initial in the utterance; it has no lexical meaning but serves only to signal an interrogative utterance.

Interrogatives differ further from interjections and conjunctions in that they may receive, for the most part, pronominal suffixes, and may be the subject or object of the verb. The first group of interrogatives below are those which occur as subject or object of verb.

- (1) Those occurring as subject or object of verb:

cí	'what?'
cénd ~ cəŋ ~ cən	'how much? how many?'
kám	'which?'
ké	'who? whom?'
kwé ~ kwá	'where?'

- (2) Those never occurring as subject or object:

(D) áyə	(interrogative particle)
bócí ~ bó; bocí-	'why?' (see below for bocí-)
cón	'how?'
kéy	'when?'

The interrogatives /kwé ~ kwá/, /kám/, and /bócí ~ bó; bocí-/ occur with the pronominal suffixes, /bocí-/ taking the copula suffix /-ə/ as well. The resultant meanings vary with the particles, as follows: /kám/ or /kwé/ plus pronominal suffixes receives partitive meaning, as

kwét ʔeyešé 'What part of you hurts? Where are you hurting?'

kámyan hát 'Which of them came?'

The pronominal suffix added to /bocí-/ has the meaning of referent; this construction can be (1) a request for meaning or (2) a rhetorical question, as

bocíte (1) 'Why do you want it?' or  
(2) 'Why should you want it?'

### 3.54. Numerals

While only thirty-one discrete forms occur in the corpus, these thirty-one forms may be combined according to fixed patterns to permit an infinite number of combinations. These forms and the formulas for composing numeral compounds follow.

A numeral specifies quantity of discrete units. The cardinals are:

yók	'1'	šəst	'6'	yanzə ~ yanzdə	'11'
dú	'2'	həwt	'7'	dwanzə	'12'
sé	'3'	həšt	'8'	seanzə	'13'
cwár	'4'	nó	'9'	cwardə	'14'
pénj	'5'	də	'10'	panzə	'15'



šanzs	'16'	sí	'30'	həštá	'80'
həvvə ~ həvdə	'17'	cíl	'40'	nəwəd	'90'
həždə	'18'	pənjá	'50'	šəd	'100'
nozdə	'19'	šəšt	'60'	həzár	'1000'
bíst	'20'	həftá	'70'	milyún	'million'
				bilyún	'billion'

While the numbers 11 – 19 seem in general to be composed of the unit plus /də/, only /cwardə/ shows this origin without modification. /həvvə ~ həvdə/ and /həždə/ show morphophonemic changes, /no-z-də/ shows the addition of an analogical element, and the others show the insertion of /-an-z-/ between the unit and /-(d)ə/. Thus, except for /cwardə/, it is simpler to treat these as discrete forms.

**3.541. Compound Numerals.** Compound numerals are formed according to the following rules of composition:

(1) Cardinals over /bíst/ 'twenty' are formed by listing the desired numerals in descending order and suffixing /Cu|W/ 'and' after each numeral except the last, as

šədu bístu dú '122'

(2) If /Cu|W/ is omitted, the product of the two numerals is indicated, as

bíst həzár '20,000'

dwanzə pənjá 'twelve 50's'

Some examples of compound numerals are:

síw sé '33'      šədu nəwədu yək '191'

cílu pənj '45'      šə šədu šəšt '360'

həzaru no šədu pənjáw cwar '1954'

**3.542. Numerals plus Pronominal Suffixes.** Pronominal suffixes appended to numerals indicate a partitive relationship; only the plural suffixes occur.

dúyan 'two of them'

bistyan 'twenty of them'

### 3.55. Prepositions

Prepositions are particles which occur only in nominal phrases, preceding the head of the phrase (for which see 5.11). The head of the phrase may be not only a free form (noun, pronoun, etc.) but also a pronominal suffix of 3.0 (3). Only two prepositions show morphemic alternants: /lə|le/ 'in, at, from' and /bə|pe/ 'to'; see simple prepositions below. The allomorphs /le/ and /pe/ occur with pronominal suffixes and /lə/ and /bə/ occur before nouns: e.g., /bə bawkim/ 'to my father' and /péy/ 'to him'. Included among prepositions too is the post-position /Cə|Vrə...(əwə)/, a discontinuous form (see below).

The preposition indicates the relationship between the head of the nominal phrase and the rest of the utterance.

Prepositions may be simple (consisting of a single morpheme) or compound (consisting of a simple preposition and a noun or another preposition). Some prepositions may take /-əwə/ or /-da ~ -ta ~ -a/ appended to the object of the preposition to form a discontinuous preposition. Suffixation of /-əwə/ or the locative /-da ~ -ta ~ -a/ does not create a new meaning for the resultant discontinuous preposition, but merely fixes one of the several meanings of the original simple preposition.

**3.551. Simple Prepositions.** A list of simple and discontinuous forms, if any, follows; suffixes in parenthesis may or may not occur with the simple preposition to form a discontinuous preposition, as /lə...da/ 'in' (as opposed to /lə/ 'in, at, from').

- bá 'against, in opposition to':  
 hawlerí ba mrişik naware 'An Erbilite doesn't dare against a chicken' (Proverb) (i.e., he's very cowardly)
- báy 'for the price of':  
 émə bay cəndə 'How much does this cost?'
- bé ~ bəbé 'without'  
 be ɣáql 'without intelligence, stupid'
- bə|pe (1) 'to' after expressions of discourse, giving, etc.:  
 bə qadír ʔələm: cóni 'I say to Qadir, "How are you?"'  
 (2) 'with' (means) (-əwə)  
 bə aw-i-sard řiřit bítářə 'Shave with cold water!'  
 (3) 'in' (with name of language):  
 bə kurdí 'in Kurdish'  
 (4) 'during'  
 bə řəw 'at night, by night'  
 (5) (adjectival expression):  
 bə quwát 'strong'  
 (6) (oaths)  
 bə xwa! 'By God! Indeed!'  
 (7) (purpose)
- hát bə kriní 'He came to buy it' (krin = to buy)
- bo (1) (indirect object): 'to, for':  
 ʔəydəlm bo tó 'I'll give it to you.'  
 (2) 'intended for, as':  
 bo jwaní 'as an ornament'  
 (3) 'to' (əwə):  
 ʔəcím bo bazár(əwə) 'I'm going to the market.'
- dwáy 'after' (time)  
 dwáy du səɣát 'after two hours'

Cə|Vrə...(əwə) 'to' Cə|Vrə is suffixed only to verbs, and əwə may or may not occur after the object of the preposition, as

ʔəcmə bazárəwə 'I'm going to the bazaar.'

biǵərə kərkuḱ 'Arrive at Kirkuk!' (biǵə = 'arrive!')

hetá 'up to, as far as'

hetá kərkuḱ řáy kird 'He fled as far as Kirkuk.'

lə|le (1) 'in, at' (-da ~ -ta ~ -a)

lə řəwək-i-zistánda 'on a winter's night'

(2) 'from' (-əwə)

lə řúrakəwə 'from the room'

pař 'after' (time, place)

pař niwəřó 'after noon'

peř 'before' (time, place)

peř niwəřó 'before noon'

wəku 'like'

wəku əmə 'like this'

3.552. Compound Prepositions. Compound prepositions are composed of /lə/ or /bə/ plus a noun, usually monosyllabic, or another particle, as /lə náu/ (noun) 'inside,' /lə pář/ (preposition) 'after.' These too may optionally form discontinuous compound prepositions in /-əwə/ and /-da ~ a/ without acquiring new meanings. There is one compound preposition in /bə/, which is listed first; then follows a listing of compound prepositions in /lə/.

bəsər (oaths) (sər = 'head'):

bəsər caw 'At your service!' (lit., 'by [my] eyes', a formal response to a request)

ləbər (bər = 'front')

(1) 'because of':

ləbər əmə 'because of this, therefore'

(2) 'on one's person'

ləbəri řəká 'He puts it on, wears it'

(3) 'within oneself' (əwə)

ləbər xəyəwə wəti 'He said to himself'

ləbın 'beneath' (bın = 'bottom')

ləbın trumpelekəř 'beneath the car'

ləǵəř 'with' (accompaniment) (da ~ a)

mın ləǵəř tó yém 'I'll come with you.'

This preposition may receive two pronoun objects, in which case it means 'to be talking with, addressing', as in

ləǵəřım 'I'm talking to him' (lit., 'I with him')

ləǵəř mınyeti 'He's talking to me' (lit., 'he with me')

The object always precedes the subject. The object is expressed by the independent pronouns of 3.3 for the 1st and

2nd persons and by the pronominal suffixes of 3.0 for the 3rd person. The subject is expressed by the pronominal suffixes with /-yeti|ə/ occurring in the 3rd singular.

ləkín...əwə 'beside' (kín = 'side')

ləkínməwə dá nišə 'sit next to me'

lələ...əwə 'beside'

lələtəwə 'at your side, next to you'

lənaw 'inside' (-da)

lənaw əmbiréda 'inside of this well' (bír = 'well')

ləpáš 'after' (da)

ləpaž nó 'after 9 o'clock'

ləpész 'before' (-da)

ləpež nó 'before 9 o'clock'

ləsér 'on top of'

ləsér mažəkə 'on the house'

ləžér 'under'

ləžér uteləkə 'under the hotel'

wəku 'like'

wəku əmə wáyə 'It's just like this.'

### 3.56. Adverbs

Adverbs are particles which may occur in verbal phrases as well as in nominal phrases or initially in the utterance. Lexically, they can be classified as adverbs of time, place, manner, or quantity. Syntactically, adverbs group together as follows: adverbs of time and manner generally occur initially in the utterance, as /dwaí du pyaw hátin bo maí-i-émə/ 'Later, two men came to our house'. Adverbs of place can, like nouns, be the subject of the verb, as /érəm pe xóšə/ 'I like it here' (lit., 'here is pleasant to me'), or the object of a preposition, as /kəy hátit bo érə/ 'When did you come [to] here?' Adverbs of quantity can be pre-head modifiers in nominal phrases (for which see 5.112), as /gəle kəs/ 'a lot of people', or can modify the verb, as /zor ʔəgəřə/ 'he walks around very much'. And there is a special set of adverbs, the preverbs, which are modifiers in verbal phrases (for which see 5.12), as /tek cu-:c-/ 'to disagree'. On the morphological level, there is a special class of two adverbs which occur only as unstressed suffixes on verbs: these are postverbs. One of them may occur on any verb, and the other occurs on only the verb /da-:də-|d-/ 'to give'.

Adverbs are a closed class, and all adverbs recorded in the corpus are listed below.

#### (1) Adverbs of time and manner.

Time:

dəmdəsm	'from time to time'	ɪmsaɪ	'this year'
dərɪhəl	'immediately'	ɪmʃəw	'tonight'
dʊsbəy	'day after tomorrow'	pár	'last year'
dwaɪ	'later'	perár	'year before last'
dwéne	'yesterday'	paʃəʔóʒ	'in the future'
está	'now'	səbɛy ~ səbbəsyne	'tomorrow'
hésta	'still, yet'	yəksér	'straight, immediately'
ɪmʔo ~ ɛmro	'today'		

Manner:

pékəwə	'together'	xásətən	'especially'
wá	'thus, like this'	ínja	'then, in that case'

(2) Place:

éɾə	'here'	əwé	'there'
-----	--------	-----	---------

(3) Quantity:

cənd ~ cən	'a few'	hár	'only'
góle(k)	'a great deal of'	híc	'no'
həmú ~ ɛəmú	'each, every'	nəxte(k)	'a little of'
hənde(k)	'a little of'	zór	'very'

- (4) Preverbs: Table 5, on the following page, lists the thirteen preverbs with five common verbs, showing the resultant meanings. Note: it is the preverb rather than the verb that receives primary stress; see 2.22.

(5) Postverbs:

Cəwə|Vrəwə This has two meanings: 'back to place of origin,'  
 as bom bɪdɔ́ 'Give it to me!'  
 and bom bɪdɔ́rəwə 'Give it back to me!'  
 The second meaning is 'again and again', describing a repeated action, as  
 pak ʔəkám 'I clean, peel (fruit)'  
 and pak ʔəkáməwə 'I clean, wash (truck)'  
 That is, a piece of fruit can be cleaned or peeled but once, while a truck can be cleaned or washed many times.

Ce|Vre 'to' (indirect object)

This postverb occurs only with /da:-də-/ 'to give' where the indirect object is a pronominal suffix, as  
 ʔədám 'I give'  
 and ʔədáme 'I give to'.

The object of the phrase may also be expressed

on the verb by pronominal suffixes in the present tense, as

?əddáme 'I give to you' (from \*?ətdáme)

and by the verbal suffixes (with zero in the 3rd sing.) in past, as

dam 'I gave'

and dámite 'I gave [it] to you'

Table 5

## The Preverbs

Preverb	da-:də- 'to give'	hat-:ye- y 'to come'	cu-:c- 'to go'	kird-:kə- k- 'to do'	na-:ne- n- 'to put'
dá 'down'	'sharpen' (pencil)	'put in 1st appearance'	'descend'	....	'put down'
dér 'out'	....	'come out, emerge'	'pass, escape'	'remove, take out'	....
hóí 'up'	'throw (a thing) up'	'rise, shine'	....	....	....
lé 'from'	'hit, touch play (music)	....	....	'to do to, do with'	'cook, pre- pare food'
lábér 'on'	....	....	....	'put on, wear'	....
pé 'to'	'give to'	....	....	....	....
pék 'together'	'collide'	'be recon- ciled with'	....	....	....
péwə 'with'	'bite, sting'	'bring good luck'	'to go through'	....	....
řá 'away'	'wash away (trans.)	'get used to'	'go away'	'run away'	....
řó 'down'	....	....	....	'pour in' (to vessel)	....
té 'into'	....	....	....	....	'put into, insert'
ték 'dis-'	'spoil, stir'	....	'disagree'	....	....
wér 'from'	'shake' (water)	....	....	....	....

## 3.57. Demonstratives

The demonstrative may be subject or object of the verb, as /áme cíyə/ 'What is this?'; or it may be a pre-head modifier in a nominal phrase (see 5.112), in which case it is a discontinuous particle, as /əmpyawə/ 'this man'.

éme 'this'  
 əm...Cə|Vyə 'this'

əwə 'that'  
 əw...Cə|Vyə 'that'

### 3.58. Relatives

There is one relative particle, which is always initial in the clause (see 5.4) and may be the subject or object of the verb.

kə 'who, which, that, that which, etc.'

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## CHAPTER IV

### WORD FORMATION

#### 4.0. Introductory

Chapter 3 presents word inflections – those affixation processes which identify the various form classes. In this chapter, which treats of word formation, inflections as such are ignored and the structure of the word in its stem form is examined.<sup>1</sup> In Kurdish, words are derived through reduplication, compounding, and affixation. Reduplication and compounding deal with free forms, while affixation deals with both free forms and bound forms.

Verb stems deserve special mention here. Verb stems are bound forms to which various affixes are appended to derive either verbs (finite forms) or nouns (infinitives). When verb stems are compounded, they result in nouns, just as nominal free forms do. Thus, verb stems are nominal forms.

Although finite verbs are formed from verb stems through affixation (present, preterite, imperfect, and present perfect indicative) or compounding (past perfect and past perfect subjunctive, from past stem compounded with /bu-:b-/ 'to be'), this formation is described in section 3.414 in conjunction with verb inflection, since verb formation and inflection are closely tied to each other. Formation of infinitives is described in 4.31, and the compounding of verbal stems to form nouns other than infinitives is described below in section 4.2.

In the present chapter, the period (.) indicates morphological boundaries and not necessarily syllable boundaries or juncture.

#### 4.1. Reduplication

Reduplication is the repetition of a complete word stem, thereby deriving a new word stem. The underlying word stems are nouns. The derivative word may have a distributive meaning, as in /dəmdə́m/ 'from time to time' from /də́m/ 'period of time, while,' or it may strengthen the meaning of the underlying word, as in /pələpə́l/ 'great haste' from /pələ́/ 'haste'. Reduplicated forms based on words of the pattern /CVCə/ show loss of the second /-ə/, as in /gizəgiz/ from /gizə́/.

dəmdə́m	'from time to time'	<	də́m	'period of time, while'
pecpéc	'zigzag'	<	péc	'curve'
xı́xı́lokə́	'top' (that spins)	<	xı́l	'a spinning' (/okə́/ = diminutive suffix)
pələpə́l	'great haste'	<	pələ́	'haste'
gizəgiz kirdin	'to complain'	<	gizə́	(the buzzing of a bullet)

<sup>1</sup>Inflection shows grammatical meaning—defined by Bloch and Trager in their *Outline of Linguistic Analysis* as the "element of meaning which



## 4.2. Compounding

Compounding is the joining together of two words to form a new (i.e., derivative) word. This may be effected either with or without a composition vowel (/ə-/ or /u-/). If the composition vowel /u-/ 'and' occurs, the derivative word is a coordinate compound (see 4.23). In the other two cases there is usually a modification (i.e., a describing) of one term by the other. The modified term is called the head.

There is a special class of compounds which includes not only free forms but bound forms as well: those containing verb stems (see 4.0). Verb stems are compounded in some instances to form certain verb tenses (see 3.414) and in other instances to form noun compounds (see illustrations below). It must be pointed out that the verb stem is classified in the form class of nouns, as those derivative words which have verb stems as head are of the form class of nouns.

Compounds formed without composition vowel are called descriptive compounds. Of those formed with a composition vowel, those with /ə-/ are called emphatic compounds and those with /u-/ are called coordinate compounds.

### 4.21. Descriptive Compounds

Descriptive compounds are formed of two words without composition vowel: verb stems, although not free forms, also enter into the formation of these compounds. The ordering of the members of the compound may be semisyntactic (SS), or roughly paralleling the order these items would have as free forms in a larger utterance such as a clause; or it may be asyntactic (AS), or contrary to the syntactic arrangement of words in larger utterances. The groups of descriptive compounds below are marked SS or AS as the case may be.

The second member of the descriptive compound is the head, being modified by the first member. All form classes except pronouns occur as the head. All descriptive compounds are nouns, except that those descriptive compounds which have adjective heads are adjectives.

Word stress is always on the final syllable. The period (.), as mentioned above, indicates morphological boundaries and not necessarily syllable boundaries or juncture.

differs from one member of a paradigm to another" (page 68); it never changes a word from one form class to another. Derivation through affixation, on the other hand, is the creating of a new word stem from a given underlying word stem, and so involves a potential change in form class. The past stem of /xward-:xo-|xw-/ 'to eat' is inflected when it receives the first singular suffix /-ɪm/ giving /xwárdɪm/ 'I ate' (as opposed to 'you', 'he', or anyone else), but word derivation is illustrated when the past stem receives the suffix /ɪn/ to derive the noun (infinitive) /xwardɪn/ 'to eat'.

4.211. Noun Compounds

## (1) Noun + Noun (AS):

tir.bīžán	'beautiful person'	(lit., 'arrow eyelashes')
mar.masí	'eel'	('snake fish')
niwəfo.xəw	'noon nap'	('noon dream')
zir.brá	'step-brother'	('tree-stump brother')
gəlet.yarí	'a bad move or play'	('mistake play', in backgammon)
sər.bán	'roof'	('head plateau')
la.dé	'countryside, country'	('side village')
kər.froštín	'donkey selling'	(this compound is SS)

## (2) Particle + Noun (SS):

cwar-pé	'quadruped; donkey'	('four leg')
du.zmán	'a deceitful person'	('two tongue')

## (3) Noun + Particle (AS):

gian.ləbér	'animal'	('soul on' = 'soul possessing')
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## (4) Noun + Verb Stem (SS):

If the verb stem is of a transitive verb, the noun member is the direct object of that stem and the verb stem has the meaning of actor; if the stem is of an intransitive verb, the noun is its subject. Both present and past stems of verbs occur, as well as the passive (of one verb). Verb stems which end in a vowel receive the agent suffix *-r/*.

## (a) present stem:

fəsm.gír	'photographer'	('picture take')
kagcz.nús	'letter-writer'	('letter write')
taj.báxš	(proper name)	('crown give')
kław.řfén	'shoe thief'	('shoe steal')
kałək.fróš	'melon vendor'	('melon sell')
kər.fróš	'donkey seller'	('donkey sell')

Vowel stem with agent suffix *-r*:

səg.šór	'dog washer'	('dog wash-er')
	(professional)	(šo- = 'wash')
məḡaš.xór	'employee'	('salary eat-er')
		(xo- = 'eat')

fərš.řaxér 'one who spreads (řa xíst-:xə-|x- = carpets' (as profession) 'to spread out')

With vowel change and agent suffix *-r*: (see 4.31 (4))

cəkmə.bór	'soldier'	(boots wear-er)
		(bīrd-:bə- b- = 'to carry, wear')

## (b) present passive stem:

dil.gír	'sad, grieved'	('heart taken')
la.gír	'supporter, follower, -ite'	('side taken')

## (c) past stem:

řoŽ.həɫát	'sunrise, east'	('sun arose': həɫ hat =
(pro řoŽ.həɫát)		'he, it arose, came up')

## (d) past stem less dental stop:

nan.kír	'baker'	('bread make')
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## (5) Adjective + Verb Stem (SS):

dur.bin-	'far seeing'	in durbiní	'farsightedness'
(-í = nominal suffix with meaning of quality or state: see 4.313)			

4.212. Adjective Compounds

## Noun + Adjective (SS):

dil.təŋ	'grieved'	('heart tight')
sər.spí	'hoary'	('head white')
dil.škáv	'heartbroken'	
qsə.xóš	'witty'	('speech pleasant')

4.22. Emphatic Compounds

Emphatic compounds are formed of two members joined by the composition vowel /-ə-/; nouns, adjectives, verb stems, and particles occur as members of emphatic compounds. The combinations of these which actually occur are listed below. Note that the combinations noun + /-ə/ + adjective and adjective + /-ə/ + noun both occur. The outstanding feature of this type of compound is the fact that the first member, regardless of its form class, receives the primary focus of attention. Thus, while the phrase /merd-i-pir/ (two words joined by izafa: see Syntax, 5.11) is the usual way of expressing 'the old man', the word /pirəmérd/ implies that oldness is a characteristic of the man. Another feature of the emphatic compound is seen when this type of word is compared with descriptive compounds. The latter are quite well-established conventional forms, while emphatic compounds seem readily capable of spontaneous formation. For example, a boy employed at the hotel where I stayed was impressed by my tape recorder, which has a black case. He consistently called it /snoqəřəšəkə/ 'the black-box', rather than referring to it in the more usual way as /snoq-i-řəšəkə/ 'the black box'. Some emphatic compounds, however, like /řəšəbá/ 'black wind' (referring to a type of dust storm typical of that area of the country) are quite conventional and fixed in the language.

Inflections are attached to the second member of emphatic compounds, as /əwřoŽəxošanəš/ 'those Good (old) Days also'.

All emphatic compounds are nouns. The direction of modification varies, according to the form classes involved: adjectives and particles always modify nouns, and nouns always modify verb stems. In case two nouns are members of a given compound, the second noun modifies the first. The composition vowel /-ə-/ seems to have a genitive meaning, roughly equivalent to the *izafa* of 5.11. Compare also the pre-eminent item suffix /-ə/ in 4.31 (6). Word stress regularly falls on the ultima.

(1) Noun + Noun (SS):

niw.ə.řó	'noon'	('half + day')
tul.ə.ség	'puppy'	('young + dog')
bənd.ə.xwén	'belt cord'	('cord + blood')
xol.ə.méš	'ash'	('soil + fly')
dəŋk.ə.zíx	'piece of gravel'	('pebble + gravel')
žan.ə.sér	'headache'	('ache + head')
kuř.ə.zá	'grandson'	('son + offspring')

(2) Noun + Adjective (SS):

bizín.ə.kewí	'mountain goat'	('goat + mountain')
snoq.ə.řəšəkə	'the black box'	('box + black the')
xošk.ə.gəwré	'elder sister'	('sister + big')
qəl.ə.řəš	'Negro'	('Negro + black')

(3) Adjective + Noun (AS):

řəš.ə.bá	'black wind'	('black + wind')
pir.ə.mérd	'old man'	('old + man')
pir.ə.žín	'old woman'	('old + woman')

(4) Noun + Verb Stem (SS):

šir.ə.xór	'infant'	('milk + drinker xo = 'drink')
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(5) Particle + Noun (SS):

paš.ə.řóž	'future'	('after + day')
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#### 4.23. Coordinate Compounds

Coordinate compounds consist of two words (including verb stems) joined together by /-u-/ 'and'. The two members are usually of the same form class, and the resultant compound is of the same form class as its members. If the compound is composed of an adjective and a particle, the derivative is an adjective. The meaning of the coordinate compound is usually the sum of the meaning of its constituent parts, but occasionally the compound has a figurative meaning as well. There is no head and no modification. Stress is on the ultima.

(1) Noun + Noun (= Noun):

cəp.u.řást	'left hand and right hand'
cəpuřást-i-xoy názane	'He doesn't know his left hand and his right hand' = 'He's quite stupid.'

- buk.u.šušš 'toys' ('bridegroom and glass')  
 šir.u.tír 'swords and arrows'  
 dost.u.bradér 'friends' ('friend and friend')  
 sard.u.gérm 'cold and hot'  
 émə sardugérmi nádiwə 'This fellow hasn't seen cold and hot' = 'He can't tell right from wrong.'

The meaning of the following two items is not the sum of the meanings of their constituent parts:

- xal.u.zá 'cousin' ('uncle and offspring')  
 xal.u.žin 'aunt' ('uncle and wife')

- (2) Adjective + Adjective (= Adjective):  
 řast.u.cówt 'dishonest' ('straight and crooked')
- (3) Adjective + Particle (= Adjective):  
 rek.u.pék 'in order, in tip-top shape' ('arranged and together')
- (4) Verb Stem + Verb Stem (= Noun):  
 hat.u.có 'coming and going, loitering' ('come and go')  
 hatucó nábe 'No Loitering'  
 xward.u.bird 'eating and plucking' ('eat and carry')  
 (flowers, vegetables)  
 xwardubird níyə 'No eating or plucking'
- (5) Verb Stem + Negation + Verb Stem (= Noun):  
 xo.nó.xor 'One who does not eat' ('eat-not-eater')  
 This is the unique occurrence of this type of compound.

### 4.3. Suffixation

In this section are treated those bound forms (all are suffixes except for two prefixes) which, when affixed to an underlying word, result in new word stems. Affixes are classified according to the form class to which they convert. Thus, affixing a nominal suffix results in a noun, and so on.

#### 4.31. Nominal Suffixes

Nominal suffixes, that is, those which convert to the form class of nouns, occur suffixed to nouns, adjectives, verb stems, and particles, and, in the case of one suffix, to phrases. Most suffixes occur exclusively with a single form class, but a few are appended to more than one form class.

- (1) Nominal suffixes occurring with nouns:

- 1) -ayətí (abstraction: state or condition):  
 xizmayətí 'relationship' < xizím 'relative'
- 2) -báz 'one who is fond of'  
 səgbáz 'dog fancier' < sэг 'dog'

- |          |               |   |       |          |
|----------|---------------|---|-------|----------|
| pulbáz   | 'spendthrift' | < | púl   | 'money'  |
| hətiwbáz | 'homosexual'  | < | hətiw | 'orphan' |
| nəktəbáz | 'comedian'    | < | nəktə | 'joke'   |
- 3) -cí 'one who works with':
- |         |             |   |       |              |
|---------|-------------|---|-------|--------------|
| wutucí  | 'launderer' | < | wutú  | 'iron'       |
| boyagcí | 'bootblack' | < | boyág | 'shoe shine' |
- 4) -dán 'receptacle':
- |          |               |   |       |         |
|----------|---------------|---|-------|---------|
| šəkirdán | 'sugar bowl'  | < | šəkír | 'sugar' |
| xwedán   | 'salt shaker' | < | xwé   | 'salt'  |
| agirdán  | 'fireplace'   | < | agír  | 'fire'  |
- 5) -dánd (quality or state):
- |         |             |   |     |        |
|---------|-------------|---|-----|--------|
| agadánd | 'alertness' | < | agá | 'care' |
|---------|-------------|---|-----|--------|
- 6) -əwán 'one related to':
- |           |                |   |       |            |
|-----------|----------------|---|-------|------------|
| šaxəwán   | 'mountaineer'  | < | šáx   | 'mountain' |
| qazəwán   | 'goose tender' | < | qáz   | 'goose'    |
| kəštyəwán | 'sailor'       | < | kəští | 'ship'     |
- 7) -əwarí 'people, nation':
- |           |                      |   |      |        |
|-----------|----------------------|---|------|--------|
| kərdəwarí | 'the Kurdish people' | < | kúrd | 'Kurd' |
|-----------|----------------------|---|------|--------|
- 8) -gá 'place'
- |       |            |   |     |           |
|-------|------------|---|-----|-----------|
| kargá | 'workshop' | < | kár | 'work'    |
| dadgá | 'court'    | < | dád | 'justice' |
- 9) -istán 'place'
- |           |             |   |      |        |
|-----------|-------------|---|------|--------|
| kərdistán | 'Kurdistan' | < | kúrd | 'Kurd' |
| daristán  | 'forest'    | < | dár  | 'tree' |
- 10) -xanə ~ -xán 'room, building'
- |         |            |   |     |              |
|---------|------------|---|-----|--------------|
| cayxanə | 'tea shop' | < | cáy | 'tea'        |
| žerxán  | 'basement' | < | žer | 'under part' |
- 11) -zá 'child of'
- |       |                   |   |     |           |
|-------|-------------------|---|-----|-----------|
| brazá | 'brother's child' | < | brá | 'brother' |
| purzá | 'aunt's child'    | < | pur | 'aunt'    |
- 12-18) -lə; -ulə; -žolə; -okə; -ockə; -ilkə; -lokə (diminutive suffixes)  
 These indicate smallness, and, in some instances, endearment.  
 Choice of suffix is not predictable. -lokə is composed of -lə and -okə, expressing greater degree of smallness.
- |       |             |                          |   |       |               |
|-------|-------------|--------------------------|---|-------|---------------|
| -lə   | : təšpílə   | 'small wooden dish'      | < | təšpí | 'wooden dish' |
| -ulə  | : mešulə    | 'mosquito'               | < | méš   | 'fly'         |
| -žolə | : karžolə   | 'small ewe'              | < | kár   | 'ewe'         |
| -okə  | : mīnałokə  | '(dear) little child'    | < | mīnał | 'child'       |
| -ockə | : małockə   | 'little house'           | < | máł   | 'house'       |
| -ilkə | : cawilkə   | 'eyeglasses'             | < | cáv   | 'eye'         |
| -lokə | : təšpílokə | 'very small wooden dish' | < | təšpí | 'wooden dish' |

## (2) Nominal suffixes occurring with adjectives:

## 1) -á (quality or condition):

sardá	'(the) cold'	<	sárd	'cold' (adj.)
germá	'heat'	<	górm	'hot'

## 2) -aí (state or condition):

səwzaí	'greenness'	<	səwz	'green'
drežaí	'length'	<	drež	'long'
kweraí	'blindness'	<	kwér	'blind'

## (3) Nominal suffixes occurring with nouns and adjectives:

## 1) -í (quality or state):

Nouns:

daykí	'motherhood'	<	dáyk	'mother'
mīnaí	'childhood'	<	mīnáí	'child'

Adjectives:

jwaní	'beauty'	<	jwán	'beautiful'
pírí	'oldness'	<	pír	'old'
cakí	'goodness'	<	cák	'good'

## 2) Cetí|Vyeti (state or quality):

pyawetí	'humanity'	<	pyáw	'man'
brayetí	'brotherhood'	<	brá	'brother'
piretí	'oldness'	<	pír	'old'

## (4) Nominal suffixes occurring with verb stems:

## 1) -gár (agent):

kirdgár	'Creator'	<	kird-:kə- k-	'do, make'
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## 2) Cīn|Vn (underlying notion of verb stem) this occurs on past stem to form the infinitive, or verbal noun:

kirdīn	'doing, making'	<	kird-:kə- k-	'to do, make'
dán	'giving'	<	da-:də- d-	'to give'

## 3) Cø|Vr (agent) occurs only on present stems ending in a vowel, sometimes with accompanying vocalic alternation:

məḡašxór	'employee'	<	məḡaš	'salary';
			xward-:xo- xw-	'to eat'
cəkməbór	'soldier'	<	cəkmə	'boots';
			bīrd-:bə- b-	'to carry'

## (5) Nominal suffixes occurring with nouns and verb stems:

1-2) -nók; -ók ('characterized by'). These are the same in meaning but are not predictable in distribution:

-nók: tīrsnók	'coward'	<	tīrs	'fear'
grinók	'cry-baby'	<	gri-:gr-	'to cry'
-ók: kirmók <sup>1</sup>	'worm-eaten'	<	kīrīm	'worm'
gəřók	'one who loves to walk,			
	can't sit still'	<	gəřa-:gəře-	'to walk'

## (6) Nominal suffix occurring with nouns, adjectives, verb stems, pronouns, and nominal phrases (for which see 5.11):

-ś (preëminent item) this suffix indicates a particular item

<sup>1</sup>For these morphophonemic processes involving syncope of /i/ and assimilation of /š/, see 2.312 and 2.321 respectively.

which typifies a class of items par excellence; or it merely points out a specific item:

swaré	'cavalryman'	<	swár	'horseman'
dané	'grain'	<	dán	'grain, feed'
širé	'rag'	<	šír	'ragged'
žmaré	'number'	<	žmard-:žmer-	'to count'
əwané	'they' (definite antecedent)	<	əwán	'they (indef.)'
bekaré	'lazy person'	<	be kár	'without work'

(7) Nominal suffix occurring with particles:

-ló (hypostasis). This is suffixed to cardinal numerals to give citation form: the name of a number, without reference to quantity of items:

šəžlól <sup>1</sup>	'a six; the sixes' (in cards)	<	šóš	'six'
duló	'a deuce'	<	dú	'two'

#### 4.32. Adjectival Suffixes

Adjectival suffixes derive adjectives from nouns, adjectives, verb stems, and particles. There are also two prefixes, /né-/ and /ná-/, which derive adjectives from adjectives.

(1) Adjectival suffixes occurring with nouns:

1) -awí 'covered with':

qorawí	'muddy'	<	qór	'mud'
bəfrawí	'snow-covered'	<	bəfr	'snow'

2) -í (gentilic):

řožawái	'western'	<	řožawá	'west'
ǵisái	'Christian'	<	ǵísa	'Jesus'
qawái	'brown'	<	qawé	'coffee'

3) -ménd 'having'

dadménd	'just'	<	dád	'justice'
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4) -ín 'characterized by':

šermín	'bashful'	<	šərm	'bashfulness'
tukín	'hirsute'	<	túk	'hair'

(2) Adjectival affixes occurring with adjectives:

1) -baw 'of the shade of':

surbaw	'reddish'	<	súr	'red'
--------	-----------	---	-----	-------

2-3) né-: ná- (negative). Certain adjectives take only né-, others take only ná-, and others take either:

nətiž	'dull'	<	tíž	'sharp'
nárek	'disarranged, dishonest'	<	řék	'straight'

<sup>1</sup>See footnote on the preceding page.



- |       |              |   |   |     |            |
|-------|--------------|---|---|-----|------------|
| nəxoš | 'ill'        | } | < | xós | 'pleasant' |
| náxoš | 'unpleasant' |   |   |     |            |
- 4) -olś (diminutive)
- |        |                         |   |     |                |
|--------|-------------------------|---|-----|----------------|
| kizolś | 'somewhat dull, gloomy' | < | kiz | 'dull, gloomy' |
|        |                         |   |     |                |

(3) Adjectival suffix occurring with verb stems:

Cú|Ww 'having...' suffixed to past stem of verb to give the past participle (see 3.414 (5)).

- |        |                |   |              |            |
|--------|----------------|---|--------------|------------|
| xwardú | 'having eaten' | < | xward-:xo-   | 'to eat'   |
| ?awsáw | 'swollen'      | < | ?awsá-:?awsé | 'to swell' |

(4) Adjectival suffix occurring with nouns and particles:

-anś 'like or pertaining to':

- |        |           |   |     |        |
|--------|-----------|---|-----|--------|
| kicanś | 'girlish' | < | kic | 'girl' |
| fožanś | 'daily'   | < | fož | 'day'  |
| dwanś  | 'twin'    | < | dú  | 'two'  |

#### 4.33. Verbal Suffixes

Verbal suffixes occur only with verb stems. Verb inflections are described in 3.4. Also described there is verb formation, together with the bound forms which occur in those formational processes, namely /ʔə-/ , /bi/ , /-u/ , /-ibu-/ , /-ayə ~ -bayə/ , /-r-/ , /-a-: -e-/ , and the person-number suffixes. In addition, affixes indicating pronominal goal and negation are described there.

Verbal suffix occurring with verb stems:

Cánd|Vyánd-Cén|Vyén (causative) suffixed to present stems of verbs:

- |                  |                      |   |               |             |
|------------------|----------------------|---|---------------|-------------|
| tirsánd-:tirsén- | 'to frighten'        | < | tirsá-:tirs-  | 'to fear'   |
| gəyánd-:gəyén-   | 'to cause to arrive' |   |               |             |
|                  |                      | < | gəyšt-:gə- g- | 'to arrive' |
| nwánd-:nwén-     | 'to put to sleep'    | < | nust-:nu- nw- | 'to sleep'  |

#### 4.34. Particle Suffixes

Particle suffix occurring with numerals:

Cém|Vyém|uwém (ordinal). Indicates position in a series of items; may occur with increment (D) /-ín/ without change in meaning:

- |                    |          |              |                |
|--------------------|----------|--------------|----------------|
| yəkém ~ (D)yəkémín | 'first'  | seyém        | 'third'        |
| duwém              | 'second' | bistu penjém | 'twenty-fifth' |

## CHAPTER V

### SYNTAX

#### 5.0. The Utterance

An utterance is any stretch of speech preceded and followed by silence on the part of the speaker. It may consist of a single word (defined in 3.0 (1) as any free morpheme) or of more than one word. Chapters 3 and 4 are devoted to the inflection and formation of single words which make up an entire utterance. Chapter 5 takes up the structure of utterances consisting of more than one word. These utterances may consist of a phrase, a clause, or a combination of clauses. The phrase is a construction consisting of a head and its modifiers; it is merely an expansion of the head and functions syntactically as a single item of the same form class as the head. The clause is an exocentric construction with two heads—a subject and a verb. Thus, the phrase and the clause are defined syntactically rather than phonologically. The expression “syntactic unit” refers to any phrase or clause which is substitutable for a single word in any given syntactic position (for which see Clause Word Order, 5.23).

The definition of the clause arrived at in this analysis corresponds to the definition of the sentence in traditional European grammars. The definition of the sentence as used in this work is taken from Professor Charles C. Fries: “a single free utterance, minimum or expanded; i.e., it is ‘free’ in the sense that it is not included in any larger structure by means of any grammatical device.”<sup>1</sup>

#### 5.1. Phrases

The phrase is a construction which consists of a single head and its modifiers and which is substitutable for a single word in a given syntactic position as defined in 5.23. Phrases are of two types: nominal and verbal. These are described in the following sections.

##### 5.1.1. Nominal Phrases

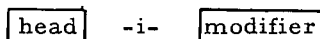
The head of the nominal phrase may be a noun, an adjective, a pronoun, or a particle (interrogative, numeral, or demonstrative); the head is a word described (modified) by the other words (modifiers) of the phrase. The modifiers are of two classes: (1) those which follow the head and are linked to it by the liaison morpheme /-i-/; these include nouns, adjectives, and pronouns; and (2) those which precede the head but are not formally linked to it, including certain types of particles and nouns; these are called prehead modifiers.

<sup>1</sup>Charles C. Fries, *The Structure of English* (New York, 1952) 25.

The liaison morpheme /-i-/ links two words or word groups into an endocentric construction—one that contains a single head with one or more modifiers. The hyphens in the transcription do not indicate juncture, but only morphological boundaries. The traditional term for this endocentric liaison morpheme is *izafa*, taken from Arabic grammar, and will be used here to mean “the endocentric liaison morpheme /-i-/.”

#### 5.111. Minimal Nominal Phrases.

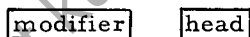
(1) The most common type of nominal phrase consists of head, *izafa*, and modifier, which can be diagrammed thus:



The head may be a noun, an adjective, or a pronoun, and the modifier may be a noun, an adjective, or a pronoun, as follows:

mīnát-i-pcūk	‘small children’
mát-i-pyaweké	‘the house of the man’
pyáwek-i-baš	‘a good man’
náv-i-tó	‘ <u>your</u> name’ (not someone else’s; cf. nāwīt ‘your name’)
xerík-i-nusín	‘busy writing’

(2) The second type of nominal phrase consists of a head preceded by a modifier without *izafa*, diagrammed as follows:



In most instances of this type of nominal phrase, nouns occur as heads, and certain particles (interrogatives, numerals, prepositions, adverbs of degree, and demonstratives) occur as the prehead modifiers. The head is always singular after interrogatives, numerals, and adverbs of degree, and of course is surrounded by the constituent elements of the discontinuous demonstratives /əw...Cś|Vyś/ ‘that’ and /əm...Cś|Vyś/ ‘this’.

cánd řož	‘how many days?’
du mīnát	‘two children’
lə bəǵá	‘in Baghdad’
ǵóle kəs	‘many people’
əwšəwś	‘that night’ (šəw = ‘night’)

In some instances the modifier is a noun and the head is a numeral, as

səǵát du	‘two o’clock’
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A nominal phrase with a preposition modifier (e.g., /lə bəǵá/) is called a prepositional phrase. Prepositional phrases are unlike other nominal phrases in that they do not have the same syntactic functions as nouns (such as subject, object, etc.), but serve as modifiers in the verbal phrase (5.121) or clause (5.24).

5.112. Expanded Nominal Phrases. The two minimal phrases of the previous section can be expanded into larger constructions by combining the two of them and/or by joining an additional phrase or a clause as a modifier.

(1) Combination of the two minimal types of 5.111. The phrase may be expanded to include particle, head, izafa, and modifier as defined in 5.11. This is represented by the following diagram:

modifier	head	-i-	modifier
du mīnāt-i-pcuk			'two small children'
əwšəwəkə-i-sərjō			'that night in Serjo'
əmišə-i-to			'this deed of yours'
			(iš = 'work, deed')

(2) The phrase may also be expanded to include a head, izafa, and a nominal phrase. The modifying phrase may be either of the basic types of 5.111 or an expanded type of the preceding subsection.

head	-i-	phrase
nāw-i-mudīr-i-muḡārīf		'the name of the director of education'
jasūs-i-ṣəd sał		'a spy of a hundred years'
xanə-i-bə jəḡ		'a noisy house' (bə jəḡ = 'with noise')
səbəb-i-əmišə-i-to		'the reason for this deed of yours'
səḡāt du-i-paž niwəřō		'two o'clock p.m.'

(3) A third type of expanded nominal phrase contains two prehead modifiers and head, diagrammed as follows:

modifier	modifier	head
cəḡ be-īnsāfi		'How unjust you are!' (be-īnsāfi = 'without justice, unjust')

(4) The head of the nominal phrase may also be followed by a modifying (i.e., describing) clause introduced by the relative /kə/ 'who' and linked by izafa. As this construction involves utterances larger than a clause, it is described in combinations of clauses, 5.322.

### 5.12. Verbal Phrases

The verbal phrase is a construction consisting minimally of a head and its modifier, in which the head is a verb and the modifier may be an adverb, a noun, or an adjective; the modifier precedes the verb.

modifier	head
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A special type of verbal phrase has the copula (defined under (1) in 3.414; see also illustration in (4) in 5.121 below) and a predicate as

modifier. The predicáte may be a noun or pronoun, in which case it has the same referent as the subject, as

əwpyawə boyagciyə 'That man is a bootblack.'

Or, the predicate may be an adjective, an interrogative, or a prepositional phrase, in which case it modifies the subject, as

cóni? cáki? 'How are you? Are you well?'

zor bə quwəti 'You are very strong.' (be quwət = 'with strength')

The verbal phrase is a syntactic unit; that is, it can fill the syntactic role of a simple verb. Minimal types of verbal phrases are presented in 5.121 and expanded types are presented in 5.122.

5.121. Minimal Types of Verbal Phrases. The following types of minimal verbal phrases exist:

- (1) adverb + verb: dər kird-:kə-|k- 'to take out, remove'  
səgəkə lərə dər kə 'Take the dog out of here!'
- (2) noun + verb: baŋ kird-:kə-|k- 'to call, invite'  
mələ baŋ ʔəkə 'He invites the mullah'
- (3) adjective + verb: amadə kird-:kə-|k- 'to make ready'  
xoy amadə ʔəkə 'He gets himself ready'
- (4) predicate + copula: be ɪnsáf + copula 'to be unjust' (see 5.12)  
cəŋ be ɪnsáfɪ 'How unjust you are!'

5.122. Expanded Types of Verbal Phrases. The following types of expanded verbal phrases exist:

- (5) adverb + adverb + verb: = (1) + (1)  
tek wər da-:də-|d- 'to shake'  
aw tek wər ʔədə 'He shakes the water'
- (6) noun + adverb + verb: = (2) + (1)  
pənd pe da-:də-|d- 'to play a trick on'  
bócɪ pəndit pe dam 'Why did you play a trick on me?' (For construction see 5.4)

5.123. Verbal Phrases with Nouns and Adjectives. These verbal phrases are very common in the language, and any noun or adjective can potentially occur in a verbal phrase. The most common verb in phrases of types (2) and (3) is /kird-:kə-|k-/ 'to do, make'; other very common verbs are /bu-:b-/ 'to become' and /da-:də-|d-/ 'to give'. A number of nouns and adjectives occur with both /kird-:kə-|k-/ and /bu-:b-/ with transitive and intransitive meanings respectively, as

fer kird-:kə-|k- 'to teach' and fer bu-:b- 'to learn'

pak kird-:kə-|k- 'to clean' and pak bu-:b- 'to become clean'

5.124. Verbal Phrase Diagram. The verbal phrase is diagrammed as follows:

		adverb	
noun	adverb		verb
adjective			
		predicate	copula

## 5.2. The Clause

The clause is a construction consisting minimally of a subject and a verb in agreement. It may also contain a direct object<sup>1</sup> of the verb, as well as modifying expressions in certain positions in the clause and certain introductory expressions. These are described in the following sections. The formula for the fully expanded clause is given in 5.25.

### 5.21. Subject

The clause consists minimally of a subject and its verb. The subject may be expressed within the verb by the person-number suffix—the implicit subject—as in /hát/ 'he came'; thus, a verb may constitute a minimum clause in itself. Or the subject may be expressed in a separate word—the explicit subject—as in /pyáwek hát/ 'A man came'. There is person-number concord between the subject and the verb. However, if the subject is a numeral, the verb is in the singular: see illustration (4) below. If the subject is /tó/ 'you', the verb may be in the plural, to give the effect of an honorific, as /tó cí ?əxwénin?/ 'What are you (polite) studying?' The subject may be a noun, an adjective, a pronoun, or a particle (interrogative, numeral, adverb of place or quantity, demonstrative, or relative). The subject may also be a nominal phrase (except prepositional phrases), and the verb may be a verbal phrase. These various types of subject are illustrated in the following sentences; the first word in each case is the subject, except that in (8) /kə/ is subject:

- (1) Noun            cetəkán hśí hatin 'The bandits ran away.'

<sup>1</sup>The "indirect object" is expressed in Kurdish by a prepositional phrase in /bə/ 'to' or /bə/ 'to, for' (see under 3.55). As these phrases involve no syntactic arrangement different from any other prepositional phrase, they are not treated here as separate items. The position of the indirect object in the clause is described in 5.24, Order of Modifiers. A special postverb expressing indirect object only with the verb /da-:də-|d-/ 'to give' is described on page 79.

- (2) Pronoun *əwániš hic qə nəkən* 'They too do not speak.'  
(-iš = 'also')
- (3) Interr. *ké ?əzáne* 'Who knows?'
- (4) Numeral *dúyan hat* 'Two of them came.'
- (5) Adverb of Place *érəm pe xóšə* 'I like it here' (lit., 'here is pleasant to me')
- (6) Adverb of Quantity *hénde lə dostubradərekáni tədbír ?əkən...*  
'A few of his friends arrange...'
- (7) Demon. *əmə bášə* 'this one is all right.'
- (8) Rel. *əwə kə hat bážbu* 'The one that came was good.'

### 5.22. Object

Those clauses with transitive verbs may contain a direct object of the verb. This object may be a noun, an adjective, a pronoun, or a particle (interrogative, numeral, or demonstrative), and names the goal of the action of the verb. The following illustrate each of these:

- (1) Noun *kərekə bíkrə* 'Buy the donkey!'
- (2) Adj. *konəkáy xward* 'He ate the old one.'
- (3) Pronoun *tom biní* 'I saw you.' (For construction see 5.4)
- (4) Interr. *cit ?əwé* 'What do you want?'
- (5) Numeral *dwányan ?əkré* 'He'll buy both of them.'
- (6) Demon. *əwə nəzane* 'He doesn't know that.'

### 5.23. Clause Word Order

In 5.21-2 subject and object are defined. The word order of these is regular and fits the following formula:

(S) (O) V

in which S = subject, O = object, V = verb, and ( ) means that the enclosed item may or may not occur in any given clause. Thus, the minimal clause consists of a verb with its implicit subject. If a subject or object is expressed, it fits into its respective position in this formula. Following are the various types of basic and limited clausal patterns.

#### 5.231. Basic Clausal Types. The following types occur:

- (1) V : *hát* 'He came.'  
*pízbum* 'I was dirty'<sup>1</sup>
- (2) S V : *míniš yem* 'I'll come too.' (-iš = 'also')
- (3) O V : *dəstīt məc ?əkəm* 'I kiss your hand.' (Formula of respect)

<sup>1</sup>The predicate plus copula constitutes a type of verbal phrase; see 5.12 and pattern (4) in 5.121.

- (4) S O V : xawənmáɪ kəgəzəkəʃ ʔəxwéne 'The host reads the letter.'

Interrogatives are not necessarily initial in the clause, but go into the (S), (O) positions according to their syntactic role, as

mələ́ cí ʔəka 'What is the Mullah doing?' (ci = O)

to keyt 'Who are you?' (ke = Predicate)

**5.232. Limited Clausal Types.** These patterns are limited in the corpus not necessarily in incidence but in the number of verbs that occur in them. Type (5) is limited to such verbs as /pišán da-:də-|d-/ 'to show', and is relatively rare in occurrence. Type (6) is limited to verbs of saying and is a special pattern for direct quotations. It is especially common in anecdotes and similar narrative.

- (5) (S) O<sub>1</sub> O<sub>2</sub> V<sub>2</sub> : Two Accusatives. V<sub>2</sub> includes the verb pišán da-:də-|d- 'to show', as xoy wa mandú pišán da... 'He showed himself so tired...'

- (6) (S) V<sub>3</sub> O<sub>1</sub> : Quotations. V<sub>3</sub> includes verbs of saying, as wət-:te-|t- 'to say', pɪrsí-:pɪrs- 'to ask', as mələ́ ʔələ́ yək qác 'The Mullah says, "One leg".'

#### 5.24. Order of Modifiers

5.23 presents the word order patterns of the most basic elements of the clause—subject, object, and verb. A clause may also contain modifiers, which fill certain positions in the clause. These positions are indicated by M's in the following formula, which is an expansion of the (S) (O) V formula of 5.23:

(S) (M') (O) (M'') V (M''')

Modifiers may be either phrases or single words. Those filling position M' modify (describe) the following portion of the clause.<sup>1</sup> Expressions occupying positions M'' and M''' modify the verb; those in position M'' may be expressions of manner or the indirect object, and those in M''' are generally expressions of place.

Expressions of place occur in M' or M''', and expressions of time and manner usually occur in M'; expressions of time, however, may occur in M''', thereby receiving special emphasis. When expressions of place occur in M''' they more directly modify the verb.

The M positions are listed below with an accounting of what types of expressions usually occur in them and whatever special meanings they may have.

<sup>1</sup>Modifiers of the subject are linked to it by izafa: see nominal phrases, 5.1.



(1) Position M': Expressions occurring here modify the entire remaining portion of the clause. They are generally expressions of time, place, manner, purpose, accompaniment, etc. When expressions of different varieties occur in M', time precedes place and place precedes manner, as

M'

time place manner

dwéne lə mał-i-émə bə dəst máreki kəšt  
yesterday at our house by hand he killed a snake

When two expressions of time occur in M', the more general precedes the more specific, as

bayaní zú həl sta 'He got up early in the morning'  
(zu = 'early'; bayan = 'morning')  
dwéne šəw 'yesterday evening'

With two expressions of place, the expressions are interchangeable.

(2) Position M'': Expressions in this position usually modify the verb, as

kərdí bāš ʔəzani 'You know Kurdish well.'

The indirect object regularly fills this position, as

ktebəkém bə řəšól frošt 'I sold the book to Rashol.'

(3) Position M''': Expressions in this position more directly modify the verb. Thus, when an expression of place, which can fill either M' or M'', occurs in this position, it modifies the verb rather than the clause as a whole. However, this is the regular position for expressions of place when the verb is a verb of motion, as

cú bo kwe 'Where did he go?'

A special meaning attaching to this position is that of emphasis: when an expression which would regularly go elsewhere occurs in this position more attention is focused on it, as

ktebəkém fróšt bə řəšól 'I sold the book to Rashol.'  
wətīm pet 'I told you!'

### 5.25. Introductory Expressions

The clause as a whole is often introduced by a word or word group. These may be a clause connector (as /wə/ 'and'; see 5.31); an interjection (as /xó/ 'aha!'); a noun in the vocative (as /xálkinə/ 'People!'); prepositional phrases (as /ləpaš nán xwardīn/ 'after eating'); or an expression of time (as /járek/ 'once').

These introductory expressions are symbolized by I in the following fully-expanded clause formula:

(I) (S) (M') (O) (M'') V (M''')

### 5.3. Combinations of Clauses

Sections 5.21-4 deal with the structure of the clause. An utterance may contain a sequence of clauses, in which one clause may modify another clause (see 5.321) or may modify a nominal phrase (see 5.322). These syntactic roles are signaled by clause connectors, which are discussed in 5.31. The structure of the clause always conforms to the formula of 5.25, regardless of its syntactic function.

#### 5.31. Clause Connectors

Clause connectors are particles which indicate the relationship between a clause and the remainder of the utterance in which it appears. Some connectors may occur in utterances consisting either of a single clause or of more than one clause; others occur in utterances only of more than one clause. The former are called independent connectors (5.311) and the latter are called subordinate connectors (5.312). Certain connectors, whether independent or subordinate, regularly occur in clauses with the verb in the subjunctive; these are treated in 5.313.

5.311. Independent Connectors. Connectors which can occur either in a clause which itself constitutes the entire utterance or in a clause which is included in a larger utterance are called independent connectors. These include certain conjunctions and the interrogatives:

##### Conjunctions:

bá	'let, have'
báškim	'perhaps'
bélam	'but'
béłku	'perhaps'
cúpkə ~ cúpki	'because'
dwaí	'afterwards'
?éginə	'otherwise'
tənánət	'well, then'
wé	'and'
xozgó	'would that'

##### Interrogatives:

áyə	(question: formal style)
bóci ~ bó	'why?'
cənd	'how much?'
cí	'what?'
cón	'how?'
kám	'which?'
ké	'who(m)?'
káy	'when?'
kwé ~ kwá	'where?'

For illustrative sentences, see under conjunctions (3.52) and interrogatives (3.53).

The conjunctions occur only in position (I) of the formula of 5.25; the interrogatives occur in (I), (S), or (O) depending on their syntactic role: see 5.231.

5.312. Subordinate Connectors. Connectors which occur only in clauses that are contained in larger utterances are subordinate connectors. These include certain conjunctions and the relative /kə/, as

Conjunctions:

éger	'if'
hetá	'until'
ké	'when; if; that'
móger	'unless, if not'

Relative:

ké	'who, which, etc.'
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For illustrative sentences, see conjunctions (3.52), and for relatives see 5.322.

Subordinate connectors occur in position (I) of the formula of 5.25.

**5.313. Connectors and the Mood of the Verb.** Certain connectors, whether independent or subordinate, regularly occur only in clauses with the verb in the subjunctive. These are:

bá	móger
báškim	řéře
éger	xozgé
hetá	

All other connectors occur for the most part with verbs in the indicative. When they do occur with verbs in the subjunctive, the verb indicates, as a rule, an "unreal" type of action (see 3.415) or that the antecedent of the relative is indefinite (see 5.322).

5.32. The Clause as a Syntactic Unit

In an utterance containing two or more clauses, any clause introduced by a subordinate connector, or by zero, for which a specific subordinate connector is substitutable without change in meaning, is a syntactic unit (see 5.0), and is called a bound clause. Thus, since the clause /bə tóyana bimařiyaye/ 'had they thrown it at you' in the utterance

bə tóyana bimařiyaye ?əbúyt bə cwarpé 'If they had thrown it at you, you would have become a quadruped'

would mean the same if /éger/ were added, it is a bound clause. The other clause or clauses in an utterance are called free clauses. Bound clauses may fill the positions (I), (M'), or (M'') of free clauses, forming a sequence of clauses, or may modify a nominal phrase. Paragraph 5.321 describes the arrangement of bound clauses in larger utterances, and 5.322 describes the arrangement of bound clauses as modifiers in nominal phrases.

**5.321. Sequences of Clauses.** Bound clauses may serve as modifiers in free clauses, filling the positions of (I), (M'), or (M''), forming sequences of clauses. In the illustrations of these positions, square brackets [ ] indicate the bound clause that is filling the position in question. See 5.24 for the meanings of these modification positions.

(1) Bound clauses in the position (I):

(I)	(S)	V	(M <sup>III</sup> )
[éger námđenəwə]	xóm	ʔəzanim	cí ʔəkəm
'If you don't	myself	I know	what I'll do
return it to me			
'If you don't return it to me, I know what I'll do.'			

(2) Bound clauses in the position (M<sup>I</sup>):

(S)	(M <sup>I</sup> )	V
əmánis̩	[kə əmə ʔəbínin]	ʔətírsin...
these also	when they see this	they fear
'For their part, when they see this they fear...'		

(3) Bound clauses in position (M<sup>III</sup>): Clauses in this position may be

(a) subject of the free clause:

V	(M <sup>III</sup> )
baštíre	[kə bzánin]
it is better	that we know
'It is better that we know.'	

(b) object of the free clause:

(S)	V	(M <sup>III</sup> )
mələ	ʔəbíne	[bərməkəkəy lə šwén-i-xóy námawə]
Mullah sees	his rug	in its own place is no more
'The Mullah sees that his prayer rug is no longer in its place.'		
See also the clause under (M <sup>III</sup> ) in (1) above.		

(c) receiving special emphasis:

(I)	(O)	V	(M <sup>III</sup> )
tuxwá	mələ	cít	ʔəkírd [éger bərməkəkə́tman nédaytayəwə]
indeed,	mullah,	what would you	if we had not returned your
		have done	rug to you
'What would you have done, if we had not returned your rug?'			

5.322. The Clause as a Modifier of Nominal Phrases. A bound clause introduced by the relative /kə/ 'who' may modify a nominal phrase, whether or not the nominal phrase is in a clause, and, if it is, regardless of its position in the clause. This construction (see (4) in 5.112) contains a head and a clause. The head may be a noun, a pronoun, or a demonstrative; if it is a noun or a pronoun, then it is regularly modified by the discontinuous particle /əw...Cə/Vy/ 'that' or, less often, /əm...Cə/Vy/ 'this'. This modifying clause is introduced by the connector /kə/ 'who' and is linked to the head by izafa; however, either /kə/ or izafa may be omitted without change in meaning. This construction is diagrammed as follows:

əw.head.ə

-i-

kə clause

əwnanə-i-kə səgəkə xwārdi kónbu 'That bread that the dog ate was old.'

əmkəsə kə goraní ?əlé bra-i-míñə 'This person who is singing songs is my brother.'

əwə-i-xwārdit řítəwə 'That which you ate you will pass [i.e., excrete],

əwə-i-kirdit dítwə that which you did you will see again.'  
(Proverb)

The head of the phrase is the antecedent of the relative /kə/. Further, /kə/ itself may be the subject of the verb of the clause which it introduces. If it is the subject, and if its antecedent is indefinite (that is, if the head occurs with neither the definite article nor a demonstrative particle), then *izafa* does not occur, and the verb which agrees with /kə/ is in the subjunctive mood. In this context, /əw/ 'he' and /əwə/ 'that' may be either definite or indefinite without difference in form. This difference in mood and antecedent is illustrated by the following pair of sentences:

əwə kə zirəkə sər ?əkəwé 'The one who is clever will succeed.'

əwə kə zirəkbe sər ?əkəwé 'Whoever is clever will succeed.'

On the other hand, if /kə/ is not the subject of the verb of the clause which it introduces, then that verb occurs with an affix for pronominal goal (3.421) which is in person-number concord with the head modified by the clause, as

əmkəsə kə to ?əynásit bra-i-míñə 'This person whom you know is my brother' (Lit., 'this person whom you know him is my brother')

dəstek kə hakim bíbfet xwéni níyē 'A hand cut off by a judge merits no punishment' (Lit., 'a hand which judge cut it has no blood')

#### 5.4. Displaced Suffixes

Every verb receives suffixes indicating the person and number of its subject (see 3.411). Prepositions may receive pronominal suffixes indicating the person and number of their objects (see (3) in 3.0 for the suffixes and 5.11 for the construction). However, under certain conditions in a clause, these suffixes occur not with the verb or preposition but on some other word in the clause. The shifting of the person-number suffixes of verbs is described in 5.41, and that of person-number suffixes of prepositions in 5.42. In each case, there are two patterns of shifting, depending on whether the verb in the clause is based on the past stem or the present stem of the verb.

### 5.41. Displaced Subject Suffixes

When a clause contains words in addition to a verb and an explicit subject, the person-number suffixes of transitive verbs are shifted to a prior word in the clause, as, for example, in the following:

káštīm = 'I killed'; márek = 'a snake'

but márekīm kúšt 'I killed a snake.'

That is, the suffix /-īm/ of /káštīm/ has gone from /káštīm/ to /márek/; /márekīm/ does not occur as an entire utterance in itself. The subject suffix may be shifted to any word, except as follows: (1) among form classes, certain particles—interjections, conjunctions, and adverbs of time—never receive these suffixes; and (2) among syntactic elements, shifted suffixes are never affixed to explicit subjects, prepositional phrases, or prehead modifiers in any nominal phrase. This shifting occurs whether or not there is an explicit subject in the clause. If there is an explicit subject, the subject suffixes are in concord with it. In the following illustrations containing respectively an adjective, a pronoun, an adverb, a preverb, and an interrogative, all of which have received the displaced suffixes, these words and the respective displaced subject suffixes are indicated in parentheses:

cákīm kird	'I did well.'	(cák 'good' -īm)
mīn tom biní <sup>1</sup>	'I saw you.'	(tó 'you' -m)
wáman kird	'we did it thus'	(wá 'thus' -man)
pyawákán dáyran kird	'The men removed it.'	(dér 'out' -yan)
cóntan zaní	'How did you know?'	(cón 'how?' -tan)

The patterns vary for verbal suffixes and for prepositional suffixes, and also according to whether the verb in the clause is in the present tense or a past tense. This section presents the patterns for verbs, and section 5.42 presents those for prepositional suffixes.

(1) In tenses based on the past stem, the person-number suffixes of the verb are shifted to the first word in the clause, except that the items listed earlier in this section never receive these suffixes. In the following illustrations, the subject suffixes have been shifted to the words /cəqó/ 'knife', /helkó/ 'egg', /hész/ 'love', /fa/ 'away', and /málm/ 'my house'. The verbs in parentheses are the forms with the subject suffixes:

málá cəqóy dér hena	'The Mullah took out a knife.'	(henáy)
dú helkém xwárd	'I ate two eggs.'	(xwárdīm)
hészīm lə to kirdúe	'I'm in love with you.'	(lit., 'I have loved you') (kirdúme)

<sup>1</sup>If the object of the verb is a pronoun, as in this instance, an alternate way of expressing goal is described in 3.421, Pronominal Goal. Both types of expression are common, with /tom biní/ showing more emphasis on the object than /binímit/ 'I saw you'.

barám řáy kird	'Baram ran away.'	(kirdi)
máľmyan werán kird	'They ruined my house.'	(kirdyan)

(2) In the present tense, only three verbs are involved, all three having suppletive stems:

wat-:le- t-	'to say'
wist-:awé(t)	'to want'
hó...bu:hó...Cə Vyə	'to have'

When the subject suffixes are shifted from the verb, the verb occurs in its present stem form, except that /wat-:le-|t-/ receives the aspect prefix /ʔə-/ as well; the person and number of the subject are indicated by pronominal suffixes on the first word of the clause, with the exceptions noted in the first paragraph of 5.41. The illustrations give first the verb with subject suffixes and then a sentence with displaced suffixes:

ʔələyt	'you (sg) say'	cit ʔələ	'What are you saying!'
ʔətánəwel	'you (pl) want'	kam kərsitan əwé	'Which chair do you want?'
hémə <sup>1</sup>	'I have'	trumpelim həyə	'I have a car.'

The verbal phrase /xóš wist-|əwé(t)/ 'to like, love' shows the pronominal suffix on /xóš/ for subject and the verbal suffix on /əwé(t)/ for object, as

	xóšim əwéyt	'I love you.'
cf.	tóm xóš əwé	'I love <u>you</u> .'

#### 5.42. Displaced Prepositional Suffixes

The pronominal suffixes of prepositions (expressing object of the preposition) are shifted in clauses containing transitive verbs or, in the present tense, containing the copula.

(1) In clauses with the verb in a past tense the subject suffixes of transitive verbs are shifted to a prior word in the clause, as described in 5.41. The pronominal suffix for the object of a preposition likewise is shifted, but in this case the suffix goes to the verb. Further, the suffixes occurring with the verb and representing the object of the preposition are not the pronominal suffixes themselves, but the corresponding verbal suffixes of 3.411.<sup>2</sup> The verbal suffix on the verb now refers to the object of the preposition, the pronominal suffix on the

<sup>1</sup>These two verbs are conjugated irregularly in the present tense: see (2) Present Tense under 3.414.

<sup>2</sup>Thus, whenever a transitive verb occurs with the verbal suffixes the latter refer to the object of a preposition. The verbal suffixes seem to have an objective or passive character to them as opposed to the pronominal suffixes, which have an agential or active nature. Compare the use of verbal suffixes with intransitive verbs and in the

prior word in the clause refers to the subject of the verb, and the preposition itself has no suffix. Thus, in the utterance

cáki ləgəi kirdim 'He did well by me.' (< \*cak ləgəim kirdi) the suffix /-i/ '3rd sing.' of the verb /kirdi/ 'he did' has been shifted to /cák/ 'good' and the suffix /-im/ '1st sing.' of the preposition /ləgəim/ 'with me' has moved to the verb. If the preposition is itself the first word of the clause, then it receives the subject suffix of the verb, as

péyan baxšim 'They presented [it] to me.'  
(pe- 'to'; -yan 'they'; baxší- 'presented'; -m 'me')

The structure here is:

preposition - subject                      verb - object

Additional examples (including one with a passive verb) are:

ləbəřim kirdin 'I put them on, I donned them'  
(ləbəř 'on'; -im 'I'; kird 'did'; -in 'them')  
céstim bo le nayt 'I prepared the meal for you.'  
(cest 'meal'; -im 'I'; bo 'for'; le na- 'prepared'; -yt 'you')  
pet wətim 'you told me'  
(pe- 'to'; -t 'you'; wət- 'told'; -im 'me')  
céňyan jəzá le səgrá? 'How much were they fined?'  
(céň ~ cənd 'how much?'; -yan 'they'; jəzá 'fine'; le 'from';  
səgra ~ səndra 'was taken')

However, if the verb precedes the preposition and its suffix (which is not normal word order but is an arrangement that receives emphasis; see (3) in 5.24), the above rule does not obtain and

wətim pet means 'I told you.'

(2) In clauses with the verb in the present tense, the preposition suffix is shifted to a prior word in the clause, provided the verb is a transitive or the copula. The suffix goes to the first word in the clause, with the exceptions noted in 5.41.

cám bo bəné 'Bring me some tea!'  
(ca 'tea'; -m 'me'; bo 'for'; bəné for (D) bihəné 'bring')  
cirókekit bo ?əlé'm 'I'll tell you a story.'  
(cirókek 'a story'; -it 'you'; bo 'for'; ?əlé'm 'I say')  
érəm pe xóšə 'I like it here.'  
(érə 'here'; -m 'me'; pe 'to'; xóšə 'is nice')

passive voice, while the pronominal suffixes are used to express subject in transitive verbs, pronominal goal, etc.



## APPENDIX

### TEXTS

Following are two texts, given in Kurdish script (on the left-hand pages) and in a phonemic transcription with inter-linear morphemic translation (facing, on the right-hand pages). Finally, free translations are given of the stories. The reader will observe that, in the Kurdish script, words of Arabic origin are often retained in their original Arabic spelling.

## یه کم حکایه ت

۱ جارکیان مه له به رماله کي خوي  
هله گريت وه نه چي بو مرگوت بو  
نویر کردن ، که نه گاته مرگوت له  
نیکا خه ریکی ده ست نویر شته نه بی  
له ندي له دوستو براده ره مانی له ناو  
خویانا تدیر نه کن وه به رماله کي لی  
نه درن وه نه لین نای کسی راستی بلی  
تا بزاین مه له چي نه کا.

۳ مه له که له ده ست نویر شته  
نه بیته وه خه ریله نه بی نویر بکا  
نه بیست به رماله کي له شوینی خوي  
نه ماوه ، گه بکه نه گری بی سود نه بی

yşkəm həkayət  
first story

1. jərekyan mələ bərmaɬəkə-i-xóy  
time-a-of-them mullah prayer-rug-the-/i/-himself

həi ʔəɡret wə ʔəcé bo mizgəwt bo  
he-takes-up and he goes to mosque to

nwéž kirdín 2. kə ʔəɡdə mizgəwt lə  
prayer to-do when he-arrives-at mosque in

káteka xərík-i-dəstnwežštín ʔəbé  
while busy-/i/-hand-prayer-to-wash he-is

hənde lə dóstubradərekáni lənaw  
a-few from friends-and-friends-his among

xóyana tədbír ʔəkən wə bərmaɬəkəy lə  
themselves arrangement they-make and rug-the-him from

ʔədizin wə ʔəlén nəbe kəs řastí biřé  
they-steal and they-say must-not anyone truth he-tell

ta bızánin mələ cí ʔəka  
until we-know mullah what he-does

3. mələ kə lə dəstnwežštín  
mullah when from hand-prayer-to-wash

ʔəbétəwə xərík ʔəbé nwéž bıká  
he-is-back busy he-is prayer that-he-do

ʔəbínət bərmaɬəkəy lə řwen-i-xóy  
he-sees rug-the-his in place-/i/-itself

nəməwə 4. gəlek ʔəgəřé be súd ʔəbé  
it-has-not-remained a-lot he-walks-around without avail it-is

۵. نه وائيش هيج ته ناگن. ۶. ملا که بوي  
 سانغ نه بيته وه لي يان شارو ته وه به  
 تووره ييه وه نه لي؛ خه لکينه بو خوا  
 بي تاه نه ليم به رماله کم بده نه وه و  
 نه گر نه م ده نه وه خوم نه زانم جي دکم  
 ۷. نه مانيش که نه مه نه بينن نه ترسن له وي  
 که نه گر نه پده نه وه ملا شتيکي خراب بنا  
 ۸. ده رحال به رماله کي نه ده نه وه ده ست.  
 ۹. دواي نه وه ي مه نه نوينه کي نه کا،  
 لاراکاني دوستي سوبنيکي مه نه ده ن  
 نه لين؛ تو خوا مه نه گر به رماله کتان  
 نه دايتا يه وه چيت نه کرد؟  
 ۱۰. نه ميش به سارديه که وه وتي؛ نه جوم  
 بو ماله وه هندي خوړيم ه بو نه ملا به  
 جولا بوي بکر دمايه به به رمال.

5. əwáníš híc qə nəkən 6. mələ kə boy  
they-also no talk they-make mullah when to-him

ság ʔəbətəwə léyan šardótəwə bə  
most-clear it-becomes from-they hid with

turəiyəwə ʔəiś xəlkinə bo xwá  
anger he-says People! for God

pétan ʔəiém bərmałəkəm bídənəwə wə  
to-you(pl) I-say rug-the-my give-back and

əgər nəmdənəwə xóm ʔəzanım cí ʔəkəm  
if not-to-me-you-give-back myself I-know what I-do

7. əmáníš kə əmə ʔəbinín ʔətirsín ləwə-i-kə  
they-also when this they-see they-fear from-that-/i/-that

əgər nəydenəwə mələ štek-i-xrap bıká  
if not-it-they-give-back mullah thing-a-/i/-bad he-do

8. dərhal bərmałəkáy ʔədənəwə dəst  
immediately rug-the-his they-give-back hand

9. dwaí əwə-i-mələ nwežəkáy ʔəká  
after that-/i/-mullah prayer-the-his he-does

kabrakán-i-dósti swenek-i-mələ ʔədən  
men-the-/i/-friend-his oath-/i/-mullah they-give

ʔəién tu xwá mələ əgər bərmałəkəstman  
they-say by God mullah if rug-the-your-we

nədaytayəwə cí ʔəkird  
had-not-given-back-to-you what-you were-doing

10. əmíš bə sardíyekəwə wəti ʔəcúm  
this-one-also with coldness-a he-said I-was-going

bo məiəwə hənde xurím həbu ʔəmdá bo  
to house-to a-bit wool-I had I-was-giving-it to

jolá boy bıkırdmayə bə bərmáí  
weaver for-he should-have-made-me into prayer-rug

## دودوه م حكايت

۱. جار يکيا به يه کي له دوسته ټاڼي بو  
تاوه ټي کردن مهله بانگ نه ماته مالي  
خويانه. ۲. مهله شي نه و روزه هر له  
به يانپه وه خوي آماده نه کا وه جلي  
پاک له بهر نه کا ۳. وه نزله نيوه رو  
نه چيسته مالي کا براي دوستي بو نان خوارون  
۴. دواي چورنه زوره وه و به خي هاتي  
خاوه ن مال له سه روه وه داي نه بي وه  
به خوشي نه وه وه چنده کسيکي بانک  
کرده. ۵. له پي ټي نان خوارونا خاوه ن مال  
نه يه ري گاته يه ک لگرل مهله دا بکا.  
۶. له هيوان مراوي يه له له سر به له  
بي وه ستاوه ۷. به مهله نه بي ؛ مهله نه و

duwem xakayst  
second story

1. jarekyan yake le dostekani bo  
one-time-of-them one-a from friends-his to

qawelti kirdin mala bag akata mal-i-  
lunch doing mullah invite he-does-to house-/i/-

xoyan 2. mala ew foxs her le  
themselves mullah-also that day only from

beyanewa xoy amad akawa we jil-i-  
morning-from himself ready makes and clothes-/i/-

pak leber akawa 3. we nizik niwefo  
clean on he-does and near noon

aceta mal-i-kabraf-i-dosti bo nan xwardin  
he-goes-to house-/i/-fellow-/i/-friend-his for bread eating

4. dway cune xurawew be xer hatin  
after going-to inside-to-and to well coming

xawennadi le sorawa day ene we  
host on head down-him places and

be xosi-i-awewa cand kaseki bag  
to happiness-of-that-by a-few people-a-he invitation

kirdue 5. lapes nan xwardina xawennadi  
has-done before bread eating-at host

ayawed gaitayek legel mala bika  
he-wants joke-a with mullah-at that-he-do

6. le haywan mrawiyek lasey yak  
in corridor(at patio) duck-a on one

pe westawe 7. be mala aje mala ew  
leg he-has-stood to mullah he-says mullah that

مرای به چهن تاجی هیه ؟ ۸- مله نه لی  
به ک تاج ۹- کابرا نه لی بیاری چاک به  
مه لا چون مرای به ک تاجی نه بی ؟ ۱۰-  
مه لا هر له سر ته ی خوی دوام نه لا.  
۱۱- دواپی خاوه ن مال ده نکه زینکی بچو کی  
له نزل خویه وه هه گت وه گرته  
مرای به که. ۱۲- مرای به که شی له ترسانا  
تاجه کی تری دانا وه رای کرد .  
۱۳- خاوه ن مال وتی ؛ ها مه لا نه وه نیه  
دوو تاجی هیه ؟ ۱۴- مه لا تنکبی لی کرده وه  
وتی نه وه به رده ی تو به و مرای به  
به سزمانه تا مالی به تو یانا بالیایه  
نه بویت به جوار بی ما



mrawiyé cən qáci háyē 8. mələ ?ələ  
duck how-many legs-his there-are mullah he-says

yák qac 9. kabrá ?ələ pyaw-i-cákbe  
one leg fellow he-says man-/i/-good-be

məla cən mrawí yák qaci ?əbe  
mullah how duck one leg-his it-will-be

10. mələ hər ləsér qə-i-xoy dəwám ?əka  
mullah only on word-/i/-himself stay he-does

11. dwaí xawənməí dəpkəzíxek-i-pcúki  
later host pebble-/i/-gravel-/i/-small-he

lə nízik xóyəwə hśí girt wə girtíə  
from near himself-from up took and threw-to

mrawiyəkə 12. mrawiyəkəś lə tírsana  
duck-the duck-the-also from fear-at

qacəkə-i-tíri dá na wə řáy kird  
leg-the-/i/-other-he down put and away-he did

13. xawənməí wəti há mələ əwə níyē  
host he-said aha mullah that is-not

dú qaci háyē 14. mələ təfkíri lé kirdəwə  
two legs-his there-are mullah thinking-he from did-again

wəti əw bərdə-i-to bəw mrawíyē  
he-said that rock-which-you at-that duck

bəszmanəta məí bə tóyana bimaříyayē  
poor threw to you-they-at had thrown

?əbúyt bə cwarpé  
you-would-become to quadruped

## FREE TRANSLATION

### FIRST STORY

On one occasion the Mullah takes his own prayer rug and goes to the mosque to pray. When he arrives at the mosque and while he is busy performing his prayer ablutions, a few of his friends arrange among themselves and steal his rug and say, "No one must tell the truth until we find out what the Mullah will do."

When the mullah gets back from his ablutions and is about to pray, he sees that his prayer rug is no longer in its place. He searches everywhere but in vain. His friends, for their part, say nothing. When it becomes crystal clear to the Mullah that they have hidden it from him, he says angrily, "People! Indeed, I say to you, give me back my prayer rug. If you don't, I know what I'll do about it!" The others, when they hear this, fear that the Mullah might do something bad if they don't return the rug; they return it immediately. After the Mullah had finished praying the men ask him to swear and say, "By God, Mullah, if we hadn't given you back your rug, what would you have done?"

Said the Mullah coldly, "I would have gone home where I have a bit of wool; I would have given it to a weaver so that he might make it into a rug for me."

## FREE TRANSLATION

### SECOND STORY

Once one of his friends invites the Mullah to lunch. The Mullah, for his part, gets ready early in the morning that day and puts on clean clothes, and near noon goes to the house of his friend to eat. After going inside and the welcoming was done, the host put him at the head; he had invited a few people because of the occasion. Before eating, the host wants to have a joke with the Mullah. In the corridor a duck is standing on one leg. He says to the Mullah, "Mullah, how many legs does that duck have?" The Mullah answers, "One leg." The man says, "Come now, Mullah, how can a duck have one leg?" But the Mullah maintained his stand. Later the host picked up a small pebble from nearby and threw it at the duck. The duck put down its other leg from fear, and ran away.

The host said "I say, Mullah, doesn't the duck have two legs now?" The Mullah thought it over and said, "If they had thrown at you the rock that you had thrown at that poor duck, you'd have become a quadruped (donkey)."

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Those items preceded by an asterisk (\*) in the following bibliography were not available to the author for his personal inspection during the preparation of this study. They are listed nevertheless, on the basis of citation in other works, in the interest of presenting as complete a bibliography on Kurdish as possible. Complete data were not ascertainable in all cases.

Proper names and titles in non-Roman scripts are transliterated according to generally recognized conventions. The phonemic transcription of Kurdish used in the main body of the text has not been employed here. Translations and words not appearing on the title pages of the works themselves are enclosed in square brackets.

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## ARTICLES

### Abbreviations used in this section:

AW Wien	K. Akademie der Wissenschaften, Wien, Philosophisch-historische Klasse
AN SSSR	Akademija Nauk SSSR
BSOAS	Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies
BSOS	Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies
JA	Journal asiatique
JAOS	Journal of the American Oriental Society
JRAS	Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society
REI	Revue des études islamiques
ZDMG	Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft

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**GLOSSARY**

Institut kurde de Paris

The order of alphabetical arrangement in the Glossary that follows is given below:

?	h	n	t
a	h	ŋ	u
b	i	o	u
c	i	p	v
d	i	q	w
e	j	r	x
ə	k	r	y
f	l	s	z
g	l	š	ž
g	m	š	ž

The symbol / in the glossary is equivalent to the vertical bar (|) as used in the main body of the text (cf. paragraph 3.0, fn. 1).

?

?awsán (?awse-) to swell up  
 ?awsáw swollen, pregnant  
 ?əngawtín (?əngew-) to shoot

a

á [interj.] yes (informal style)  
 áferin, áferim [interj.] bravo!  
 afrést woman  
 agá care, attention  
 agadánd alertness  
 agír fire  
 agirdán fireplace  
 agá agha  
 amadés [adj.] ready  
 amadés kirdín to prepare  
 asmán sky  
 asudéi comfort  
 ášt peace  
 áw water  
 azaí freedom  
 áy [interj.] ah!  
 áyə (interrog. part., formal style)

b

bá [interj.] yes (informal style)  
 bá [conj.] let, have (in indirect commands)  
 bá [prep.] against, in opposition to  
 bág (plur. bagét) garden  
 bán plateau  
 \*banzín gasoline  
 báp call, invitation  
 báp kirdín to invite

bapír grandfather  
 barám (man's name)  
 báš [adj.] good  
 báškım [conj.] perhaps  
 bawk father  
 baxşín (baxš-) to present, give  
 báy [prep.] for the price of  
 bayaní morning  
 bé, bəbé [prep.] without  
 bekarş lazy person  
 bó/pé [prep.] to, in, with  
 bó...(əwə) [prep.] with (instrument)  
 béd [adj.] bad  
 bəfir snow  
 bəfrawí [adj.] snow-covered  
 bəgá Baghdad  
 bəle [interj.] yes (formal style)  
 bəlam [conj.] but  
 bəšku [conj.] perhaps  
 bənd cord  
 bəndəxwén, bənəxwén belt-cord  
 bér front  
 bərd rock, stone  
 bərmát prayer-rug  
 \*bərqiş telegram  
 bəru oak tree  
 bərx lamb  
 bás [adj.] enough, sufficient  
 bəsér [prep.] by (in oaths)  
 bəsizmán [adj.] poor  
 bəxşín (bəxš-) to forgive  
 binín, ditín (past bini-, di(t)-;  
 pres. bin-) to see  
 bír mind  
 bíst [numeral] twenty

bistín (byə-/by-; passive bistr-) to hear  
 bístu penjém [numeral] twenty-fifth  
 x bilyún [numeral] billion  
 bín bottom  
 bĩrdĩn (bə-/b-; passive br-) to carry  
 bĩrĩnj rice  
 bĩzĩn goat  
 bĩznəkewĩ mountain goat  
 bó [prep.] to, for  
 bóci, bó [interrog.] why?  
 boinbáx necktie  
 boyág shoe polish, shine  
 boyagcí boot black  
 brá brother  
 bradér friend  
 brán (bre-) to stop (trans.)  
 brayetí brotherhood  
 brazá brother's son or daughter  
 brín (br-) to wound  
 břín (bř-) to cut  
 búk bridegroom  
 bukušušé toy (toy)  
 bún (past -bu-; pres. Cĩm/Vm, hē-, b-) to be  
 burdĩn (bur-) to forgive  
  
 cák [adj.] good  
 cakĩ goodness  
 candĩn (cen-) to sow  
 cáw eye  
 cawĩlké eyeglasses  
 cáy, cá tea  
 cayxané tea shop  
 cenřáw [adj.] sown  
 cést meal, food  
 cést lé nan to prepare a meal  
 ceté bandit  
 cəkmé boots  
 cəkməbór soldier  
 cənd, cəŋ [interrog.] how much? how many?

cənd, cəŋ [adv.] a few  
 cəp left hand  
 cəpuřást left hand and right hand  
 x cəqó knife  
 cí-[interrog.] what?  
 cirók story  
 x cĩryó [interj.] cheerio! (a toast)  
 cĩl [numeral] forty  
 cĩrá light (noun)  
 cón [interrog.] how?  
 cún (c-; imperative co-) to go  
 lá cun to go away  
 ték cun to disagree  
 cúŋkə, cúŋki [conj.] because  
 cwár [numeral] four  
 cwardé [numeral] fourteen  
 cwarpé quadruped, donkey

d

dá [preverb] down  
 dád justice  
 dadgá court  
 dadmónd [adj.] just  
 dán tooth  
 dán grain, feed  
 dán (də-/d-; passive dr-) to give  
 lé dan to hit, to play (musical instrument)  
 ték wér dán to shake (water)  
 dané grain  
 dár tree  
 darĩstán forest  
 dăx sorrow  
 dăyk mother  
 daykĩ motherhood  
 dé (plur. dehát) village  
 dé [numeral] ten  
 dē, dēy (asseverative particle occurring with verbs)  
 dēm period of time, a while  
 dəmdēm [adv.] from time to time  
 dəŋ voice  
 dəŋkəzix piece of gravel  
 dər [preverb] out  
 x dərəj degree

dóræwə outside  
 dærgá door  
 dærkál [adv.] immediately  
 dærpé undershorts  
 dærzí needle  
 dæst hand  
 dæstnwežštín prayer ablutions  
 dæwám kirdín to persist  
 díl heart  
 dílgír [adj.] sad, grieved  
 díškáw [adj.] heartbroken  
 díktəŋ [adj.] sad  
 dílxós [adj.] happy  
 dizín (diz-) to steal  
 dó (fermented yoghurt drink)  
 dóst friend  
 dostubradór friends  
 drenfáw [adj.] torn  
 dréz [adj.] long, tall  
 drežai length  
 drəŋ [adj.] late  
 dró lie, falsehood  
 drún (dru-/dru-) to sew  
 dřandín (dřen-) to tear  
 dú [numeral] two  
 duló a two, deuce (cards)  
 dúr [adj.] far, distant  
 durbiní farsightedness  
 dúsbəy [adv.] day after tomorrow  
 duwám [numeral] second  
 duzmán a deceitful person  
 dwaí [adv.] later, afterwards  
 dwaná twin  
 dwanzá [numeral] twelve  
 dwáy [prep.] after  
 dwéne [adv.] yesterday  
 dyaré obviously, of course (is visible)

e

érə [adv.] here  
 está [adv.] now  
 éš ache  
 ewaré [adv.] evening

ə

\* əfəndí, əfəní gentleman  
 égər [conj.] if  
 éginə [conj.] otherwise  
 əmán [interj.] alas, woe  
 əm...Cə/Vyś [demon.] this  
 əmə [demon.] this  
 əre [interj.] yes (emphatic)  
 \* ərewəllə [interj.] yes indeed!  
 əsp horse  
 əsterə star  
 əw [pron.] he, him; she, her; it  
 əw...Cə/Vyś [demon.] that  
 əwán [pron.] they, them  
 əwanə [pron.] they (definite antecedent)  
 əwé [adv.] there  
 əwə [demon.] that  
 əwwá [numeral] first  
 əy [interj.] yes (informal style)  
 əždihə (a fabulous animal)

f

\* fanilə undershirt  
 feník [adj.] cool  
 fér:  
 fér bún to learn  
 fér kirdín to teach  
 fənján cup  
 fəqyanə Kurdish long-sleeved shirt  
 fərmún (fərmu-) to do the honor of (polite)  
 fərq difference  
 fərs rug  
 fərsfəxər one who spreads carpets  
 flán So and So  
 froštín (froš-) to sell  
 frošyár customer

g

gá (płur. gəgál) bull, ox  
 gəltə joke

geránnəwə (past gera-...əwə;  
present gere-...əwə) to tell,  
relate

gəlek [adv.] a great deal of

gənim wheat

gənj [adj.] young

gənməsámi corn

gərm [adj.] hot

gərmá heat

gəřán (gəře-) to walk

gəřók one who loves to walk

gəwřs [adj.] big, large

gəyandín (gəyen-) to cause to  
arrive

gəyštín (gə-/g-) to arrive

gəz bite

gəz (unit of measure for cloth)

gəzín (gəz-) to bite

gián soul

gianləbér animal, living thing  
(except plants)

girfán pocket

givə (onomatopoeia for sound  
of bullets)

givegív (onomatopoeia for sound  
of bullets)

gizə (onomatopoeia for sound of  
buzzing of bullet)

gizə kirdín to complain

gizəgiz complaining, whining

gił soil

girtín (gr-; passive stem gir-)  
to take, grasp, throw

həł girtín to pick up

gláw [adj.] unclean (religious  
usage)

gobkə (a kind of flower)

gól lake

góm lake

goraní song

gőšt meat

govár magazine

grəw bet, wager

grín (gr-) to cry

grinók cry-baby

gřán [adj.] expensive

gunáh crime

gəł leprosy

gəł rose

guláw rose water

gwé ear

gwéž nuts

## g

garibí foreign land

gəłót mistake

gəłətyarí a bad move or play  
(in games)

## h

há [interj.] aha!

x hafiz Protector

haftə week

x hakim judge

hatín (ye-/y-; subjunctive e-;  
imperative wər-) to come

hatucó coming and going,  
loitering

hawištín (hawəž-) to throw

helkə egg

henán (hen-) to bring

dər henán to take out, remove

héro (girl's name)

hestín (hel-) to permit

héšta [adv.] still, yet

həbu [v.] there was, were

həbun (past hə...bu; present hə  
...Cə/Vyə/yeti; imperative

hə...be) to have

həl [preverb] up

həł eagle

həmanə leather

həmú, həmú [adv.] each, every,  
all, any

həndek [adv.] a few, a little

hənjír figs

həywín honey

hər [adv.] only

hərmé pear

hərzán [adj.] cheap



hæšt [numeral] eight  
 hæštá [numeral] eighty  
 hətá, tá, hətáku [conj.] until  
     [prep.] up to, as far as  
 hətíw orphan  
 hətíwbáz homosexual  
 háyə [v.] there is, are  
 həywán corridor (bordering  
     courtyard of house)  
 həzár [numeral] thousand  
 həždə [numeral] eighteen  
 híc [adv.] no, not any  
 honfáwə poem  
 hoqqá (a measure of weight)  
 huşyár [adj.] sober

# h

hæftá [numeral] seventy  
 həvdə, həvvə [numeral] seventeen  
 həwt [numeral] seven  
 \* həywán animal  
 həz:  
 həz lə kirdín to like, love

# i

iş work, deed

# i

\* iştirám respect  
 imro [adv.] today  
 imsaí [adv.] this year  
 imşəw [adv.] tonight  
 \* imtihan examination  
 inja [adv.] then, in that case  
 insáf justice, equality  
 \* insán man, person  
 isbilyə Lisbon

# j

jám bowl  
 jarán formerly  
 járek once  
 \* jasús spy  
 jəŋ noise

jəzá fine (noun)  
 jəzá le səndín to take a fine  
     from, to fine  
 jəzn holiday  
 jif clothes  
 jifá slang  
 jnabtán you (polite)  
 jó barley  
 joía weaver  
 jún (ju-/jw-) to chew  
 jút a pair (rugs, dice)  
 jwán [adj.] beautiful  
 jwaní beauty

# k

kabrá man, fellow  
 kagəz letter  
 kagəznús letter-writer  
 kaka (title of respect used in  
     addressing elder brother)  
 kaşək melon  
 kaşəkfróş melon vendor  
 kám [interrog.] which?  
 kaní spring (water)  
 kánt straight (in poker)  
 kár work  
 kár ewe  
 kargá workshop  
 karžolə small ewe  
 kát while, time  
     lə káteka while, during  
 ké [interrog.] who? whom?  
 ké [conj.] when, if, that  
 ké [relative] who, which  
 kéşk use  
 kəmrəŋ [adj.] light (in color)  
 kəndín (kənd-) to take off  
 kənín:

    pé kənin (kən-) to laugh  
 kár donkey  
 karfróş donkey seller  
 karfroştín donkey selling  
 kər [adj.] deaf  
 kəs person, anybody

kəští ship

kəštyəwán sailor

kəwtín (kəw-) to fall

kóy [interrog.] when?

kíc girl, daughter

kicané [adj.] girlish

kílk tail

kirdgár Creator

kirdín (kə-/k-; passive kr-)  
to do, make

dér kirdín to take out, remove

ləbér kirdín to put on, don

rá kirdín to run away

kirím worm

kirmók [adj.] wormy, worm-  
eaten

kíz [adj.] dull, gloomy

kizolá [adj.] somewhat dull,  
gloomy

kláw shoe

klawrfén shoe thief

kólk target

kón [adj.] old

kór party (of people)

krín (kr-) to buy

křín (kř-; passive kiř-) to rub

ktéb book

kúr hunchback

kužánnəwə (kužen-...əwə) to turn  
off, extinguish

kálk scratch

kəllá mosquito net

kəik hen ready to lay eggs

kərd Kurd

kərdí Kurdish

kərdəwarí the Kurdish people

kərdistán Kurdistan

x kərsí chair

kərt [adj.] short

kəř boy, son

kəřəzá grandson

kəštín (kuž-) to kill

kwé, kwá [interrog.] where?

kwér [adj.] blind

kweraí blindness

1

lá side

ladé countryside

lagír supporter, follower,  
adherent

lāq leg

lé [preverb] from

léw lip

lś/lé (-da) [prep.] in, at

lś/lé (-əwə) from

ləbér [prep.] because of, on

ləbín [prep.] beneath

ləgá (-da) [prep.] with

ləkín...əwə [prep.] beside

lənáw (-da) [prep.] inside of

ləpás (-da) [prep.] after

ləpés (-da) [prep.] before

ləsár [prep.] on

ləžér [prep.] under

libnán Lebanon

liřkə wash-rag

m

mác kiss

mác k. to kiss

mał house

małín (mał-) to throw, cast

małocká little house

mám uncle

mán (me-) to remain

mandú, mařú [adj.] tired

már snake

marmasí eel

masí fish

mást yoghurt

mérd man, husband

méř fly

meřulá mosquito

məřář salary

məřəřxór employee

məřné meaning

məřgər [conj.] unless, if not

məlá mullah

məlá swimming

- məmnún [adj.] much obliged,  
 thank you  
 mérg pasture  
 \* mérhəbə [interj.] hello  
 məwqnatís magnetism  
 miwán guest  
 míz urine  
 mizildán bladder  
 milwanké necklace  
 \* milyún [numeral] million  
 mín [pron.] I, me  
 mináí, mindáí child  
 minakí childhood  
 minakóké (dear) little child  
 mirdín (mr-) to die  
 mirwarí pearl  
 mizgəwt mosque  
 mór [adj.] purple  
 moró dice  
 mrawí duck  
 \* mrəbbé jam  
 \* muğaríf education  
 \* mudír director  
 \* məhtéməl [adj.] possible  
 \* məmkín [adj.] possible

n

- nábe [v.] must not  
 náí leather slippers  
 nadír (man's name)  
 nán bread  
 nán (ne-) to put, place  
 dá nan to put down  
 nankír baker  
 nardín (ner-) to send  
 nárek [adj.] disarranged, dis-  
 orderly, dishonest  
 nasín (nas-) to know, be acquaint-  
 ed with  
 náu name  
 náu inside, interior  
 náxoš [adj.] unpleasant  
 né? [interj.] no  
 nəsrín (girl's name)  
 nətiž [adj.] dull

- nəwəd [numeral] ninety  
 nəxer [interj.] no (emphatic)  
 nəxoš [adj.] ill  
 nəxtek a little bit  
 niáz intention  
 niwəfo noon  
 niwəfoxəw noon nap  
 \* nisbət comparison  
 ništín, ništín (niš-) to sit  
 dá ništín to sit down  
 nižík [adj.] near  
 nižm [adj.] low  
 nó [numeral] nine  
 nóš [interj.] here's to you (a  
 toast)  
 nozdé [numeral] nineteen  
 nusín (nus-) to write  
 nəktəbáz comedian, joker  
 nəqərc a pinch  
 nəstín, nəstín (nu-/nw-) to sleep  
 nwardín (nwen-) to put to sleep  
 nwé [adj.] new  
 nwéž kirdín to pray

o

- ogír:  
 ogírbe Where are you going?  
 (polite style)  
 ogír kirdín to go (polite)  
 ostá master  
 oxáy [interj.] ah! (delight)

p

- pák [adj.] clean  
 pák kirdín to clean, peel  
 pák kirdnəwə to clean, wash  
 paławtín (paław-) to filter  
 panzé [numeral] fifteen  
 pár [adv.] last year  
 parastín (parez-) to protect  
 pás [prep.] after  
 pašəróž [adv.] in the future  
 paytéxt capital city  
 pcúk, biçúk [adj.] little, small  
 pé foot

pé [preverb] to  
 péc curve  
 pecpéc zigzag  
 pék [preverb] together  
 pékəwə [adv.] together  
 pénj [numeral] five  
 perár [adv.] year before last  
 péš [prep.] before  
 péwə [preverb] with  
 pələs haste  
 pələpəl great haste  
 pénd trick, pun  
 pénd pe dán to play a trick on  
 pənjá [numeral] fifty  
 pərdəwkəllə mosquito net  
 pəstə chorus  
 pəstín (pəst-) to press  
 píř [adj.] old  
 píretí oldness  
 pířeméřd old man  
 pířəžín old woman  
 píří oldness  
 píř [adj.] dirty  
 pířán dan to show  
 pířsín (pířs-) to ask  
 píř [adj.] full  
 píř kirdín to fill up  
 píř rung (of ladder)  
 x propəlantə propaganda  
 pířilə cat  
 píř money  
 pířbáz miser  
 pířzá aunt's son or daughter  
 pířaw man  
 pířawetí humanity

q

qác leg  
 qadír (man's name)  
 qawə coffee  
 qawəí [adj.] brown  
 qawəltí lunch  
 qazánj profit  
 qazəwán goose tender  
 qələbáləg crowd

qələm pen, pencil  
 qələmdán pencil box  
 qəpqəp (onomatopoeia for sound  
 of wooden shoes)

x qəryolə cot  
 qəřzdár debtor  
 qəy nəka it doesn't matter  
 qəycí scissors  
 qəzá misfortune  
 qopcs button  
 qorawí [adj.] muddy, mud-  
 covered  
 qúl [adj.] deep  
 quwət strength  
 quləřsəš Negro  
 qurbán you (polite)  
 qurčán Koran  
 qəřs [adj.] difficult  
 qsə speech  
 qsə kirdín to speak  
 qsəxəš [adj.] witty

r

řá [preverb] away  
 řamazán Ramadan  
 řást [n.] right hand  
 [adj.] right, correct  
 řastí truth  
 řastír [adj.] more correct  
 řastucəwt [adj.] dishonest  
 řék [adj.] straight  
 řekupék [adj.] in order, in good  
 shape  
 řestín (řes-) to spin  
 řəsm mercy  
 řəŋ [adj.] color  
 řəŋə [conj.] maybe  
 řəsm picture  
 řəsmgír photographer  
 řəš [adj.] black  
 řəšəbá řesheba, dust storm  
 řəšəl (man's name)  
 řiřtín (řeř-) to sprinkle  
 řjá kirdín to beg, entreat  
 řó [preverb] down

foystín ~ foyn (fo-/fw-) to go  
 fóz sun, day  
 fožanś [adj.] daily  
 fožawá west  
 fožawái [adj.] western  
 fožhəlát sunrise, east  
 fwán (fwe-) to grow  
 fwandín (fwen-) to plant

s

ság [adj.] clear, certain  
 sái year  
 sán (s-) to wake up  
 sárd [adj.] cold  
 sardá cold (noun)  
 sardí coldness  
 sardugérm cold and hot  
 sbý [adv.] tomorrow  
 sé [numeral] three  
 seanzś [numeral] thirteen  
 sér [adj.] strange  
 séw apple  
 səbób reason, cause  
 səbhýne [adv.] tomorrow  
 səgát hour, watch, clock, o'clock  
 ség dog  
 səgbáz dog fancier  
 səgšór dog washer  
 səhól ice  
 x səmmún French bread  
 səndín (sənd-) to take, receive  
 səqf ceiling  
 sér head  
 sér kəwtín to succeed  
 sərbán roof  
 sərbáz soldier  
 sərf spending  
 sərjó (place name)  
 sərspí [adj.] hoary  
 səwá haggling  
 səwá k. to haggle  
 səwbś (a kind of flower)  
 səwz [adj.] green  
 səwzaí green (noun)

səwzś (plur. səwzəwát) green  
 (noun)  
 sfúr without veil  
 sí [numeral] thirty  
 x sinemá the movies  
 sínś tray  
 sifré zero  
 siftā first sale of day  
 síg stomach  
 x skút silence  
 snóq box  
 snogəřśś black box  
 spardín (sper-):  
 řá spardín to order, command  
 spí [adj.] white  
 stan (st-):  
 həl stan to get up, arise  
 súd avail  
 súr [adj.] red  
 surbaw [adj.] reddish  
 swár horseman  
 swarś cavalryman  
 swén oath

ś

śəd [numeral] hundred

š

šá king  
 šái ceremony  
 šanzś [numeral] sixteen  
 šár city  
 šatřnj chess  
 šáx mountain  
 šaxəwán mountaineer  
 šazadś prince, princess  
 šažín queen  
 šéw evening meal  
 — šəhwaní hermaphrodite  
 šəkír sugar  
 šəkirdán sugar bowl  
 šəlín (šəl-) to be lame  
 šəmšəməkwer bat (animal)  
 šərm bashfulness

šermín [adj.] bashful  
 ✕ šért condition, proviso  
 šést [numeral] six  
 šést [numeral] sixty  
 šəw night  
 šəwq light (noun)  
 šəžló a six (cards)  
 šín [adj.] blue  
 šír milk  
 šír [adj.] ragged  
 širé rag  
 širəxór infant  
 širín [adj.] sweet  
 širutír swords and arrows  
 šít thing  
 škán (ške-) to break  
 škanəwə (ške-...əwə) to be broken  
 škar thanks (to God)  
 šušš glass  
 šuštín (šo-/šw-) to wash  
 šwén place

t

táj crown  
 tajbáxš (proper name)  
 té [preverb] into  
 ték [preverb] apart, dis-  
 tér [adj.] full  
 təgtíl vacation  
 tədbír kirdín to arrange  
 tənánət [conj.] well, then  
 tərs dung  
 ✕ təsbíh ~ təzbíh prayer beads  
 ✕ təšəkkúr kirdín to thank  
 təšpí wooden dish  
 təšpilé small wooden dish  
 təšpiloké very small wooden dish  
 təxté board (wood)  
 təxwá bobby pin  
 tféŋ rifle  
 tirbíržán beautiful person  
 tíž [adj.] sharp  
 tirs fear  
 tirsán (tirs-) to fear  
 tirsandín (tirsən-) to frighten

tirsnoč coward  
 tirs [adj.] sour  
 tká kirdín to thank  
 tó [pron.] you  
 topín (top-) to die (animal)  
 tór fishing net  
 tořbš musette bag  
 trozí wild or "snake" cucumber  
 ✕ trumpél automobile  
 třé grapes  
 túk hair  
 tukín [adj.] hirsute  
 tuləšəg puppy  
 túr radish  
 turəyé anger  
 twanín (twan-) to be able, can  
 twé slice  
 txwá, tuxwá [interj.] indeed?!  
 (surprise)

u

✕ utél hotel

u

uštáz professor

v

viŋəvíŋ (onomatopoeia for sound  
 of buzzing of bees)  
 víř (onomatopoeia for sound of  
 machines)  
 vrəvíř (onomatopoeia for sound  
 of machines)

w

wá [adv.] thus, so  
 werán ruin, ruination  
 werán kirdín to ruin  
 werán bun to be ruined  
 wš, Cu/Vw [conj.] and  
 wšk [conj.] as  
 wšku [prep.] like  
 wəlam:  
 wəlam dánəwə to think  
 wšr [preverb] from

wəstán (wəst-) to stand  
 fá wəstán to stop (intrans.)  
 wistín (-əwe(t); passive wistr-)  
 to want  
 wutú iron (instrument)  
 wutucí laundryman  
 watín (fə-/t-; passive watr-)  
 to say  
 wətnəwə (fə...əwə) to teach

x

xəfúz charcoal  
 xəfuzá cousin  
 xəfuzín aunt  
 xanə, xanú house  
 xəsətən [adv.] especially  
 xawənmát host  
 xawlí towel  
 xəl̥k, xəl̥q people  
 xərík [adj.] busy (plus subjunc-  
 tive verb: about to)  
 xəw dream  
 xít a spinning  
 xib̥x̥l̥okə a top  
 xinkán (xinke-) to drown, choke  
 xistín (xə-/x-) to pull  
 xizím relative, relation  
 xizmayətí relationship  
 xó self  
 xó [interj.] I say! (accosting)  
 xoləmés ash  
 xonəxór one who does not eat  
 xós [adj.] pleasant, nice,  
 delicious  
 xós̥k sister  
 xoškəgəwrə elder sister  
 xóžgə [conj.] would that  
 xrap [adj.] bad  
 xurí wool  
 xux̥l̥okə top (which spins)  
 xwá God  
 xwardín (xo-/xw-; passive xur-)  
 to eat  
 xwardú [adj.] having eaten  
 xwardubírd eating and plucking

xwarú south  
 xwé salt  
 xwedán salt shaker  
 xwén blood  
 xwendín (xwen-) to read

y

yanzə, yanzdə [numeral] eleven  
 yaprəx stuffed cabbage rolls  
 yarí play, move (in games)  
 yešán (yeše-) to ache, pain  
 yə̥k [numeral] one  
 yəkəm [numeral] first  
 yəkəmín [numeral] first  
 yəkirtú [adj.] united  
 yəksér [adv.] straight,  
 immediately  
 yəktír [numeral] one more  
 yələ [interj.] hurry up

z

zağíf [adj.] weak  
 zanín (zan-) to know  
 zewí ground, earth  
 zəhmət trouble, bother  
 zín saddle  
 zirbrá step-brother  
 zirək [adj.] clever, smart  
 zirxós̥k step-sister  
 zistán winter  
 zmán tongue, language  
 zór [adv.] very, much, many  
 zorná flute  
 zřé (onomatopoeia for tinkling  
 sound)  
 zú early

ž

žán pain  
 žanəsér headache  
 žapón Japan  
 žér under part  
 žerxán basement  
 žián (ži-) to live  
 žín life

žín woman, wife  
žmardīn (žmer-) to count  
žmaró numeral, number  
žúřwə inside

ž

žantikóy [adj.] funny  
žaqłó intelligence  
žáyb shame

žšbə aba (woman's black cloak)  
žšmr age (years)  
žəřəqóř heavy drinker  
žšrz, 'ərz' ground, floor  
žəttár notions shop  
žəttarcí notions shopkeeper  
žísa Jesus  
žisaí Christian

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