

A KURDISH GRAMMAR

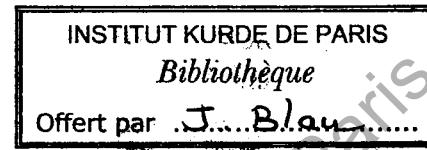
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With the best of
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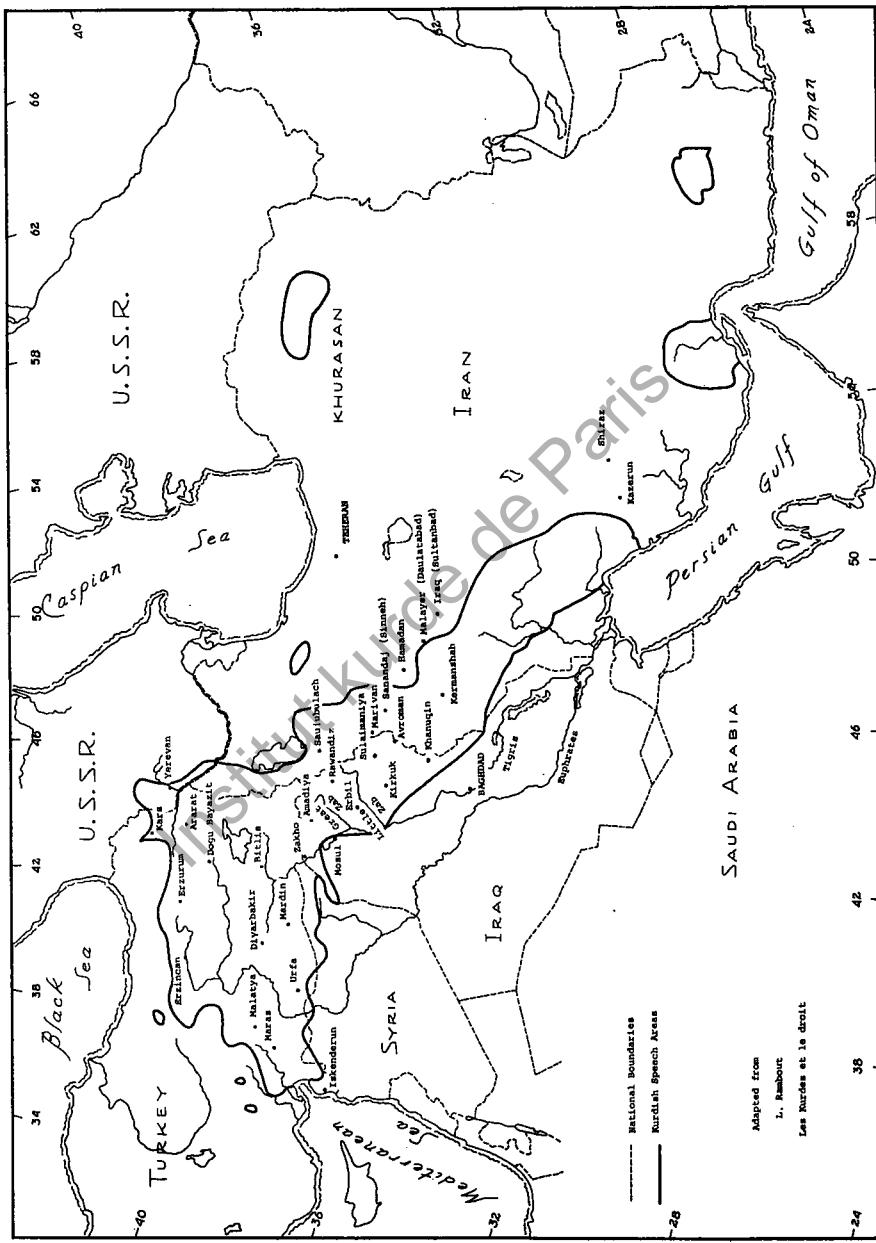
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A KURDISH GRAMMAR

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A KURDISH GRAMMAR
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE KURDISH
OF SULAIMANIYA, IRAQ

by
Ernest N. McCarus

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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 1.5¹ to 9 million.²

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 Ezādī³, 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.

¹Encyclopaedia Britannica (Chicago, 1942) 13.520.

²Lucien Ramboit, Les Kurdes et le droit (Paris, 1947) 18.

³Karl Hadank, Untersuchungen zum Westkurdischen: Bōtī und Ezādī, 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.¹

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.

¹Chambers'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 *Zin* 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 Nordchaldæer*, 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. Fassum, 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 ū/ 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. Sa'id Sidqi, Mukhtasar 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 (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 1904.¹

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'īd Șidqi (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.

¹Der kurdische Diwan des Schēch Ahmed von Ğezīret ibn 'Omar genannt Māla'i Gīzri (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 ^a
î	ى	i; Cy ^a
e	ى ^b	ى	ê
ə	ء	ء	e
a	ا	ا	a
î	ي	i
u	و	و	uw
û	و	و	u
o	و ^b	و	o

Also^c

we	ي, و	ö
ü	و

^aC stands for any consonant; this use of y as equivalent to /i/ or /î/ obtains only in final position in the word.

^bSpecial 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.

^cWahby 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	Sidqi ^a	Wahby-1929	Wahby-1933
p	پ	پ	p
b	ب	ب	b
t	ت	ت ^b	t
d	د	د ^b	d
k	ک	ک	k
g	گ	گ	g
q	ق	ق	q
?	ء	ء	... ^c
c	ج	ج	ch ^d
j	ج	ج	c
f	ف	ف	f
v	ف	ف	v
s	س	س	s
z	ز	ز	z
š	ص	-	... ^c
š	ش	ش	sh ^d
ž	ژ	ژ	j
x	خ	خ	x
g	غ	غ	gh ^c
h	ه	ه	h ^d
m	م	م	m
n	ن	ن	n
ŋ	ئ	ئ	ng

Table 2 — Continued

This Work	Şidqi	Wahby-1929	Wahby-1933
l	ج	ج	ل
ڭ	ج ^e	ج	لھ ^d
r	ر	ر	ر
ڦ	ڻ	ڻ	رھ ^d
w	و	و	و
y	ي	ي	ي

^aIn 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:

- ـ (Arabic voiceless interdental fricative [θ]) becomes Kurdish /s/
- ـ (Arabic voiced interdental fricative [ð]) becomes Kurdish /z/
- ـ (Arabic voiced velarized dental stop [d̪]) becomes Kurdish /z/
- ـ (Arabic voiced velarized fricative [z̪]) becomes Kurdish /z/
- ـ (Arabic voiceless velarized dental stop [t̪]) becomes Kurdish /t/.

^bIn his Arabic script Wahby puts a dot under the dental stops, thus ڏ ـ in those words where they may be omitted according to style of speech; see 2.323.

^cThe phonemes /? s ڦ/ are not represented in Wahby-1933, and the symbol h is made to represent both /h/ and /ھ/.

^dPossible confusion in Wahby-1933 between the digraphs ch, sh, gh, lh, and rh and c, s, g, ل, and ر followed immediately by h is avoided by the use of the hyphen in the latter case: e.g., /mec-hul/ 'passive voice'.

^eŞidqi uses a special diacritic to indicate velar /ـ/, thus: جـ; 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.¹ The newspaper Žin (/žin/), which is published in Sulaimaniya, and the magazine Hetaw (/hətaw/), 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 /i/. Thus male or female /sméi/ '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' & /'ədém/ 'I give' (/le ədém/ = '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 ədém?	bot le ədém?	bot lém?
or		
	bot le əjém?	

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.

¹ 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^ye̩:] in N but [ke̩:] 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 ʔekém/ 'I beg (you), please' would be preferred to the synonymous (N) /ʃjá ʔekém/ which uses /ʃjá/ 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 ʔexwenin/ 'What are you (singular, polite) studying?'; or as the plural suffix /yan/ in the sentence /məlá báj ʔekatə 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		i	u
	Open	ɪ			ʊ
Mid	Close	e			
	Open		ə		o
Low			a		

Table 4

Consonant Phonemes^a

		Bi-labial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Alveo-palatal	Velar	Uvu-lar	Pha-ryngal	Glottal
Stops	vl	p		t			k	q		?
	vd	b		d			g			
Affri-cates	vl					c				
	vd					j				
Frica-tives	vl		f	s		š	x		h	h
	vd		(v)	z		ž	g		ɛ	
Fric.:	vl				(s)					
Velarized										
Nasals	vd	m		n			ŋ			
Later-als ^b	vd			l	t					
Flap ^b	vd				r					
Trill ^b	vd				r̥					
Semi-cons.	vd	w					y			

^a() indicates consonants of limited distribution (2.122).

^bFlaps 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 word¹) 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 ɿ e ə a ɿ u ɿ o/ and thirty-one consonants: /p b t d k g q ɿ c j f v s z ɿ ŋ ŋ x g h ɿ h m n ɿ l ɿ r ŋ w y/. The consonants /v ŋ/ 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. Vowels²

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:

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

²The 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 e ə a ɿ ɿ 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 [ü], 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 ä ë î ö û ü and seven short ones a å æ e i o u. The first five long vowels correspond to my /a e i o u/ respectively. His û corresponds to the allophone [w] of my phoneme /w/ (see 2.121). Mann's a is a cover symbol for his a and å, 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	ى	i
i	ى	ି
	ى	ି
ë	ى	e
a		
å		
æ		
e		
o		
â	ା	a
u	୭	୭
û	୭	u
ü	୯	we
ö	୯	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: Șidqi'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 /déstí/ ['déstí] '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: /'ækín/ 'we go'; /íš/ 'work'; /bír/ 'mind'; /žín/ 'life'; /sí/ 'thirty'; /šái/ 'ceremony'; /azaí/ 'freedom'.

[i] High close front unrounded short vowel; occurs only in unstressed word-final position. Examples: /déstí/ 'his hand'; /náwi/ 'his name'; /'əzání/ 'you know'.

/í/ [í] High open front unrounded short vowel; does not occur final in the word. Examples: /mámkán/ 'possible'; /ímtihán/ 'examination'; /siftáh/ 'first sale of the day'.

/e/ [e^:] Mid very close front unrounded long vowel; does not occur in unstressed word-final position. Examples: /éš/ 'ache'; /sé/ 'three'; /bé/ 'without'; /'əcé/ 'goes'; /šéw/ 'evening meal'; /ewaré/ 'evening'; /helké/ 'egg'; /téř/ 'full'; /žér/ 'under'.

[e^] 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: /gér̥m/ = [gér̥m ~ gér̥m ~ gær̥m] 'hot'; also: /bér/ 'front'; /sér/ 'head'; /bé/ 'with'; /téřs/ 'dung'; /ésp/ 'horse'. The allophones are in complementary distribution in the following environments:

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

/héyə/ 'there is, are'; /gəwréyə/ 'is big'; /asudeí/ 'comfort'.

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

/'əybínim/ 'I see him'; /héybu/ 'he had'; /qəsý kírd/ 'he spoke'.

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

/šw/ 'he'; /əwán/ 'they'; /šéw/ 'night'; /šewán/ 'nights'.

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

- /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/ ¹ [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: /déstí/ 'your hand'; /gíł/ 'soil'; /síg/ 'stomach'; /díł/ 'heart'.
- [i] High central unrounded short vowel; does not occur before velar consonants, nor in word-initial or word-final position. Examples: /žín/ 'woman'; /déstít/ 'your hand'; /?əcín/ 'they go'; /tírs/ 'fear'; /kílk/ 'tail'; /cíł/ 'forty'.
- /u/ [u:] High close back rounded long vowel. Examples: /kúr/ 'hunchback'; /utéł/ 'hotel'; /púł/ 'money'; /túr/ 'radish'; /dúr/ 'distant'; /xanú/ 'house'.
- /ə/ [ə] High open back rounded short vowel; does not occur in word-final position. Examples: /kəf/ 'boy'; /gəł/ 'leprosy'; /kəłk/ 'hen ready to lay eggs'; /kəłk/ 'scratch'; /əstáz/ 'professor'.
- /o/ [o~] Mid open back rounded short vowel. Examples: /kóř/ 'party' (of people); /tóř/ 'fishing net'; /gół/ 'lake'; /kółk/ 'target'; /ostá/ 'master'; /bó tóř/ 'for you' (sing).

2.12. Consonants²

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 /plá/ 'rung' (of a ladder),

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

²As 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 ~ sék] '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', /tféy/ 'rifle').

(3) Palatalization. In normal style, the stops /p k g/ and the fricative /f/ are usually palatalized before higher front vowels and semi-consonants, that is, before the front vowels /i ɛ e/, the semiconsonant /y/, and the allophone [w̩] 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^y] and [f^y]. 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 ? f s z š ž x g h ɛ h c j m n l i r w y/. In addition to these 27 consonants, Wahby and this work show the consonants /v/ and /r/. This work, alone of the three, shows /y/ as well as /š/. 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 /j/, for which the digraph (= ng) is used. All three works distinguish between dental /l/ and velarized /l/, but only Wahby and this work distinguish between flap /r/ and trill /r/. /v/, like /š/, is limited in its distribution, occurring in a dozen words at most. Mukri Kurdish shows no y at all. On the other hand, Chodzko, writing in 1857, recorded no w at all, showing y 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 position¹, only an interpretation as unit phonemes avoids violating the basic structure of Kurdish words (see 2.132).

(b) The combinations /št/ and /žd/ do not occur in word-initial position; this strengthens the interpretation as unit phonemes.²

(c) In every instance where the sequences /tš/ and /dž/ 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 /č/ and /j/.

An argument against the interpretation of /tš/ and /dž/ 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 /gčl/ 'leprosy' and /gčl/ '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 /l/ 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 [i], as opposed to [i] before clear /l/.

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

¹Except /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 /tš/ and /dž/ 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 /txwá/ with the same meaning and is obviously a contraction of it.

²See 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 intervocally in the word. 129

(8) Vibrants. There is a phonemic contrast between the flap /r/ and the trill /ř/. 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 intervocally 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 /u/ and /u/, only /u/, which tends to occur only before consonant clusters (see 2.141), occurs before /ř/ while /u/, which tends not to occur before consonant clusters, does not occur before /ř/. However, the trill is interpreted here as a single phoneme because (1) it contrasts in identical environment with the flap: /brín/ 'to wound' and /břín/ '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 /řř/ occur, as /herrábu/ 'it has been sent' and /?ekiřré/ '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, intervocally, 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'; /pšilš/ 'cat'; /bapír/ 'grandfather'; /šsp/ 'horse'.
- [p^y] Palatalized voiceless bilabial stop (3); occurs only before /e/.
Example: /péñj/ 'five'.
- /b/ [b] Voiced bilabial stop. Examples: /bónd/ 'cord'; /bírínj/ 'rice'; /mrébbé/ 'jam'; /ktéb/ 'book'.
- /t/ [t] Voiceless dental stop (2). Examples: /tó/ 'you' (sing); /kért/ 'short'; /tféñ/ 'rifle'; /xótan/ 'yourselves'; /jút/ 'a pair' (rugs, dice).

/d/ [d] Voiced dental stop. Examples: /dó/ (a fermented milk drink); /kérd/ 'Kurd'; /dán/ 'tooth'; /šažadé/ 'prince, princess'; /bárd/ 'rock'.

/k/ [k] Voiceless velar stop (2) (3); does not occur before mid close front or high front vowels or semiconsonants. Examples: /kwá/ 'where?'; /kéy/ 'when?'; /kés/ 'person'; /kón/ 'old'; /néké/ 'if he does not do'; /kéř/ 'boy'; /ktéb/ 'book'; /gšlek/ 'a little'.

[k^y] Palatalized voiceless velar stop; occurs only before mid close front or high front vowels or semiconsonants (i.e., /i ɛ e y/ and [w]; see (3)). Examples: /kwé/ 'where?'; /ké/ 'who?'; /mámkán/ 'possible'; /kwér/ 'blind'.

/g/ [g] Voiced velar stop; does not occur before close mid front or high front vowels or semiconsonants (3). Examples: /géz/ 'bite'; /agá/ 'care'; /gú/ 'excrement'; /góšt/ 'meat'; /ság/ 'dog'.

[g^y] Palatalized voiced velar stop; occurs only before close mid front or high front vowels or semiconsonants (3). Examples: /gwé/ 'eye'; /gián/ 'soul'; /'əgérnəwə/ 'they relate'.

/q/ [q] Voiceless uvular stop (2). Examples: /qéy náka/ 'it doesn't matter'; /qerbán/ 'you' (polite); /bərqiyé/ 'telegram'; /láq/ 'leg'; /férq/ 'difference'.

/ʔ/ [?] Glottal stop. Examples: /néʔəhat/ 'he wasn't coming'; /ʔəawsét/ 'it swells up'; /ʔeyʔəngéwim/ 'I'll shoot him'; /náʔ/ 'no'.

Affricates (4)

/c/ [tš] Voiceless alveopalatal affricate. Examples: /cám/ 'my tea'; /có/ 'go'; /cón/ 'how?'; /cénd/ 'how much?'; /kícek/ 'a girl'; /máč/ 'kiss'.

/j/ [dž] Voiced alveopalatal affricate. Examples: /jám/ 'bowl'; /jó/ 'barley'; /jú/ 'Jew'; /hənjír/ 'figs'; /táj/ 'crown'.

Fricatives (3)

/f/ [f] Voiceless labiodental fricative; does not occur before /e/. Examples: /férš/ 'rug'; /fanilé/ 'undershirt'; /haffz/ 'Protector'; /zařif/ 'weak'.

[f^y] Palatalized voiceless labiodental fricative; occurs only before /e/. Examples: /feník/ 'cool'; /fér búñ/ 'learning' (verbal noun).

/v/ [v] Voiced labiodental fricative; see 2.122.

/s/ [s] Voiceless dental sibilant. Examples: /síná/ 'tray'; /tírs/ 'fear'; /kés/ 'person'; /pésté/ 'chorus'; /spí/ 'white'; /šusé/ 'glass' (material); /sér/ 'strange'.

/z/ [z] Voiced dental sibilant. Examples: /zín/ 'saddle'; /géz/ (unit of measure for cloth); /herzán/ 'cheap'.

/š/ [š] Velarized voiceless alveolar sibilant; see 2.12. (6) and 2.122.

/š/ [š] Voiceless alveopalatal sibilant. Examples: /šín/ 'blue'; /tirš/ 'sour'; /báš/ 'good'; /mešulé/ 'mosquito'; /štékání/ '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'; /xów/ 'dream'; /dáx/ 'sorrow'; /širéxór/ 'infant'.

/g/ [g] Voiced velar fricative. Examples: /agá/ 'agha'; /goléjt/ 'mistake'; /garibí/ 'foreign land'; /bág/ 'garden'.

/h/ [h] Voiceless faecalized pharyngal fricative. Examples: /héywán/ 'animal'; /zéhméjt/ 'trouble, bother'; /háwt/ 'seven'; /tézbíh/ 'prayer beads'.

/t/ [t] Voiced faecalized pharyngal fricative; no word-final occurrence noted. Examples: /táyb/ 'shame'; /tébə/ (woman's black cloak); /ségt/ 'time, watch, clock, hour'; /métné/ 'meaning'.

/h/ [h] Voiceless glottal fricative. Examples: /héywán/ (corridor bordering courtyard of house); /séhól/ 'ice'; /gunáh/ 'crime'.

Nasals

/m/ [m] Voiced bilabial nasal. Examples: /mám/ 'uncle'; /méš/ 'fly'; /masí/ 'fish'; /hémans/ 'leather'; /'əkám/ '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'; /pénjá/ 'fifty'; /'əkán/ 'they do'.

[~] Nasalization of preceding vowel; occurs only in environment /a...z/. Examples: /panzé/ [pá:zə] 'fifteen'; /yanzé/ 'eleven'; /banzín/ 'gasoline'.

/ŋ/ [ŋ] Voiced velar nasal; does not occur initial in the word. Examples: /báŋ/ 'call, invitation'; /máŋú/ 'tired'; /héŋwín/ 'honey'; /déŋ/ 'voice'.

Laterals (1) (5)

/l/ [lⁱ] Voiced clear dental lateral. Examples: /gɛl/ 'leprosy'; /lēw/ 'lip'; /lá/ 'side'; /gɔl/ 'lake'; /gláw/ 'unclean'.

/ɿ/ [l^u] Voiced dark alveolar lateral (with tongue dorsum raised); does not occur initially in the word. Examples: /gɿl/ 'rose'; /gɛɿləw/ 'rose water'; /plá/ 'rung' (of ladder); /gɿl/ 'soil'.

Vibrants (1) (8)

/r/ [r] Voiced alveolar flap; does not occur initially in the word. Examples: /brín/ 'to wound'; /krín/ 'to buy'; /rənerré/ 'it will be sent'; /širín/ 'sweet'; /kér/ 'donkey'; /báfr/ 'snow'.

/ɿ/ [ɿ] Voiced alveolar trill; occurs intervocally only as result of word formation: see 4.22. Examples: /brín/ 'to cut'; /křín/ 'to rub'; /řóž/ 'sun, day'; /kéř/ 'deaf'; /snoqěřešeká/ 'the black box'; /řá/ 'away'.

Semiconsonants

/y/ [y] Voiced palatal glide. Examples: /yarí/ 'game, play'; /rəyəwé/ 'he wants'; /rəyásim/ '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'; /xwardín/ 'to eat'; /áw/ 'water'.

[v̩] Voiced high front rounded glide; occurs only before close front vowels. Examples: /verán/ 'ruin, ruination'; /áwi/ 'his water'; /həywín/ 'honey'; /gwéž/ '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: /víř~vrəvíř/ (onomatopoeic sound of machines); /givé~givəgív/ (onomatopoeic sound of bullets); /həvvá~həvdá/ 'seventeen'; /govár/ 'magazine'; /vijəvín/ (onomatopoeic sound of buzzing of bees).

/ʂ/ [ʂ] Voiceless velarized alveolar sibilant (see 2.12 (6)); occurs in two words: /ʂád/ 'one hundred'; /ʂást/ '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:¹

(1) A word has as many syllables as it has vowels. Thus /bérfr/ '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 /názaním/ 'I don't know' = [ná.za.ním].

(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-	téš.pí	hév.vé	dér.pé
-CC.C-	mewq.na.tíš	řesm.gíř	řoyš.tíň
-CCC.C-	géyst.mé.wé		

However,

-CR-	ka.bré	be.né.xwén	
-C.CR-	řas.tré	yék.trí	mář.myan
-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.fréť	'woman'
VC	aw.sán	'to swell up'
VCC	ašt	'peace'
CV	ša	'king'
CVC	fén.ján	'cup'
CVCC	férš	'rug'

¹Wahby 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 /mamizékə/]. The sole illustration with a consonant cluster is Xurmálh 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 /řóyštím/ 'I went' - /řóyšt'mewá/ '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 s/, see 2.122.

2.141. Vowels. Although it is necessary to set up two sets of phonemes /i ɨ/ and /u ʉ/ because of such contrasts as /'əcín/ 'they go': /məm̥kɪn/ 'possible' and /púl/ 'money': /gəl/ 'leprosy', the contrasts are, in effect, neutralized in the environment VCC, where only the open varieties tend to occur, e.g., /dá níštɪn/ 'they sat down' and /náštɪn/ 'they slept'. The present stems of these verbs show the close varieties, as /dá əníšɪn/ 'they sit down' and /ənúñ/ 'they sleep'. In case of forms like /náštɪn/, (D) /nústɪn/ 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 except /i/ and /ʉ/ 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 ʂ/ 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 /g ħ χ ʔ/. In the following, all consonants except /v ʂ/ are considered.

(1) One consonant

C- (a) Initial. All consonants except /j r ɿ/ occur initially in the syllable and the word; /j r ɿ/ may occur initially in the syllable, however, only if that syllable is not initial in the word: /kírím/ 'worm'; /xalúz/ 'charcoal'; /dájí/ 'his voice'. Thus, loan words which begin with /r/ in the lending language, e.g. Arabic ramadán 'Ramazan', regularly show /ř/ in Kurdish: /řamazán/.

-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 g ʔ/, however, occur finally in the syllable only when that syllable itself is final in the word: /kíc/ 'girl'; /déršj/ 'degree'; /qələbáleg/ 'crowd'; /néʔ/ 'no'. /ɿ/ occurs finally in the syllable but not in the word: /məgné/ 'meaning'; /ɿ/ 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):

<u>consonant + vibrant or semiconsonant</u>	
zir.brá	'step-brother'
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	pcúk	'little'			
			<u>stop + fricative</u>		
pš	pšilé	'cat'	qs	qsé	'speech'
tf	tféŋ	'rifle'			
			<u>stop + liquid</u>		
pł	płá	'rung' (of ladder)	dr	dréŋ	'late'
bl	blé	'say!'	dř	dřandín	'to tear'
pr	propələnté	'propaganda'	kr	krín	'to buy'
br	brayətí	'brotherhood'	kř	křín	'to rub'
bř	břín	'to cut'	gr	gréw	'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>		
×	jn ^{an} _{al}	jnábtan	'you' (polite)		
			<u>affricate + semiconsonant</u>		
cw	cwár	'four'	jw	jwán	'beautiful'
			<u>fricative + stop</u>		
sp	spí	'white'	šk	škáyəwə	'is broken'
sk	skút	'silence'			
			<u>fricative + fricative</u>		
sf	sfír	'without /təba/'			
		(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	zřé	(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

rw rwán '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>-C.C-</u>		<u>stop + stop</u>		
pq	qəpqép	(sound of wooden shoes)	qq	hoqqá (a measure of weight)
bb	mrəbbé	'jam'	tt	ɛəttár 'perfume shop, notions shop'
bt	jnábtan	'you' (polite)	kk	təšəkkúr 'thanks'
bk	gobké	(a kind of flower)	kg	yəkgirtwékán 'united'
			gb	səgbáz 'dog fancier'
<u>pc</u> qopcé		<u>stop + affricate</u>		
ks	yəksér	'directly'	qx	ɛərəqxór 'a heavy drinker'
<u>bn</u> libnán		<u>stop + fricative</u>		
bn	libnán	'Lebanon'	tn	wátnéwé 'they taught'
<u>-CR-</u>		<u>stop + liquid</u>		
pr	yapréx	'stuffed cabbage rolls'	dr	?ədrúm 'I sew'
br	kabré	'fellow, old man'	kr	bikrím 'I buy' (subjunctive)
tr	šatrínj	'chess'	kř	?əkřím 'I rub'
ty	?ətyešé	'it pains you'	qř	ɛaqřé 'intelligence'
<u>ft</u> hafté		<u>stop + semiconsonant</u>		
fk	lifké	'wash-rag'	šb	išbíliə 'Kurdish long- sleeved shirt'
vd	həvdé	'seventeen'	št	šuštín 'Lisbon'
sb	nísbé	'comparison'	žd	əždihš 'to wash'
st	está	'now'	xt	náxtek (a fabulous animal)
zb	təzbíh	'prayer beads'	ɛt	ətəžtél 'a little bit'
zg	mízgéwt	'mosque'	ht	iħtirám 'vacation'
šp	təšpí	'wooden dish'	ht	ħaħtémel 'respect'
vv	həvvé	'seventeen'	xš	ħaħtémel 'possible'
žh	ħožħelájt	'sunrise, east'	bəxšín	'to forgive'

<u>fricative + nasal</u>			
žm	ʔəžmérím	'I count'	km zékméšt 'trouble, bother'
ɛn	mɛgné	'meaning'	
<u>fricative + liquid</u>			
fr	sifré	'zero'	zr dízrá 'was stolen'
sr	nəsrín	(girl's name)	
<u>fricative + semiconsonant</u>			
šy	hušyár	'sober'	hw šéhwaní 'hermaphrodite'
xw	bəndəxwén	'belt-cord'	
<u>nasal + stop</u>			
nb	boinbáx	'necktie'	nd mandú 'tired'
nt	ɛantikéi	'funny'	nk milwanké 'necklace'
<u>nasal + affricate</u>			
nj	fənján	'cup'	
<u>nasal + fricative</u>			
mš	šémšémekwér	'bat' (animal)	nz dwanzé 'twelve'
ns	insánek	'a person'	
<u>nasal + nasal</u>			
mm	səmmún	'French bread'	nm gənməsámi 'corn'
mn	məmnún	'thanks'	nn geránnewé 'to tell, relate'
<u>nasal + liquid</u>			
mř	kəmřéj	'light' (in color)	nř honřáwé 'poem'
<u>nasal + semiconsonant</u>			
my	ʔəmyešé	'it pains me'	nw ʔənwé 'he will sleep'
<u>liquid + stop</u>			
lb	pulbáz	'stamp collector'	rt girtín 'to take, grasp'
łt	diltág	'sad'	rd birdín 'to carry'
lk	cawilká	'eyeglasses'	rg dərgá 'door'
łt	gaité	'joke'	rq bərqiýé 'telegram'
łk	bółku	'perhaps'	řb tořbé 'musette bag'
rp	dərpé	'undershorts'	řd biřdótewé 'you won'
rb	ogřrbe	'Where are you going?' (polite)	
<u>liquid + affricate</u>			
rc	gəttarcí	'perfumer, notions shopkeeper'	
<u>liquid + fricative</u>			
if	jílfá	'slang'	rz dərzí 'needle'
ix	xəbxəłoké	'top' (which spins)	rx zirxóšk 'step-sister'
rf	girfán	'pocket'	rt qərgán 'Koran'

			<u>liquid + nasal</u>	
rm	h̥ermé	'pear'	rn	zorná
ll	k̥ellé	'mosquito net'		
			<u>liquid + liquid</u>	
lw	milwanké	'necklace'	rw	mirwarí
ly	melyún	'million'	ry	q̥eryolé
			<u>liquid + semiconsonant</u>	
wb	s̥ewbé	(a kind of flower)	wq	m̥ewqnatís
wt	k̥ewtín	'to fall'	yt	paytéxt
wk	p̥erdewkellé	'mosquito net'		
			<u>semiconsonant + stop</u>	
yc	q̥eycí	'scissors'		
			<u>semiconsonant + affricate</u>	
wx	t̥ewxá	'bobby pin'		
			<u>semiconsonant + fricative</u>	
yn	?eynásim	'I know him'		
			<u>semiconsonant + nasal</u>	
wl	xawlí	'towel'	wr	awriším
			<u>semiconsonant + liquid</u>	
ww	əwwál	'first'	yy	?eyyešé
yw	h̥eywán	'corridor along patio'		
			<u>semiconsonant + semiconsonant</u>	

x Gemination. All types of consonants except affricates occur in geminate clusters. (Tour mat, arabe, !)

bb	mrəbbé	'jam'	mm	s̥əmmín	'French bread'
tt	ɛttár	'notions shop'	nn	kužánnewé	'to turn off'
kk	t̥ešekkér	'thanks'	ll	k̥ellé	'mosquito net'
qq	hoqqá	(measure of weight)	ww	əwwál	'first'
vv	h̥evvé	'seventeen'	yy	?eyyešé	'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: /fəsm.gir/ 'photographer'. The following types of clusters occur in syllable-final position when the syllable itself is not word-final:

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

continuant + continuant

fricative and nasal:	r̩əsm.g̩r	'photographer'
nasal and fricative:	yənz.d̩́	'eleven'
liquid and fricative:	qərz.d̩́r	'debtor'
semiconsonant and fricative:	g̩y̩š.t̩́m	'I arrived'

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

-CC stop + fricative

qf	séqf	'ceiling'
----	------	-----------

fricative + stop

st	mást	'yoghurt'	št	ašt	'peace'
šk	zirxóšk	'step-sister'			

fricative + nasal

sm	řésm	'picture'	žn	jéžn	(Muslim holiday)
zm	nizm	'low'	hm	řéšm	'mercy'

fricative + liquid

ɛl	naɛl	'leather slippers'
----	------	--------------------

nasal + stop

nt	kánt	'straight'	nd	pónd	'trick, pun'
		(in poker)			

nasal + affricate

nj	qazánj	'profit'
----	--------	----------

nasal + liquid

mr	ɛ́smr	'age' (years)
----	-------	---------------

liquid + stop

lk	kílk	'tail'	rd	mérd	'man, husband'
lq	xélp	'people'	rg	mérg	'pasture'
łk	kéłk	'use' (noun)	rq	férq	'difference'
rt	šért	'condition, proviso'			

liquid + affricate

rc	næqérc	'a pinch'
----	--------	-----------

liquid + fricative

rf	sérf	'spending' (noun)	r̩š	férš	'rug'
rs	qérs	'difficult'	rx	bérx	'lamb'
rz	g̩érz ~ ɿérz	'ground'			

liquid + nasal

rm	g̩erm	'hot'
----	-------	-------

		<u>semiconsonant + stop</u>	
wt h̥wt	'eight'	wq ʂ́wq	'light' (noun)

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

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

(3) Three consonants

(a) Initial. No occurrence noted in either syllable or word (see footnote, page 18). (and STR *etiam*). C.BX. § 61, 2^o, 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:

yek.trí	'each other'
fas.tré	'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:

ʃoyš.tin	'to go'
qarz.dár	'debtor'

-CCC (c) Final. Syllable, word: here occur clusters of two continuants and a stop, with the first continuant a semiconsonant:

ʃoyšt	'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:

g̥yšt.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-	g̥yšt.məwə	'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 /i u ɔ/ 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 /i u ɔ/ 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).¹

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

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

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 affricates, 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

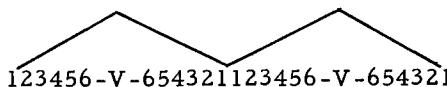
The occurrence of consonants in clusters can be charted as follows, with the first member of the cluster in the horizontal row and the second member in the vertical column:

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 Phonemes¹

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

2.2.1. Lexical Stress

Stress is phonemic in Kurdish, as evidenced by the pairs /mɔrɔ/ 'dice' and /mɔrə/ 'it is purple', and /lə pāšewə/ 'afterwards' and /lə pāš əwə/ '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 = qələbáləg 'crowd'
géȳstməwə = géȳstməw̄ '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.

2.2.2. 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 /náwít/ 'your name', /penjərək̄/ 'the window'. A word and its meaning are identified by the placement of this stress; compare /həmáñ/ 'leather' and /həmáñə/ '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-

¹ 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 ^o 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,

^olérə ^ogənım héys 'There is wheat here.'

^oto ^ogənım ^onárweni, gənım ^ozəcéní '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 /^ozəxóm/ means 'I (will) eat':

^owa ^ozəxóm 'I eat like this.'

wa ^ozəxóm '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:

^obóci nanékát ^onáxoyt 'Why don't you eat (your bread)?'

hétá to ^onéyet mјn ^onáxom 'I won't eat until you come'

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

^oštékánim ^oda na 'I put my things down.' ^oda niše 'Sit down.'

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

However, it may be stressed for special emphasis:

éger ^obízani, pem ^obíe 'If you do know, tell me.'

da ^obíniším '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:

$\overset{3}{-} \quad -2$ hícyan	$\overline{\text{hícyan}}$	'Neither of them?' (question)
$\overset{3}{-} \quad -1$ hícyan	$\overline{\text{hícyan}}$	'Neither of them.' (affirmation)
$\overset{2}{-} \quad -3$ hícyan	$\overline{\text{hícyan}}$	'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 $\overset{3}{-} \quad -1$ /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

$\overset{2}{-} \overset{3}{-} \overset{1}{-}$ $\overline{\text{?eykem}}$ '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 /3- -1/ and /2- -3/, which begin with stressed pitches, are called contours. The sequence /2- 3- -1/ contains a contour, /3- -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 $/kɔ̄n/$ 'How?', or over an utterance of a number of syllables; e.g.:

$\overset{2}{\text{f}}\overset{3}{\text{e}}\overset{1}{\text{smke}}\overset{2}{\text{šek}}\overset{3}{\text{ém}}$ $\overset{3}{\text{ná}}\overset{1}{\text{henaw}}\overset{1}{\text{bú}}$ '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 /3/ (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 /2/, 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., /3- -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:

$\overset{3}{\text{z}}\overset{1}{\text{cme}}\overset{3}{\text{má}}\overset{1}{\text{ewe}} (= \overset{3}{\text{z}}\overset{1}{\text{cme}}\overset{2}{\text{má}}\overset{2}{\text{ewe}})$ 'I'm going home.'

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

$\overset{2}{\text{ná}}\overset{3}{\text{wi}}\overset{3}{\text{c}}\overset{1}{\text{ye}}$ 'What is his name?'

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

2- 3--2
to məgašxóri 'Are you employed?'

(/məgašxóri/ = '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

2- 3--2
naw cíbu 'What was the name?' ('What did you say the name was?')

b) a question expressing surprise or incredulity, as

2- 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

3-2 3-2
cóni cákí škér 'How are you - well, I hope?'
3-2 3-1
bóle 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:

2- 2-3
be gáltá 'No kidding?'

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

2-3
wá 'Like this?'

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

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

2-3 wá 'Like this?' compared with 3-2 wábu 'Was it like this?'

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

$\acute{2} \text{--} 3 \acute{3} \text{--} 1$ náwít cíye 'What is your name?'

2) Rising to {,}: {,} may embrace not only the contour /2- -3/ but also the contour /1- -2/; 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 where in the speaker wishes to affirm that he is attentive to the conversation, and wishes the other person to continue—rather, complete his say:

$\acute{1} \text{--} 2 \acute{1} \text{--} 2$ bále bále 'Yes, yes...' (Go on - I'm listening)

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

$\acute{1} \text{--} 3$ txwá 'Indeed?!"

(c) Level contours denote intensity. Compare

$\acute{3} \text{--} 1$ dá nišé 'Sit down!' and $\acute{3} \text{--} 2$ dá nišé '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:

$\acute{3} \text{--} 3 \acute{3} \text{--} 2$ méká tówé 'Don't do that, you!' (méká = '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).

¹These 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 Ci / Vy, 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 e/ 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 /šaí/ '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 + i > wi; ?ədru- + ítəwə > ?ədrwítəwə	'you reap'
i + u	
i + ú	no occurrence noted
i + i > i; di- 'saw' + -i '3rd sing.' > dí	'he saw'

(b) Mid: V + V > VyV

ə + ə > əyə; əsteré 'star' + -ə 'is' > əsteréyə 'It is a star.'

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

e + ə: (1) eye: 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 > aya; cirá 'light' + -án (plural) cirayán 'lights'

(2) Vowels of different heights:

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

mid + high: ?ə + i + -ká- + -it > ?əykáy 'you make it.'

?əxó- + -in > ?əxóy '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 > VyV, as

i + ə > iyə: ni- 'not' + -ə 'is' > niyə '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 > VyV, as

e + a > eya; hérnē 'pear' + -án > hérnayán 'pears'

o + a > oya; héló 'eagle' + -án > héloyán 'eagles'

However, ə + a > a, as ktebéká 'the book' + -án > ktebekán
'the books';

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

?əxo- 'eat' + -at > ?əxwát 'he eats'

(d) Low + Mid: a + ə > aye; əm...é 'this' + lá 'side' əmlayé
'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 > *biixó > bixó 'Eat it!' (bixó = 'Eat!')

?ənú- 'sleep' + -im '1st sing.' > ?ənúm '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, CiCV ~ CCV

žin 'woman' + -án > (D) žinán ~ (N) žnán 'women'
 báwkít 'your father' + -im di > báwktim di 'I saw your
 father'

?écmi 'I go' + -e 'to' > ?écmə 'I go to'

However, a stressed /i/ is not syncopated, as
 hi 'the one of' + min 'I' + -e > hi míne '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 -e, as bé 'to,' lé 'in, from,' elide their vowel before words beginning in a vowel, as

bé + ew 'him' > bew 'to him'

lé + ewé 'there' > lewé 'there, in that place'

lé + ére 'here' > lérə '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) bičúk ~ *bcúk > (N) pcúk 'little' (b ~ p)

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

xóš 'nice' + -bu 'was' > xóžbu 'It was nice'

(š ~ ž)

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

(3) Utterance-final: sígim ?acé '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) ūsmečký 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) cenřáw ~ (N) cendřáw 'sown'
 (D) dřenřáw ~ (N) dřendřáw '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) ūžhəlát ~ (N) ūžəlát 'sunrise; east'
 (N) náhat ~ (R) nát 'he didn't come'
 (D) bihéne ~ (N) bénə '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) déstít ~ (R) déstí 'your hand'
 (D) ?ecét ~ (N) ?ecé '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) ?édóm ~ (N) ?eíóm 'I give'
 (N) béd ~ (R) béi '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 ~ péŋ 'pun, trick'
 céndit ?ewé ~ céŋit ?ewé 'How much do you want?'
 mandú ~ maŋú 'tired'

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

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

bəndəxwén ~ bənəxwén 'belt-cord'

əfəndí ~ əfəní 'gentleman'

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¹ 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. Introductory¹

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', /dé/ 'ten'; it can be a compound of two or more free morphemes, as /cwardé/ '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 /diłxóšim/ 'I am happy' (Adíł/ '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

¹The 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, /hémú ~ hémú/ '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 + zjstán 'winter' > lə zjstánda 'in winter'.

form preceded and followed by a hyphen is an infix 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 infix 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 infixes 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 Inflection¹

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.

¹Wahby 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'	:	kicəké	'the girl'
cirá	'light'	:	ciraké	'the light'
ktébit	'your book'	:	ktebékét	'your book'
	= a book of yours			= that book of yours
kér	'donkey'	:	(D) kérá	'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'
hérme	'pear'	:	hérmeýek	'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'
bérú	:	bérwán	'oak trees'
cirá	:	cirayán	'lights'
texté	:	textán	'boards'
hérme	:	hérmeýán	'pears'

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

dé	:	dehát	'villages'
sewzé	:	sewzəwát	'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 /Cek-|Vk-/).

máí	'house'	:	małán	'houses'
małeké	'the house'	:	małekán	'the houses'

The uninflected singular noun may be used in a generic sense, as
pšilé góšt ?əxwá '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':

šéw	'night'	:	šewé	'in the night, last night'
šár	'city'	:	šaré	'in the city'

3.122. Vocative. Singular nouns may receive the vocative suffix /Ce|Vwe/ for single referent and /-ine/ for plural referent, indicating direct address.

kér	'boy'	:	kérə	'hey, boy!'
kér	'donkey'	:	kérə	'you ass!'
héro	(girl's name)	:	hérowə	'Hero!'
xélk	'people'	:	xélkine	'People!'

3.13. Noun with Pronominal Suffixes

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

náw	'name'	brá	'brother'
náwim	'my name'	brám	'my brother'
náwit	'your name'	brát	'your brother'
náwi	'his name'	bráy	'his brother'
náwman	'our name'	bráman	'our brother'
náwtan	'your name'	brátan	'your brother'
náwyán	'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 hatíñim bó érə 'after my coming here'

(2) goal:

miwánek hár bó biníñim '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
máł	-eké	-án	-im
	-ek		(-im)

Thus, every noun is based on a stem, as /máł/ '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, /máł małeké małekán małekáñim małekém małán małánim małim mátek/. For /máłekim/ 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 /Cəká/Vké/ and the indefinite /Cek/Vyek/.

cák	'good'	:	cakəké	'the good one'
			cakəkán	'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 (/əká/ has the alternate form /ək-/ before the plural suffix):

cakán	'good ones'	:	cakəké	'the good one'
			cakəkán	'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.

baš	'good'	:	baštír	'better'
gəwré	'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.

baš	'good'	:	baštín	'best'
gəwré	'big'	:	gəwrətín	'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: cakəkánim 'my good ones'

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

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

Compare zúwé 'It's early'

bésté 'it's enough for you' (bés 'enough' + t '2nd sing.' + -e '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.

3.3.1. Pronoun Inflection

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

3.3.1.2. 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'	éme 'we, us'
2nd person	tó 'you'	éwé 'you'
3rd person	éw 'he, him, she, her, it'	éwán 'they, them'

3.3.2. Pronoun Subclasses

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

3.3.3. 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.

3.3.4. Pronoun Diagram

The following diagram shows the possible word structures for pronouns:

<u>stem</u>	<u>vocative</u>
to	-we

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 Vn
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 ommissible: 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 /²ə-/;¹ 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

¹ The prefix /²ə-/ 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 /dəxəm/ 'I eat'.

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

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:	<i>?ə-xó-m</i>	'I eat'
(Imperative Mood :	<i>bi-xó</i>	'Eat!')

Past Stem: *xward-* 'ate'

Preterite Tense:	<i>xwárd-im</i>	'I ate'
Imperfect Tense:	<i>?ə-m-xwárd</i>	'I was eating'
(Past Participle:	<i>xward-ú</i>	'having eaten'
Present Perfect:	<i>xward-ú-m-ə</i>	'I have eaten'
Past Perfect:	<i>xwárd-ibu-m</i>	'I had eaten'

¹Since 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 incompletive-present, completive-preterite, incompletive-imperfect, completive-present perfect, and completive-past perfect.

(1) Verb Stems.¹ 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'
	šelí- : šel-		'to be lame'
	bíní- ~ dí- : bin-		'to see'
	gəzí- : gəz-		'to bite'
	zaní- : zan-		'to know'
	dízí- : díz-		'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		
	gəřá- : gəře- gəř-		'to walk'
	gerá- : gere- ger-		'to relate'
	bra- : bře- 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)		
	dá- : də- d-		'to give'

¹Verbs 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)

férmiú-	:	férmu-	'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)

hé...bu	:	hé...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 /hém̥bu/ 'I had'; /hémə/ 'I have'; 3rd sing. is /héyeti/ '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
génjbum 'I was young'
trumpélbu '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 /i/, where the suffix is /-wə/.

sérbázim	'I am a soldier.'	
tó kéyt	'Who are you?' (ké = 'who?')	
bášə	'It's good.'	
žínyeti	'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':

émeš héyñ 'We also are (exist)' (-š = 'also')

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

sátek-i-tír lé bəgá? əbím '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 /?əšóm/ 'I wash' and /šw/ in /?əšwát/ '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'

wat-: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-:kew- '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-:pałew- 'to filter' (3)

ənd ~ en : sənd-: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 ~ e	:	kird-:kə-[k- 'to do, make'	(1)
ist ~ yə	:	bist-:byə-[by- 'to hear'	(1)
ist ~ e	:	xist-:xə-[x- 'to pull'	(1)
əst ~ u	:	nəst-:nu-[nw- 'to sleep'	(1)
ušt ~ o	:	šušt-: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

əšt ~ už	:	kušt-:kuž- 'to kill'	(1)
ast ~ ez	:	parast-:parez- 'to protect'	(?)
išt ~ ež	:	řišt-:řež- '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	:	řoyšt-~řo-:řo-[řw- 'to go'	(1)
eyšt ~ e	:	gøyšt-: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 incomplete aspect prefix /?ə-/ 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 /há...bu:há...Ce|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 /?ə-/ and the stem in the present tense: /w̥istim/ 'I wanted' and /?əməw̥é/ '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'

?əxóm	'I eat'
?əxóyt	'you eat'
?əxwát	'he eats'
?əxóyn	'we eat'
?əxón	'you eat'
?əxón	'they eat'

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

yem	'I come'
yeyt	'you come'
yet	'he comes'
yeyn	'we come'
yen	'you come'
yen	'they come'

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

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 /f̥o-|f̥w-/, can be stated morphophonemically as /a + a > a/, /o+a > wa/, and /e+e > e/ (see 2.311). Thus,

zani-:zani-	-	?əzánét	'he knows'
řoyšt-:řo-	-	?əřwát	'he goes'
kird-:kə	-	?ekát	'he does'
hat-:ye-	-	yét	'he comes'

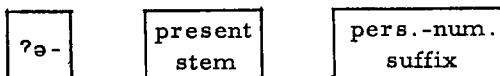
The /t/ of the 2nd and 3rd singular is ommissible: it is generally indicated in written Kurdish, but is usually omitted in speech, except that it is always pronounced when the form receives a suffix, as

kurdí ?əzání ~ kurdí ?əzánít 'Do you know Kurdish?'

?əcé 'He goes.' but ?əcétəwa '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:

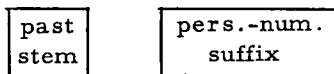


(3) The Preterite Tense. The preterite tense is formed of the past stem plus the person-number suffixes as described in 3.411: transitive verbs take the pronominal suffixes and intransitive verbs take the verbal suffixes with zero suffix in the 3rd singular. The transitive is of completive aspect, never taking the aspect prefix /?ə-/ . 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 /dénjít cū bo əmérke/ 'Your voice will go [lit., 'went'] to America.' The following paradigms are in the active indicative:

kwárdim	'I ate'	hátim	'I came'
kwárdi(t)	'you ate'	háti(t)	'you came'
kwárdi	'he ate'	hát	'he came'
kwárdman	'we ate'	hátin	'we came'
kwárdman	'you ate'	hátin	'you came'
kwárdyan	'they ate'	hátin	'they came'

The formation of the preterite tense is diagrammed as follows:



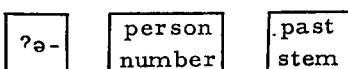
(4) The Imperfect Tense. The imperfect always takes the aspect prefix /?ə-/ placed before the stem. It occurs only in the indicative mood, but may occur in either voice. It formally shows transitivity in two ways: the person-number suffixes are different for transitive and intransitive verbs, and the 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 /éginé ?əxinkáy/ 'otherwise you would have drowned.'

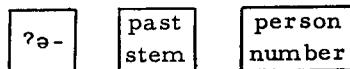
?əmxwárd	'I was eating'	?əhátim	'I was coming'
?ətxwárd	'you were eating'	?əháti(t)	'you were coming'
?əyxwárd	'he was eating'	?əhát	'he was coming'
?əmanxwárd	'we were eating'	?əhátin	'we were coming'
?ətanxwárd	'you were eating'	?əhátin	'you were coming'
?əyanxwárd	'they were eating'	?əhátin	'they 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'	xwardú	'eaten, having eaten'
hát-	'came'	hatú	'having come'
?awsá-	'swelled up'	?awsáw	'swollen, pregnant'
wéstá-	'stood up'	wéstaw	'having stood, standing'
kírd-	'did, made'	kírdú	'having done'
kéšt-	'killed'	kéštú	'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: /?ewéstim/ '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'
ségt dέbu 'it was ten o'clock'	:	ségt dέbuə?	'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:

past
stem

-ú-

person
number

-ə

Intransitive verbs:

past
stem

-ú-

person
number

(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 compleptive 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'	háti ^{um}	'I had come'
xwárdibut	'you had eaten'	háti ^{uyt}	'you had come'
xwárdibuy	'he had eaten'	háti ^{bu}	'he had come'
xwárdibuman	'we had eaten'	háti ^{buyn}	'we had come'
xwárdibutan	'you had eaten'	háti ^{bu}	'you had come'
xwárdibuyan	'they had eaten'	háti ^{bu}	'they had come'

The past perfect tense is diagrammed as follows:

past
stem

-ibu-

person
number

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 /'ə-/ 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 /'əcim/ 'I('ll) go'. Subjunctive names an "unreal" type of action; specifically, it may be deliberative, as /bicim/ 'shall I go?', or factitive (indirect command), as /bicé/ 'make him go!'. The imperative expresses a direct command, as /bicó/ '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 /'ə-/ 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 /ná-/ in the present tense and by /ná-/ 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	?əxóm	yém
Preterite	xwárdim	hátm̩
Imperfect	?əxwárd	?əhátm̩
Pres. Perf.	xwardúm̩	hatúm̩
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 /ná-/ 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 /fóyšt̩ibet/ '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 qəzábit/ 'God protect you' (lit., 'may you be without misfortune'), or a condition contrary to fact, as in /əwbərd̩s bá tóyanə bimałiyaye ?əbúyt bá cwarpé/ 'If they had thrown

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

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:

biC bV	present stem	person number
bi-	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			
bi-	pers. num.	past stem	-ayə ~ -bayə	bi-	past stem	pers. num.	-ayə ~ -bayə
bi-	-m-	xward	-ayə	bi-	hat-	-m-	-ayə
= 'had I eaten'							
bimxwárdayə				bihátmayə ¹			
bitxwárdayə				bihátitayə			
bixwárdayə ¹				bihátayə			
bimanxwárdayə				bihátinayə			
bitanxwárdayə				bihátnayə			
biyanxwárdayə				bihátnayə			

Present Perfect Subjunctive:

past stem	-ib-	person number

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

xward-	-ib-	-im = xwárdibim ¹	'I might have eaten'
hat-	-ib-	-im = hátibim	'I might have come'
xwárdibim			háti bim
xwárdibit			háti bit
xwárdibet			háti bet
xwárdibin			háti bin
xwárdibin			háti bin
xwárdibin			háti bin

Past Perfect Subjunctive:

Transitive Verbs				Intransitive Verbs			
bi-	pers. num.	past stem	-ib <u>u</u> -ayə	past stem	-ib <u>u</u> -	pers. num.	-ayə
bi-	-m-	xward	-ib <u>u</u> ways	hat-	-ib <u>u</u> -	-m-	-ayə
= 'I would have eaten'							= 'I would have come'
bimxwárdibwayə ¹							háti bumayə
bitxwárdibwayə							háti buytayə
bixwárdibwayə							háti bwayə
bimanxwárdibwayə							háti buynayə
bitanxwárdibwayə							háti unayə
biyanxwárdibwayə							háti unayə

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 /bi-/ is usually omitted, as

ágər ləwébim 'if I am there'

béšku búbe 'he might have been'

(3) Imperative Mood. The imperative is formed on the present stem, which receives the prefix /biC|bV/ and a suffix for number: /Cə|VØ/ for the singular and /Cin|Vn/ for the plural. The /i/ of /bi-/ is often omitted, as (D)/biłé ~ (N)błe/ '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'	bixó (bixón)	'eat!'
férmu-:férmu-	'to honor'	férmu (férmun)	'Please!' (polite request, usually without bi-)

¹ 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/.

wet-:le- t-	'to say'	biłé	(biłén)	'say!'
kird-:kə- k-	'to do, make'	biké	(bikán)	'do!'
žia-:ži- ž-	'to live'	biží	(bižín)	'(long) live!'
da:də- d-	'to give'	bidé	(bidén)	'give!'
hena-:hen-	'to bring'	bihéne (bihénən)	'bring!'	(contracted to bénə(n): see 2.323 and 2.312)
girt-:gr-	'to take'	bigré (bigráñ)	'take!'	

The following verbs have irregular imperative stems:

hat-:ye- y-	'to come'	wér-	: wérə (wérən)	'come'
cu:c-	'to go'	co-	: bicó (bicón)	'go!'
-bu:-Cim;hə-;-b-	'to be'	b-	: bibé (bibín)	'be!'
hə...bu:hə...Cə Vyə	'to have'		: hə...be:hə...bin	- in the imperative of this verb, the pronominal suffixes, here expressing person and number of the possessor, are infixated after /hə-/; the suffixed forms /-be/ and /bin/ of this imperative form indicate that that which is possessed is 3rd singular or 3rd plural respectively, as
hétbe			'Have (sg) it!'	
hétánbe			'Have (pl) it!'	
hétbin			'Have (sg) them!'	
hétánbin			'Have (pl) them!'	

The prefix /biC|bV/ is usually omitted in speech, especially before voiceless consonants, as

lá co	'Go away!'
pří ka	'Fill it up!' (pří = 'full')
pyaw-i-cákba	'Be a good man!' (pyaw-i-cák = 'good man')

3.416. Voice. All forms cited so far are in the active voice. Transitive verbs show also a passive voice in all tenses and all moods. The passive infinitive occurs only in the written language. Passive forms are derived from the present stem of the verb: to this are affixed, in the following sequence, the passive characteristic /r/, the thematic vowel (/a/ for past tenses and /e/ for the present stem), and the verbal suffixes of 3.411. In the following diagram of passive forms, parentheses indicate features which may or may not occur, depending on the particular tense and mood:

(?ə-)	pres.	r	á	pers.	(tense
(bi-)	stem		é	num.	signs)

While only transitive verbs receive passive inflections, these inflections themselves are exclusively those that intransitive verbs regularly take. And while passive forms are regularly based on the present stem of the verb in question, the passive form itself may

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- - ?ekežré 'I am killed'

Past Passive: kužrá- - kežrá '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-:le- f- 'to say'	watr- - ?ewatré 'it is said'
bist-:bye- by- 'to hear'	bistr- - bistráwé 'it has been heard'
wist-:awé(t) 'to want'	wistr- - wistrá 'it was wanted'

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

bird-:bə- b-	'to carry'	br-
kird-: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

?əhenim 'I bring' : ?əhenré '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:Indicative

?əxurém	'I am eaten,
?əxuréyt	I am pestered
?əxurét	to death'
?əxuréyn	
?əxurén	
?əxurén	

Subjunctive

bixurém	'that I be eaten'
bixuréyt	
bixurét	
bixuréyn	
bixurén	
bixurén	

Preterite Tense:

xurám	'I was eaten'
xuráyt	
xurá	
xuráyn	
xurán	
xurán	

bixurámaye	'had I been eaten'
bixuráytaye	
bixuráyə	
bixuráynayə	
bixuránayə	
bixuránayə	

Present Perfect Indicative:

xuráwim	'I have been
xuráwit	eaten
xuráwə	
xuráwin	
xuráwin	
xuráwin	

Past Perfect Indicative:

xurábum	'I had been eaten'
xurábuyt	
xurábu	
xurábuyn	
xurábun	
xurábun	

Imperfect Indicative:

?əxurám	'I was being
?əxuráyt	eaten'
?əxurá	
?əxuráyn	
?əxurán	
?əxurán	

Imperative:

bixuré	'be eaten!' (sg)
bixurén	'be eaten!' (pl)

Past Participle:

xuráw	'having been eaten'
-------	---------------------

(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 /?ənáse(t)/ 'he knows, is acquainted with', from /nási-:nas-/ 'to know':

Indicative Mood:

?əmnáse	'he knows me'	bimnáse	'let him know me'
?ətnáse	'he knows you'	bitnáse	'let him know you'
?əynáse	'he knows him'	bináse	'let him know him'
?əmannáse	'he knows us'	bimannáse	'let him know us'
?ətannáse	'he knows you'	bitannáse	'let him know you'
?əyannáse	'he knows them'	biyannáse	'let him know them'

Imperative Mood: bimnáse '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

?eykéšt	'he was killing'	:	?eykéštím	'he was killing me'
?eykéštít	'he was killing you (sg)'			
?eykéštín	'he was killing us'			
?əmankéšt	'we were killing (him)'			
?əmankéštít	'we were killing you (sg)'			
?ətankéštín	'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:

binímít	'I saw you (sg)'	biníyanin	'they saw us'
binítím	'you (sg) saw me'	binítin	'you (sg) saw us'
binímanín	'we saw you (pl); we saw them'	binímanít	'we saw you (sg)'
binítanín	'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)'

biníni¹ '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'

binímin '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:

xwardúme 'I have eaten' : xwardúmin 'I have eaten you (pl)'²
I have eaten them'

xwardútana 'you (pl) have eaten' : xwardútanin 'you (pl) have eaten us'

Past Perfect:

xwárdíbum 'I had eaten' : xwárdíbumi 'he had eaten me'
xwárdíbumit 'I had eaten you (sg)'
xwárdíbutanin 'you (pl) had eaten us'

3.422. Negation. The negative prefixes are /ná-/ , /né-/ , /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 /?ə-/ of the indicative mood and /né-/ is in opposition to the /bi-/ of the subjunctive; and in the imperative, /má-/ is in opposition to /bi-/ . Thus:

Present Tense:

Indicative: ?exóm 'I eat' yém 'I come'
náxom 'I do not eat' náyem 'I do not come'

Subjunctive: bixóm 'shall I eat?' bém 'shall I come?'
náxom 'shall I not eat?' náyem 'shall I not come?'

Imperative: bixó 'eat!' wérə 'come!'
máxo 'do not eat!' méye '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 /wér-/

The prefix /ní-/ occurs only in the present tense and with two verbs: (1) the present negative of /-bu-:Cim|Vm;hə-b-/ 'to be' is /ní-/ plus the verbal suffixes with /-ə/ in the 3rd singular, as /ním/ 'am not'; /níye/

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

² That is, 'I have pestered you to death,' etc.

'is not'; and (2) the present negative of /hé...bu:hé...Cə|Vyə/ 'to have' is /hi-/ 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 /nímə/ 'I do not have', /níyeti/ 'he does not have'.

In all tenses other than the present, the negative prefix is exclusively /né-/. /né-/ is in opposition to the /bi-/ of the subjunctive, but not to /?ə/, 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	né-	pers. num.	?ə-	past stem	-ibu-	u	-ə	illustrations 1st sing. ind.
pret.	x	x		x				némxward 'I didn't eat'
impf.	x	x	x	x				ném?əxward 'I wasn't eating'
pres.pf.	x	x		x		x	x	némxwardwe 'I haven't eaten'
pastpf.	x	x		x	x			némxwardibu 'I hadn't eaten'

Intransitive Verbs:

tense	né-	?ə-	past stem	-ibu-	-u-	pers. num.	illustrations 1st sing. ind.
pret.	x		x			x	néhatim 'I didn't come'
impf.	x	x	x			x	né?əhatim 'I wasn't coming'
pres.pf.	x		x		x	x	néhatum 'I haven't come'
pastpf.	x		x	x		x	néhatibum '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		transitivity	mood		voice		pron. goal	negation né ná má
			inc.	cpl.		ind.	sub.	act.	pas.		
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								x	x		x x
part											

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!’
béle (more formal); á, bá, éy (less formal); ére, ərewéllə (emphatic)	‘yes’
círyd	‘cheerio!’ (a toast)
dé, déy	(asseverative, occurring only with verbs, as in/dé břo/ ‘go on!’)
emán	‘alas; woe’
há	‘aha!’ (triumph)
mérhəbe	‘hello’
né?; néxer (emphatic)	‘no’
nós	‘here’s to you’ (a toast)
oxéy	‘ah!’ (delight)
txwá ~ tuxwá	‘indeed!’ (surprise)
xó	‘I say!’ (accosting)
yéle	‘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:

bélam ‘but’:

bélam názaním kéyt ‘But I don’t know who you are.’

bélkü (a) with present tense and especially with the preterite this means future possibility: ‘might’:

bélkü ámšew barí ‘It might rain tonight’ (barí = ‘it rained’)

(b) ‘but’ (in contradiction to previous statement):

éme spí níə, bélkü ūšə ‘This is not white, but black.’

cúŋkə ~ cúŋki ‘because’:

cúŋkə hícim náwe ‘Because I don’t want anything.’

éginə ‘otherwise’:

éginə ?əxinkáy ‘Otherwise you would have drowned.’

ké (a) ‘when’:

ké gónjbum cúmə bəgá ‘When I was young I went to Baghdad.’

(b) ‘if’ (with preterite tense in same clause):

ké kícimbu nəsrín pé ?əlém ‘If I have a daughter, I’ll call her Nasrín.’

(c) 'that':

está kə f̄šim zōrə... 'Now that I have a lot of work...'
tənānət 'well, then' (to resume topic after interruption):

tənānət ?əlén bo əwé-i-paš mirdıniš xélk pé bïkənín, ūy spardúə kə... 'Well, then, they say that, in order for people to laugh at him even after his death, he requested that...'

wé ~ Cu|Vw 'and' (wé occurs in a more formal form of speech):
xóy amadé ?eká wé jíl-i-pak lèbér ?eká 'He gets himself ready and puts on clean clothes.'

ž̄niš hýyəw žaniš hýyə 'There is also woman and there is also pain.' (Proverb) i.e., women can be a pain.

wék 'as'

wék ?əlén, kurd zirékin 'As they say, the Kurds are clever.'

(2) Conjunctions followed only by verb in subjunctive:

bá 'let, have' (indirect command):

bá b̄royn 'Let's go!'

bá bet 'Have him come.'

báškim 'maybe (so), probably'

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

éger 'if'

éger n̄étwaním, cí pkém 'If I'm not able to, what shall I do?'

hétá ~ tá ~ hétáku

(a) 'until':

hétá bímr̄im 'until I die'

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

górm hétá qúlbe méléy xóšə bó īnsan 'The deeper a lake is the better swimming it is.' (lit., 'lake as-far-as it-be-deep its-swimming is-good for man')

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

š̄ewán-i-tír, ləpaž nō, káz nábinít lə dərəwə - mágér sinemá n̄ebet 'On other nights, after nine, you won't see anybody outdoors - unless it's at the movies.'

řéyə 'maybe' (uncertain possibility):

řéyə bíkrim 'Maybe I'll buy it [and maybe not].'

xóžgə 'would that':

xóžgə hémü š̄ew ūamazánbwaya '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 ~ céj ~ céñ	‘how much? how many?’
kám	‘which?’
ké	‘who? whom?’
kwé ~ kwá	‘where?’

(2) Those never occurring as subject or object:

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

The interrogatives /kwé ~ kwá/, /kám/, and /bóci ~ 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

kwé̄t əyešé '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

bocíté (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:

yék	'1'	šest	'6'	yanzé ~ yanzdá	'11'
dú	'2'	həwt	'7'	dwanzé	'12'
sé	'3'	həšt	'8'	seanzé	'13'
cwár	'4'	nó	'9'	cwardá	'14'
pénj	'5'	dé	'10'	panzé	'15'

šanzé	'16'	sí	'30'	həšta	'80'
həvvé ~ həvdé	'17'	cíl	'40'	nəwéd	'90'
həždé	'18'	pənjá	'50'	şád	'100'
nozdé	'19'	şəst	'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 /dé/, only /cwardé/ shows this origin without modification. /həvvé ~ həvdé/ and /həždé/ show morphophonemic changes, /ho-z-dé/ 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 /cwardé, 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|Vw/ 'and' after each numeral except the last, as

sédu bístu dú '122'

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

bíst həzár '20,000'
dwanzé pənjá 'twelve 50's'

Some examples of compound numerals are:

síw sé	'33'	sédu nəwédu yék	'191'
cílu pénj	'45'	hé sé sédu šəst	'360'
həzárú no sédu pənjáw cwár	'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 báwkim/ 'to my father' and /péy/ 'to him'. Included among prepositions too is the postposition /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':
 həwlerí ba mríšik náwere 'An Erbilite doesn't dare against a chicken' (Proverb) (i.e., he's very cowardly)

báy 'for the price of':
 émə bay cónə 'How much does this cost?'

bé ~ bəbə 'without':
 bə gáql 'without intelligence, stupid'
 bə|pe (1) 'to' after expressions of discourse, giving, etc.:
 bə qadír ?əkém: cóni 'I say to Qadir, "How are you?"'
 (2) 'with' (means) (-əwə)
 bə aw-i-sard ríšit bitáše 'Shave with cold water!'
 (3) 'in' (with name of language):
 bə kurdí 'in Kurdish'
 (4) 'during'
 bə šéw 'at night, by night'
 (5) (adjectival expression):
 bə quwéť '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':
 ?eydém bo tó 'I'll give it to you.'
 (2) 'intended for, as':
 bo jwaní 'as an ornament'
 (3) 'to' (əwə):
 ?əcím bo bazár(əwə) 'I'm going to the market.'

dwáy 'after' (time)
 dwáy du səgáť '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

?écmə bazárewə 'I'm going to the bazaar.'

bigré kerkúk 'Arrive at Kirkuk!' (bigré = 'arrive!')

hétá 'up to, as far as'

hétá kerkúk ūyá kírd 'He fled as far as Kirkuk.'

lə|le (1) 'in, at' (-da ~ -ta ~ -a)

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

(2) 'from' (-əwə)

lə žúrékewə 'from the room'

paš 'after' (time, place)

paž niwəřč 'after noon'

peš 'before' (time, place)

pež niwəřč 'before noon'

wáku 'like'

wéku émə 'like this'

3.552. Compound Prepositions. Compound prepositions are composed of /lə/ or /bə/ plus a noun, usually monosyllabic, or another particle, as /lə náw/ (noun) 'inside,' /lə páš/ (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/.

bəsér (oaths) (sár = 'head'):

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

ləbér (bér = 'front')

(1) 'because of':

ləbér émə 'because of this, therefore'

(2) 'on one's person'

ləbérí ?éká 'He puts it on, wears it'

(3) 'within oneself' (əwə)

ləbér xóyəwə wáti 'He said to himself'

ləbín 'beneath' (bin = 'bottom')

ləbin trumpeleké 'beneath the car'

ləgəl 'with' (accompaniment) (da ~ a)

mín ləgəl 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

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

ləgəl mínyeti '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'

ləlá...əwə 'beside'

ləlátəwə 'at your side, next to you'

lənáw 'inside' (-da)

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

ləpáš 'after' (da)

ləpaž nō 'after 9 o'clock'

ləpéš 'before' (-da)

ləpež nō 'before 9 o'clock'

ləsár 'on top of'

ləsár małeké 'on the house'

ləžér 'under'

ləžér uteléké 'under the hotel'

wéku 'like'

wéku 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 hâtin bo mał-i-éme/ 'Later, two men came to our house'. Adverbs of place can, like nouns, be the subject of the verb, as /érem pe xóšə/ 'I like it here' (lit., 'here is pleasant to me'), or the object of a preposition, as /køy 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 /gále kəs/ 'a lot of people', or can modify the verb, as /zor əgəřé/ '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:

dəmdəm	'from time to time'	ımsał	'this year'
dərhál	'immediately'	ımšəw	'tonight'
dúsbəy	'day after tomorrow'	pár	'last year'
dwaí	'later'	perár	'year before last'
dwéne	'yesterday'	pašəřóž	'in the future'
está	'now'	sbéy ~ səbháyne	'tomorrow'
héšta	'still, yet'	yəksér	'straight,'
ımřo ~ ımró	'today'		'immediately'

Manner:

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

(2) Place:

erə	'here'	əwé	'there'
-----	--------	-----	---------

(3) Quantity:

cénd ~ cén	'a few'	hér	'only'
gélé(k)	'a great deal of'	híc	'no'
hémí ~ hémí	'each, every'	náxte(k)	'a little of'
hénde(k)	'a little of'	zóř	'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:

Cewə|Vrəwə This has two meanings: 'back to place of origin,'
 as bom bídš 'Give it to me!'
 and bom bídšrəwə 'Give it back to me!'
 The second meaning is 'again and again', describing a repeated action, as

pak ɿékám 'I clean, peel (fruit)'
 and pak ɿékáməwə '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 ɿédám 'I give'
 and ɿédáme '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 *?ətdéme) 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'
hél 'up'	'throw (a thing) up'	'rise, shine'
lé 'from'	'hit, touch play (music)'	'to do to, do with'	'cook, pre- pare food'
ləbér 'on'	'put on, wear'
pé 'to'	'give to'
pék 'together'	'collide'	'be recon- ciled with'
pewə '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 /éme ciyə/ '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 /əmpiyawé/ 'this man'.

éme	'this'	éwə	'that'
əm...Cé Vyə	'this'	əw...Cé 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.

ké 'who, which, that, that which, etc.'

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.¹ 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 /dəmdəm/ 'from time to time' from /dəm/ 'period of time, while,' or it may strengthen the meaning of the underlying word, as in /pələpəl/ 'great haste' from /pələ/ 'haste'. Reduplicated forms based on words of the pattern /CVCə/ show loss of the second /-ə/, as in /gizəgiz/ from /gizə/.

dəmdəm	'from time to time'	< dəm	'period of time, while'
pecpéc	'zigzag'	< péc	'curve'
xi̠ixi̠łoké	'top' (that spins)	< xi̠ł	'a spinning' (/ -oké/ = diminutive suffix)
pələpəl	'great haste'	< pələ	'haste'
gizəgiz kirdin	'to complain'	< gizə	(the buzzing of a bullet)

¹ 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 /-im/ giving /xwárdim/ 'I ate' (as opposed to 'you', 'he', or anyone else), but word derivation is illustrated when the past stem receives the suffix /in/ to derive the noun (infinitive) /xwardín/ 'to eat'.

4.211. Noun Compounds

(1) Noun + Noun (AS):

tir.biržán	'beautiful person'	(lit., 'arrow eyelashes')
mar.masí	'eel'	('snake fish')
niweřo.xéw	'noon nap'	('noon dream')
zir.brá	'step-brother'	('tree-stump brother')
golət.yarí	'a bad move or play'	('mistake play', in backgammon)
sér.bán	'roof'	('head plateau')
la.dé	'countryside, country'	('side village')
kér.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:

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

Vowel stem with agent suffix *-r*:

səg.šér	'dog washer'	('dog wash-er')
	(professional)	(šo- = 'wash')
məgaš.xér	'employee'	('salary eat-er')
		(xo- = 'eat')
fér.řaxér	'one who spreads carpets' (as profession)	(řa xist-:xə- x- = 'to spread out')

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

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

(b) present passive stem:

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

(c) past stem:

řož.héłát	'sunrise, east'	(sun arose': héł hat = 'he, it arose, came up')
(pro řož.héłhát)		

(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):

dił.téj	'grieved'	('heart tight')
sér.spi	'hoary'	('head white')
dił.škáw	'heartbroken'	
qse.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 /pirémérd/ 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 /snoq-řešeká/ 'the black-box', rather than referring to it in the more usual way as /snoq-i-řešeká/ 'the black box'. Some emphatic compounds, however, like /řešebá/ '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 /ewřožexošanéš/ '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.ság	'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):

bizin.ə.kewí	'mountain goat'	('goat + mountain')
snoq.ə.řešeké	'the black box'	('box + black the')
xošk.ə.gewré	'elder sister'	('sister + big')
qəl.ə.řeš	'Negro'	('Negro + black')

(3) Adjective + Noun (AS):

řeš.ə.bá	'black wind'	('black + wind')
pir.ə.mérd	'old man'	('old + man')
pir.ə.žin	'old woman'	('old + woman')

(4) Noun + Verb Stem (SS):

šir.ə.xó	'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.šušé '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 nádiwé '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:

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

(2) Adjective + Adjective (= Adjective):

řast.u.céwt '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)
 xwardubírd níyə 'No eating or plucking'

(5) Verb Stem + Negation + Verb Stem (= Noun):

xo.né.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) -ayéti (abstraction: state or condition):
 xizmayéti 'relationship' < xizím 'relative'
- 2) -báz 'one who is fond of'
 səgbáz 'dog fancier' < ség 'dog'

pulbáz	'spendthrift'	< púl	'money'
hətiwbáz	'homosexual'	< hətíw	'orphan'
nəktəbáz	'comedian'	< nəkté	'joke'
3) -cí 'one who works with':			
wutucí	'launderer'	< wutú	'iron'
boyagcí	'bootblack'	< boyág	'shoe shine'
4) -dán 'receptacle':			
šekirdán	'sugar bowl'	< šekír	'sugar'
xwedán	'salt shaker'	< xwé	'salt'
agirdán	'fireplace'	< agír	'fire'
5) -dánd (quality or state):			
agadánd	'alertness'	< agá	'care'
6) -ewán 'one related to':			
šaxewán	'mountaineer'	< šáx	'mountain'
qazewán	'goose tender'	< qáz	'goose'
keštyewán	'sailor'	< keští	'ship'
7) -ewarí 'people, nation':			
kurdewarí	'the Kurdish people'	< kárd	'Kurd'
8) -gá 'place'			
kargá	'workshop'	< kár	'work'
dadgá	'court'	< dád	'justice'
9) -istán 'place'			
kurdistán	'Kurdistan'	< kárd	'Kurd'
daristán	'forest'	< dár	'tree'
10) -xané ~ -xán 'room, building'			
cayxané	'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) -lé; -ulé; -žolé; -oké; -ocké; -ilké; -loké (diminutive suffixes)			
These indicate smallness, and, in some instances, endearment.			
Choice of suffix is not predictable. -loké is composed of -lé and -oké, expressing greater degree of smallness.			
-lé	: təšpilé	'small wooden dish'	< təšpí 'wooden dish'
-ulé	: mešulé	'mosquito'	< més 'fly'
-žolé	: karžolé	'small ewe'	< kár 'ewe'
-oké	: minałoké	'(dear) little child'	< mináł 'child'
-ocké	: małocké	'little house'	< mál 'house'
-ilké	: cawilké	'eyeglasses'	< cáw 'eye'
-loké	: təšpiloké	'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'	< gér̥m	'hot'

2) -ái (state or condition):

séwzáí	'greenness'	< sówz	'green'
drežáí	'length'	< drež	'long'
kweráí	'blindness'	< kwér	'blind'

(3) Nominal suffixes occurring with nouns and adjectives:

1) -í (quality or state):

Nouns:

daykí	'motherhood'	< dáyk	'mother'
minači	'childhood'	< mináči	'child'

Adjectives:

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

2) Cetí|Vyetí (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) Cín|Vn (underlying notion of verb stem) this occurs on past stem to form the infinitive, or verbal noun:

kirdín	'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:

mətǎšxór	'employee'	< mətǎš 'salary';
		xward-:xo- xw- 'to eat'
cəkməbór	'soldier'	< cəkmé 'boots';

bird-: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: tırsnók	'coward'	< tırs	'fear'
grinók	'cry-baby'	< gri-:gr-	'to cry'

-ók: kírmók ¹	'worm-eaten'	< kírim	'worm'
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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):

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

¹For these morphophonemic processes involving syncope of /i/ and assimilation of /s/, 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:

šežló ¹	'a six; the sixes' (in cards)	<	šéš	'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'
befrawí	'snow-covered'	<	béfr	'snow'

2) -í (gentilic):

řožawai	'western'	<	řožawá	'west'
xišai	'Christian'	<	xiša	'Jesus'
qawéi	'brown'	<	qawé	'coffee'

3) -mánd 'having'

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

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

(2) Adjectival affixes occurring with adjectives:

1) -báw 'of the shade of':

surbáw	'reddish'	<	súr	'red'
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2-3) né-: ná- (negative). Certain adjectives take only né-, others take only ná-, and others take either:

nétiž	'dull'	<	tíž	'sharp'
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nárek	'disarranged, dishonest'	<	řék	'straight'
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¹See footnote on the preceding page.

néxoš	‘ill’		
náxoš	‘unpleasant’	}	< xós ‘pleasant’

4) -olé (diminutive)

kizolé	‘somewhat dull, gloomy’	
	< kíz	‘dull, gloomy’

(3) Adjectival suffix occurring with verb stems:

Cú|Vw ‘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:

-ané ‘like or pertaining to’:

kicané	‘girlish’	< kíč	‘girl’
řožané	‘daily’	< řož	‘day’
dwansé	‘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 formation processes, namely /?ə-/, /bɪ/, /-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:

tírsánd-:tírsén-	‘to frighten’	< tírsá-:tírs-	‘to fear’
gøyánd-:gøyén-	‘to cause to arrive’	< gøyšt-: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:

yékám ~ (D)yékémín	‘first’	seyám	‘third’
duwám	‘second’	bístu penjám	‘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."¹

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.

5.11. Nominal Phrases

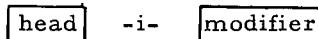
The head of the nominal phrase may be a noun, an adjective, a pronoun, or a particle (interrogative, numeral, or demonstrative); the head is a word described (modified) by the other words (modifiers) of the phrase. The modifiers are of two classes: (1) those which follow the head and are linked to it 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.

¹Charles 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.

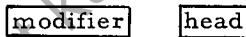
(1) The most common type of nominal phrase consists of head, *izafa*, and modifier, which can be diagrammed thus:



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:

minál-i-pcúk	‘small children’
máł-i-pyawəké	‘the house of the man’
pyáwek-i-baš	‘a good man’
náw-i-tó	‘ <u>your name</u> ’ (not someone else’s; cf. náwít ‘your name’)
xérík-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...Cé|Výš/* ‘that’ and */əm...Cé|Výš/* ‘this’.

cénd ſož	‘how many days?’
du minál	‘two children’
lə bəgá	‘in Baghdad’
géle kəs	‘many people’
əwšəwé	‘that night’ (šéw = ‘night’)

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

 səgá́t du ‘two o’clock’

A nominal phrase with a preposition modifier (e.g., */lə bəgá/*) 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'
əwšəwəké-i-sərjō			'that night in Serjo'
əmīšé-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
náw-i-mudír-i-mugárif		'the name of the director of education'
jasús-i-səd sał		'a spy of a hundred years'
xané-i-bə jáy		'a noisy house' (bə jáy = 'with noise')
səbəb-i-əmīšé-i-to		'the reason for this deed of yours'
səgát du-i-paž niwəřó		'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
cəj be iñsáfi		'How unjust you are!' (be iñsáf = '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 predicate may be a noun or pronoun, in which case it has the same referent as the subject, as

əwpyawé 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? cákí? 'How are you? Are you well?'

zor bə quwáti 'You are very strong.' (be quwéti = '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: dér kird-:kə-|k- 'to take out, remove'
səgəkə lərə dér kə 'Take the dog out of here!'

(2) noun + verb: bay kird-:kə-|k- 'to call, invite'
məlá bay ʔəká 'He invites the mullah'

(3) adjective + verb: amadé kird-:kə-|k- 'to make ready'
xoy amadé ʔəká 'He gets himself ready'

(4) predicate + copula: be ʔənsáfi + copula 'to be unjust' (see 5.12)
cəy be ʔənsáfi '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 ʔədá 'He shakes the water'

(6) noun + adverb + verb: = (2) + (1)
pənd pe da-:də-|d- 'to play a trick on'
bóci 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 object¹ 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 'exwénin?/ '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) /ká/ is subject:

(1) Noun *cetekán hél hatin* 'The bandits ran away.'

¹The "indirect object" is expressed in Kurdish by a prepositional phrase in /bá/ 'to' or /bá/ '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 qse nákən 'They too do not speak.'
(-iš = 'also')

(3) Interr. kē ?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 hánde lə dostubradərəkáni tədbír ?əkén... 'A few of his friends arrange...'

(7) Demon. émə bášə 'this one is all right.'

(8) Rel. éwə 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 kərəké bikrə 'Buy the donkey!'

(2) Adj. konəkéy 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. éwə názane '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'¹

(2) S V : míniš yem 'I'll come too.' (-iš = 'also')

(3) O V : déstít máč ?əkəm 'I kiss your hand.' (Formula of respect)

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

(4) S O V : xawenmáí kagezéké ?exwéne '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

mélá cí ?eka '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) O₁ O₂ V₂ : Two Accusatives. V₂ includes the verb pišán da-:də-|d- 'to show', as
xoy wa mandú pišán da... 'He showed himself so tired...'

(6) (S) V₃ O₁ : Quotations. V₃ includes verbs of saying, as wüt-:tə-|t- 'to say', pirsí-:pirs- 'to ask', as
mélá ?elé yék 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.¹ 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.

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

(1) Position M¹: 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 M¹, time precedes place and place precedes manner, as

M¹

time place manner

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

When two expressions of time occur in M¹, the more general precedes the more specific, as

bayaní zú heł 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 M²: Expressions in this position usually modify the verb, as

kurdí báš ?əzani 'You know Kurdish well.'

The indirect object regularly fills this position, as

ktebækém bə ūšol frošt 'I sold the book to Rashol.'

(3) Position M³: Expressions in this position more directly modify the verb. Thus, when an expression of place, which can fill either M¹ or M³, 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

ktebækém fróšt bə ūšol 'I sold the book to Rashol.'

wátim 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 /wé/ 'and'; see 5.31); an interjection (as /xó/ 'aha!'); a noun in the vocative (as /xélkine/ 'People!'); prepositional phrases (as /ləpáš nán xwardín/ '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) (M¹) (O) (M²) V (M³)

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'
cújké ~ cúnki	'because'
dwaí	'afterwards'
?éginé	'otherwise'
ténánet	'well, then'
wé	'and'
xozgé	'would that'

Interrogatives:

áyé	(question: formal style)
bóci ~ bó	'why?'
cénd	'how much?'
cí	'what?'
cón	'how?'
kám	'which?'
ké	'who(m)?'
kéy	'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 /ké/, as

Conjunctions:

éger	'if'
hétá	'until'
ké	'when; if; that'
méger	'unless, if not'

Relative:

ké	'who, which, etc.'
----	--------------------

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	méger
báškim	řéjé
éger	xozgá
hétá	

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 /bé tóyana bimákiyayé/ 'had they thrown it at you' in the utterance

bé tóyana bimákiyayé ?ébúyt bé 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), (M¹), or (M^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), (M¹), or (M^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 ^{'''})
[éger némdeñewə] xóm	?ezanim	cí	?ekem
'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[']):

(S)	(M ['])	V
əmániš	[kə émə ?ebínin]	?etírsin...

these also when they see this they fear

'For their part, when they see this they fear...'

(3) Bound clauses in position (M^{'''}): Clauses in this position may be

(a) subject of the free clause:

V	(M ^{'''})
baštírə	[kə bzánin]

it is better that we know

'It is better that we know.'

(b) object of the free clause:

(S)	V	(M ^{'''})
mélá	?ebíne	[bérmałekéy la šwén-i-xóy némawə]

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^{'''}) in (1) above.

(c) receiving special emphasis:

(I)	(O)	V	(M ^{'''})
tuxwá mélá	cít	?ekírd	[éger bérmałekétman 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 /ké/ '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...Cé|Vyé/ 'that' or, less often, /əm...Cé|Vyé/ 'this'. This modifying clause is introduced by the connector /ké/ 'who' and is linked to the head by izafa; however, either /ké/ or izafa may be omitted without change in meaning. This construction is diagrammed as follows:

éw.head.š -i- kə clause

əwnané-i-kə səgəké xwárdi kónbu 'That bread that the dog ate
was old.'

əmkəsé kə goraní ?əl̥é bra-i-mínə 'This person who is singing
songs is my brother.'

éwə-i-xwárdit ŋítəwə 'That which you ate you will pass
[i.e., excrete],

éwə-i-kirdit dítəwə that which you did you will see again.'
(Proverb)

The head of the phrase is the antecedent of the relative /ké/. Further, /ké/ 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 /ké/ is in the subjunctive mood. In this context, /éw/ 'he' and /éwə/ '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:

éwə kə zirákə sər ?əkəwé 'The one who is clever will succeed.'

éwə kə zirákbe sər ?əkəwé 'Whoever is clever will succeed.'

On the other hand, if /ké/ 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

əmkəsé kə to ?əynásit bra-i-mínə 'This person whom you know
is my brother' (Lit., 'this person whom you know him is my
brother')

déstek kə hakim bíbřet xwéni níyə '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:

That is, the suffix *-im* of */kəštim/* has gone from */kəštim/* to */márek/*; */márekim/* 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:

cákim kird	'I did well.'	(cák 'good' -im)
mín tom biníl	'I saw you.'	(tó 'you' -m)
wáman kird	'we did it thus'	(wá 'thus' -man)
pyawékán dárýan 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 /cəqð/ 'knife', /helkð/ 'egg', /héz/ 'love', /rfa/ 'away', and /máhím/ 'my house'. The verbs in parentheses are the forms with the subject suffixes:

mélá cęqýy dér hena 'The Mullah took out a knife.' (henáy)
 dú helkám xwárd 'I ate two eggs.' (xwárdim)
 kázim lę to kirdúe 'I'm in love with you.' (lit., 'I have loved
 you') (kirdúmə)

¹If 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 ū́y kírd 'Baram ran away.' (kírdi)
 málmyan werán kírd 'They ruined my house.' (kírdyan)

(2) In the present tense, only three verbs are involved, all three having suppletive stems:

wé̄t-:le-|i- 'to say'
 wist-:əwé(t) 'to want'
 há...bu:há...Cə|Vyə 'to have'

When the subject suffixes are shifted from the verb, the verb occurs in its present stem form, except that /wé̄t-:le-|i-/ receives the aspect prefix /?ə-/ 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:

?əléyt 'you (sg) say' cit ?əlē 'What are you saying!'
 ?ətánəwél 'you (pl) want' kam kúrsítan əwé 'Which chair
 do you want?'

héməl 'I have' trumpélim háyə '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 you.'

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 3.411.² The verbal suffix on the verb now refers to the object of the preposition, the pronominal suffix on the

¹ These two verbs are conjugated irregularly in the present tense: see (2) Present Tense under 3.414.

² 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 lègèt kírdim 'He did well by me.' (< *cak lègélím kírdi) the suffix /-i/ '3rd sing.' of the verb /kírdi/ 'he did' has been shifted to /cák/ 'good' and the suffix /-im/ '1st sing.' of the preposition /lègélím/ '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

névan baxším ‘They presented [it] to me.’

(pe- 'to': -yan 'they'; baxší- 'presented'; -m 'me')

The structure here is:

Additional examples (including one with a passive verb) are:

labárim kírdin 'I put them on, I donned them'

(labár 'on': -im 'I'; kird 'did'; -in 'them')

estim ho le navt. 'I prepared the meal for you.'

(*cest* 'meal'; *-im* 'I'; *bo* 'for'; *le na-* 'prepared'; *-yt* 'you')

pet victim 'you told me'

the - 'to': -t 'you': wut- 'told': -im 'me')

—*pe-to, -t you, wat' told, -li mi,*
—*ayvan jazz le soprá? 'How much were they fined?'*

(cóns ~ cónd 'how much?'; -yan 'they'; jézá 'fine'; le 'from')

... *sanda* 'now much!', *yan* *sanda* *sanda* '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

watim 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 béné ‘Bring me some tea!’

(ca 'tea'; -m 'me'; bo 'for'; bénə for (D) bihénə 'bring')

cirokkit bo ?álem 'I'll tell you a story.'

(cirkékek 'a story'; -it 'you'; bo 'for'; ?əlém 'I say')

éram ne xóša 'I like it here.'

(éra '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

۱ جاریکیا نه که به رماله کی خوی
نه لنه گریت وه نه چی بو مرگوت بو
نوریت کردن ، که نه گاته مرگوت له
ناتیکا خه ریکی دهست نوریت شته نه بی
نه نزی له دوستو برا ده ره مانی له ناو
خویانا تدبیر نه کن وه به رماله کی لی
نه دزن وه نه لین نای کسی راستی بلی
تا براین نه که نه چی نه کا .

۲ نه که له دهست نوریت شته
نه بیته وه خه ریلنه نه بی نوریت بکا
نه بینیت به رماله کی له شوینی خوی
نه ماوه ، گه لیله نه گه ری بی سود نه بی

yákem békayát
first story

1. járekyan mélá bérmałeká-i-xóy
time-a-of-them mullah prayer-rug-the-/i/-himself

hél ?əgret wə ?əcē bo mizgáwt bo
he-takes-up and he goes to mosque to

nwéž kírdín 2. kə ?əgáta mizgáwt lə
prayer to-do when he-arrives-at mosque in

káteka xérík-i-déstnwežtín ?əbé
while busy-/i/-hand-prayer-to-wash he-is

hénde lə dóstubradérékáni lənáw
a-few from friends-and-friends-his among

xóyana tədbír ?əkén wə bérmałeký lé
themselves arrangement they-make and rug-the-him from

?ədizin wə ?əlén nábe kəs ?əstí bilié
they-steal and they-say must-not anyone truth he-tell

ta bizánin mélá cí ?əka
until we-know mullah what he-does

3. mélá kə lə déstnwežtín
mullah when from hand-prayer-to-wash

?əbétawa xérík ?əbé nwéž bıká
he-is-back busy he-is prayer that-he-do

?əbínet bérmałeký lə əwen-i-xóy
he-sees rug-the-his in place-/i/-itself

nómawə 4. gólek ?əgərē be súd ?əbé
it-has-not-remained a-lot he-walks-around without avail it-is

هئه وانیش صیع ته ناگون . ۶. ملد که بوي
ساغن هئه بیته وه بی یان شاردوته وه به
توروه ییه وه هئه لی : خله لکیینه بو خوا
بی تا به هئه لیم به رمالکه م بده هئه وه و
هئه گر، هئم ده هئه وه خوم هئه زانم چی هئکم
هاره مانیش کر تهه هئه بیش هئه ترسن لوده ی
که هئه گر، هئه پر هئه وه ملد شتیکی خاچ به
۷. ده رحال به رمالکی هئه ده هئه وه دهست .
۸. درایی هئه وهی مهله نویته کهی هئه کا ،
نایر کانی درستی سوینیلی مهله هئه ده
هئه لین : تو خوا مهله هئه گر، به رمالکه تان
هئه دایتا یه وه چیت هئه کرد ؟
۹. هئه سیشی به سار دیه که وه و تی : هئه چوم
بو ماله ده هندی خوریم هه بو هئه صا به
چو د بوي بکر دمایه به به رمال .

5. awániš híc qse náken 6. mélá kē boy
they-also no talk they-make mullah when to-him

ság ʔabétewə léyan šardótewə bə
most-clear it-becomes from-they hid with

turáiyewə ʔéé xélkina bo xwá
anger he-says People! for God

pétan ʔéílm bérmałékám bidánewə wə
to-you(pl) I-say rug-the-my give-back and

ágér námdenewə xóm ʔezaním cí ʔékəm
if not-to-me-you-give-back myself I-know what I-do

7. emániš kē emé ʔebinín ʔetirsín ləwá-i-ka
they-also when this they-see they-fear from-that-/i/that

ágér náydenewə mélá štek-i-xrap bıká
if not-it-they-give-back mullah thing-a-/i/-bad he-do

8. dərhéł bérmałékáy ʔedánewə dəst
immediately rug-the-his they-give-back hand

9. dwaí əwá-i-mélá nwežekáy ʔéká
after that-/i/-mullah prayer-the-his he-does

kabrakán-i-dósti swenek-i-mélá ʔedán
men-the-/i/friend-his oath-/i/-mullah they-give

ʔéén tu xwá mélá áger bérmałékáman
they-say by God mullah if rug-the-your-we

nádaytayewə cít ʔekird
had-not-given-back-to-you what-you were-doing

10. émiš bə sardiyekewə wáti ʔecúm
this-one-also with coldness-a he-said I-was-going

bo máləwə hónde xurím hóbu ʔemdá bo
to house-to a-bit wool-I had I-was-giving-it to

jołá boy bıkírdmayə bə bérmałá
weaver for-he should-have-made-me into prayer-rug

د و و ه م ح م ا ي ه ت

۱. جا ر ی کیا ه یه کی له دو س ته گانی بو
تا و ه ل تی کر دن سه لو با نگه نه کاته مالی
خو یا ه . . سه لاشی نه و رو زه هدر له
به یا نیه وه خو ی آماده نه کا وه جلی
پا له له ب هر نه کا . . وه نزیت نیو ه رو
نه چیت ه مالی کا برای درستی بو نان خوار دن
۴. دو ای چو و نه زوره وه و به خیر هاتی
خا و هن مال له سه ره وه دای نه نی وه
به خو شی نه وه وه چه نه که سی کی با نک
کر دو ه . . ل ریتی نان خوار دن خا و هن مال
نه یه دی گا لته یه له لگل سه دا بکا .
۶. له هدیوان صرا وی یه له ل سه یه له
یی وه ستاو ه . . به سه له نه لی : سه لو نه و

duwəm ḥəkayēt
second story

1. járekyan yékye lə dostəkáni bo
one-time-of-them one-a from friends-his to

qawəltí kirdin məlā báy ʔəkata mál-i-
lunch doing mullah invite he-does-to house-/i/-

xóyan 2. məlāš əw fožé hər lə
themselves mullah-also that day only from

bəyanıewə xoy amadé ʔəka wə jil-i-
morning-from himself ready makes and clothes-/i/-

pák lebər ʔəka 3. wə nizik niwəřō
clean on he-does and near noon

ʔecéte mál-i-kabrá-i-dósti bo nán xwardín
he-goes-to house-/i/-fellow-/i/-friend-his for bread eating

4. dway cúnə žúrəwəw bə xer hatín
after going-to inside-to-and to well coming

xawənmál lə sérəwə dáy ʔəne wə
host on head down-him places and

bə xoří-i-əwəwə cənd káseki báy
to happiness-of-that-by a-few people-a-he invitation

kirdue 5. ləpēš nan xwardına xawənmál
has-done before bread eating-at host

ʔeyəwé gaitóyek ləgəl məlāda býka
he-wants joke-a with mullah-at that-he-do

6. lə həywán mrawiyék ləsər yék
in corridor(at patio) duck-a on one

pe wéstawə 7. bə məlā ʔəjé málə əw
leg he-has-stood to mullah he-says mullah that

مرادی یه چه ن تاجی هه یه ؟ ۸- ملد نه یه
یه که تاج ۹- کابر نه یه بیاری چاله به
مه لد چون مرادی یه که تاجی نه یه ؟ ۱۰-
مه لد هر لدر تهی خوی درام نه کا.
۱۱- دوایی خاوره ن مال ده نکه زینکی بیخوکی
له نزیل خویه ومه ده لگدت وه گرتیه
مرادی یه که ۱۲- مرادی یه که شی له تسانا
تاجه که یه تری دانه وه رای کرد .
۱۳- خاوره ن مال وتی: ها مه لد نه وه نیه
دورو تاجی هه یه ؟ ۱۴- مه لد تکلیفی لی کرده وه
وتی نه و به ردی قو به و مرادی یه
به سرمانه تا مایی به تو یانا بایلیا یه
نه بیویت به جوار یه ۱۵-

mrawiyé cén qáci héye 8. mélá ?éé
duck how-many legs-his there-are mullah he-says

yék qac 9. kabrá ?éé pyaw-i-cákba
one leg fellow he-says man-/i-/good-be

mélá cón mrawí yék qaci ?ébe
mullah how duck one leg-his it-will-be

10. mélá hér lésér qse-i-xoy dawám ?éka
mullah only on word-/i-/himself stay he-does

11. dwaí xawenmáł dəpkəzíxek-i-pcúki
later host pebble-/i-/gravel-/i-/small-he

lē nízik xóyəwə hér girt wə girtia
from near himself-from up took and threw-to

mrawiyéké 12. mrawiyékéš lē tırsana
duck-the duck-the-also from fear-at

qacəkə-i-tíri dá na wə ráy kírd
leg-the-/i-/other-he down put and away-he did

13. xawenmáł wéti hér mala əwé níye
host he-said aha mullah that is-not

dú qaci héye 14. mélá tefkíri lē kírdewə
two legs-his there-are mullah thinking-he from did-again

wéti əw bərdá-i-to bəw mrawiyé
he-said that rock-which-you at-that duck

bəsizmanéta malí bə tóyana bimákyaya
poor threw to you-they-at had thrown

?ebúyt 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)."

Institut kurde de Paris

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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

The order of alphabetical arrangement in the Glossary that follows is given below:

?	h	n	t
a	h	o	u
b	i	o	z
c	iz	p	v
d	it	q	w
e	j	r	x
ə	k	r	y
f	l	s	z
g	ł	ş	ž
ğ	m	ş	ɛ

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
?engawtín (?engew-) to shoot

a

á [interj.] yes (informal style)
áferin, áferim [interj.] bravo!
afrót woman
agá care, attention
agadánd alertness
agír fire
agírdán fireplace
agá agha
amadá [adj.] ready
amadá kírdín to prepare
asmán sky
asudéi comfort
ášt peace
áw water
azai 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. bagát) garden
bán plateau
banzín gasoline
báy call, invitation
báy kírdín to invite

bapír grandfather
barám (man's name)
báš [adj.] good
báskim [conj.] perhaps
báwk father
baxšín (baxš-) to present, give
báy [prep.] for the price of
bayaní morning
bé, bábé [prep.] without
bekará lazy person
bá... (əwə) [prep.] with (instrument)
bád [adj.] bad
báfr snow
befrawí [adj.] snow-covered
bégá Baghdad
béle [interj.] yes (formal style)
béšam [conj.] but
béšku [conj.] perhaps
bénd cord
bendéxwén, bénéxwén belt-cord
bér front
bérð rock, stone
bérmał prayer-rug
berqiyé telegram
berú oak tree
berx lamb
bés [adj.] enough, sufficient
bésér [prep.] by (in oaths)
bésizmán [adj.] poor
bexšín (baxš-) to forgive
binín, ditín (past bini-, di(t)-; pres. bin-) to see
bír mind
bíst [numeral] twenty

bistín (byə-/by-; passive bistr-) to hear	cénd, céj [adv.] a few
bístu penjém [numeral] twenty-fifth	cép left hand
x bilyún [numeral] billion	cəpuřast left hand and right hand
bín bottom	x cəqó knife
birdín (bə-/b-; passive br-) to carry	cí [interrog.] what?
bírň rice	cirók story
bízín goat	x ciryó [interj.] cheerio! (a toast)
bíznəkewí mountain goat	cíl [numeral] forty
bó [prep.] to, for	círá light (noun)
bóci, bó [interrog.] why?	cón [interrog.] how?
boinbáx necktie	cún (c-; imperative co-) to go
boyág shoe polish, shine	lá cun to go away
boyagcí boot black	ték cun to disagree
brá brother	cújkə, cújkí [conj.] because
bradér friend	cwár [numeral] four
brán (bre-) to stop (trans.)	cwardé [numeral] fourteen
brayetí brotherhood	cwarfé quadruped, donkey
brazá brother's son or daughter	d
brín (br-) to wound	dá [preverb] down
břín (bř-) to cut	dád justice
bük bridegroom	dadgá court
bukuššé toy (pawpaw)	dadménd [adj.] just
bún (past -bu-; pres. Cím/Vm, hé-, b-) to be	dán tooth
burdín (bur-) to forgive	dán grain, feed
c	dán (də-/d-; passive dr-) to give
cák [adj.] good	lé dan to hit, to play (musical instrument)
cakí goodness	ték wér dán to shake (water)
candín (cen-) to sow	dané grain
cáw eye	dár tree
cawílká eyeglasses	daristán forest
cáy, cá tea	dáx sorrow
cayxané tea shop	dáyk mother
cenřáw [adj.] sown	daykí motherhood
cést meal, food	dé (plur. dehát) village
cést lé nan to prepare a meal	dé [numeral] ten
ceté bandit	dé, dý (asseverative particle occurring with verbs)
cékmá boots	dém period of time, a while
cékməbór soldier	dəmdém [adv.] from time to time
cénd, céj [interrog.] how much?	déj voice
how many?	dəjkəzíx piece of gravel
	dér [preverb] out
	→ dəréj degree

dérəwə outside
 dərgá door
 dərhál [adv.] immediately
 dərpé undershorts
 dərzí needle
 dést hand
 dəstnwežtín prayer ablutions
 dəwám kírdín to persist
 díl heart
 diłgír [adj.] sad, grieved
 diłskáw [adj.] heartbroken
 diłtán [adj.] sad
 diłkóš [adj.] happy
 dižín (diž-) to steal
 dó (fermented yoghurt drink)
 dóst friend
 dostubradár friends
 drenžaw [adj.] torn
 dréž [adj.] long, tall
 drežáí length
 drág [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
 dúsbaý [adv.] day after tomorrow
 duwám [numeral] second
 duzmán a deceitful person
 dwaí [adv.] later, afterwards
 dwané twin
 dwanzá [numeral] twelve
 dwáy [prep.] after
 dwéne [adv.] yesterday
 dyárə obviously, of course (is
 visible)

e

érə [adv.] here
 está [adv.] now
 éš ache
 ewaré [adv.] evening

e
 × əfəndí, əfəní gentleman
 əgər [conj.] if
 əginə [conj.] otherwise
 əmán [interj.] alas, woe
 əm...Cé/Vyá [demon.] this
 əmə [demon.] this
 əre [interj.] yes (emphatic)
 × ərewéllé [interj.] yes indeed!
 əsp horse
 əsterá star
 əw [pron.] he, him; she, her; it
 əw...Cé/Vyá [demon.] that
 əwán [pron.] they, them
 əwané [pron.] they (definite
 antecedent)
 əwé [adv.] there
 əwə [demon.] that
 əwwál [numeral] first
 əy [interj.] yes (informal style)
 əždihá (a fabulous animal)

f

× fanilé undershirt
 feník [adj.] cool
 fér:
 fér búñ to learn
 fér kírdín to teach
 fənján cup
 fəqyané Kurdish long-sleeved
 shirt
 fərmún (fərmu-) to do the honor
 of (polite)
 férq difference
 férš rug
 fəršaxér one who spreads
 carpets
 flán So and So
 froštín (froš-) to sell
 frošyár customer

g

gá (pķur. gagál) bull, ox
 gałté joke

geránnəwə (past gera-...əwə;
 present gere-...əwə) to tell,
 relate
 gálek [adv.] a great deal of
 gəním wheat
 gənj [adj.] young
 gənməsámi corn
 gárm [adj.] hot
 gərmá heat
 gərán (gərē-) to walk
 gərök one who loves to walk
 gəwrá [adj.] big, large
 gəyandín (gəyen-) to cause to
 arrive
 gəyštín (gə-/g-) to arrive
 gáz bite
 gáz (unit of measure for cloth)
 gəzín (gəz-) to bite
 gián soul
 gianləbér animal, living thing
 (except plants)
 girfán pocket
 givá (onomatopoeia for sound
 of bullets)
 givəgív (onomatopoeia for sound
 of bullets)
 gizá (onomatopoeia for sound of
 buzzing of bullet)
 gizá kírdín to complain
 gizəgiz complaining, whining
 gíl soil
 gírtín (gr-; passive stem gir-)
 to take, grasp, throw
 héí gírtín to pick up
 gláw [adj.] unclean (religious
 usage)
 gobká (a kind of flower)
 gó lake
 gólm lake
 goraní song
 góšt meat
 govár magazine
 gráw bet, wager
 grín (gr-) to cry
 grinók cry-baby

grán [adj.] expensive
 gunáh crime
 gáł leprosy
 gáł rose
 gáław rose water
 gwé ear
 gwéž nuts

g

garibí foreign land
 gəlát mistake
 gələtyarí a bad move or play
 (in games)

h

há [interj.] aha!
 x hafíz Protector
 hafté week
 x hakím judge
 hatín (ye-/y-; subjunctive e-;
 imperative wár-) to come
 hatucó coming and going,
 loitering
 hawištín (hawež-) to throw
 helké egg
 henán (hen-) to bring
 dér henán to take out, remove
 héro (girl's name)
 hestín (hel-) to permit
 hésta [adv.] still, yet
 hébu [v.] there was, were
 hébun (past hé...bu; present hé
 ...Cə/Vyə/yeti; imperative
 hé...be) to have
 héí [preverb] up
 héł eagle
 hemané leather
 hémú, hémú [adv.] each, every,
 all, any
 héndek [adv.] a few, a little
 hénjír figs
 héjwín honey
 héř [adv.] only
 hérme pear
 hérzán [adj.] cheap

hēšt [numeral] eight
hēštā [numeral] eighty
hētā, tā, hētāku [conj.] until
[prep.] up to, as far as
hētīw orphan
hētiwbáz homosexual
hēya [v.] there is, are
hēywán corridor (bordering
courtyard of house)
hēzár [numeral] thousand
hēždá [numeral] eighteen
híc [adv.] no, not any
honřáwə poem
hoqqá (a measure of weight)
hušyár [adj.] sober

h

hēftá [numeral] seventy
hēvdá, hēvvé [numeral] seventeen
hēwt [numeral] seven

✗ hēywán animal

héz:

héz lə kírdín to like, love

i

íš work, deed

i

✗ iktirám respect
ímro [adv.] today
ímsai [adv.] this year
ímšew [adv.] tonight
✗ imtihán examination
ínya [adv.] then, in that case
ínsáf justice, equality
✗ insán man, person
íšbíliyə Lisbon

j

jám bowl
jarán formerly
járek once
✗ jasús spy
jéy noise

jézá fine (noun)
jézá le səndín to take a fine
from, to fine
jéžn holiday
jíł clothes
jílfá slang
jnábtan you (polite)
jó barley
jołá weaver
jún (ju-/jw-) to chew
jút a pair (rugs, dice)
jwán [adj.] beautiful
jwaní beauty

k

kabrá man, fellow
kagéz letter
kagéznús letter-writer
káka (title of respect used in
addressing elder brother)
kałék melon
kałekfróš melon vendor
kám [interrog.] which?
kaní spring (water)
kánt straight (in poker)
kár work
kár ewe
kargá workshop
karžolá small ewe
kát while, time
lə káteka while, during
ké [interrog.] who? whom?
ké [conj.] when, if, that
ké [relative] who, which
kélik use
kemřáj [adj.] light (in color)
kendín (kend-) to take off
kénín:

pé kénin (kén-) to laugh

kér donkey
kérfróš donkey seller
kérfróstín donkey selling
kér [adj.] deaf
kés person, anybody

kəští ship
 kəštyewán sailor
 kəwtín (kəw-) to fall
 káy [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
 ū kirdín to run away
 kírim worm
 kirmók [adj.] wormy, worm-eaten
 kíz [adj.] dull, gloomy
 kizolá [adj.] somewhat dull, gloomy
 kław shoe
 klawrfén shoe thief
 kólk target
 kón [adj.] old
 kór party (of people)
 krín (kr-) to buy
 křín (kř-; passive kř-) to rub
 ktéb book
 kúr hunchback
 kužánnewá (kužen-...ewə) to turn off, extinguish
 kělk scratch
 kěllé mosquito net
 kělk hen ready to lay eggs
 kérд Kurd
 kurdí Kurdish
 kerdewarí the Kurdish people
 kerdistán Kurdistan
 x kursí chair
 kárt [adj.] short
 kář boy, son
 kářezá grandson
 kuštin (kuž-) to kill
 kwé, kwá [interrog.] where?
 kwér [adj.] blind
 kweraí blindness

1

lá side
 ladé countryside
 lagír supporter, follower, adherent
 láq leg
 lé [preverb] from
 léw lip
 lé/lé (-da) [prep.] in, at
 lé/lé (-ewə) from
 ləbér [prep.] because of, on
 ləbín [prep.] beneath
 ləgést (-da) [prep.] with
 ləkín...ewə [prep.] beside
 lənáw (-da) [prep.] inside of
 ləpáš (-da) [prep.] after
 ləpéš (-da) [prep.] before
 ləsér [prep.] on
 ləžér [prep.] under
 libnán Lebanon
 lifiká wash-rag
 m
 mág kiss
 mág k. to kiss
 mál house
 mačín (mał-) to throw, cast
 małocká little house
 mám uncle
 mán (me-) to remain
 mandú, mayú [adj.] tired
 már snake
 marmasí eel
 masí fish
 mást yoghurt
 mérд man, husband
 méš fly
 mešulé mosquito
 məgáš salary
 məgaškór employee
 məgné meaning
 mágér [conj.] unless, if not
 məlá mullah
 məlé swimming

məmnūn [adj.] much obliged,
 thank you
 mərg pasture
 x mərkəbə [interj.] hello
 məwqnatıs magnetism
 miwán guest
 míz urine
 mizildán bladder
 milwanká necklace
 x milyín [numeral] million
 míñ [pron.] I, me
 mináñ, mindáñ child
 minañ childhood
 minałoká (dear) little child
 mirdín (mr-) to die
 mirwarí pearl
 mizgáwt mosque
 móñ [adj.] purple
 morá dice
 mrawí duck
 x mrabbé jam
 x muğárif education
 x mudír director
 x muhtámél [adj.] possible
 x mərnkín [adj.] possible

n

nábe [v.] must not
 náçí 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
 náw name
 náw inside, interior
 náxoš [adj.] unpleasant
 né? [interj.] no
 nəsrín (girl's name)
 nátiž [adj.] dull

nəwéd [numeral] ninety
 náxer [interj.] no (emphatic)
 náxoš [adj.] ill
 náxtek a little bit
 niáz intention
 niwəřó noon
 niwəřoxéw noon nap
 x nisbét comparison
 ništín, ništín (niš-) to sit
 dá ništín to sit down
 nizík [adj.] near
 nízm [adj.] low
 nó [numeral] nine
 nóš [interj.] here's to you (a
 toast)
 nozdé [numeral] nineteen
 nusín (nus-) to write
 náktébáz comedian, joker
 náqárc a pinch
 nástín, nástín (nu-/nw-) to sleep
 nwandín (nwen-) to put to sleep
 nwé [adj.] new
 nwéž kírdín to pray

o

ogír:
 ogírbe Where are you going?
 (polite style)
 ogír kírdín to go (polite)
 ostá master
 oxóy [interj.] ah! (delight)

p

pák [adj.] clean
 pák kírdín to clean, peel
 pák kírdnəwə to clean, wash
 paławtín (pałew-) to filter
 panzár [numeral] fifteen
 pář [adv.] last year
 parastín (parez-) to protect
 páš [prep.] after
 pašeróz [adv.] in the future
 paytáxt capital city
 pcúk, bıçúk [adj.] little, small
 pé foot

pé [preverb] to	qəlám pen, pencil
péc curve	qələmdán pencil box
pecpéc zigzag	qəpqép (onomatopoeia for sound of wooden shoes)
pék [preverb] together	x qəryolé cot
pékəwə [adv.] together	qərzdár debtor
pénj [numeral] five	qəy náka it doesn't matter
perár [adv.] year before last	qəycí scissors
pés [prep.] before	qəzá misfortune
pewa [preverb] with	qopcá button
pélá haste	qorawí [adj.] muddy, mud-covered
péləpél great haste	qúl [adj.] deep
pénd trick, pun	quwét strength
pénd pe dán to play a trick on	qədəfés Negro
pənjas [numeral] fifty	qərbán you (polite)
pərdəwkəllé mosquito net	qərgán Koran
pəsté chorus	qərs [adj.] difficult
pəstín (pəst-) to press	qsá speech
pír [adj.] old	qsé kirdín to speak
piretí oldness	qsəxóš [adj.] witty
pirəmérд old man	r
pirəžín old woman	řá [preverb] away
pirí oldness	řamazán Ramadan
píš [adj.] dirty	řást [n.] right hand
pišán dan to show	[adj.] right, correct
piřsín (piřs-) to ask	řastí truth
piř [adj.] full	řastír [adj.] more correct
piř kirdín to fill up	řastucéwt [adj.] dishonest
płá rung (of ladder)	řék [adj.] straight
propəlantá propaganda	řekupék [adj.] in order, in good shape
pšilé cat	řestín (řes-) to spin
púl money	řéhm mercy
pulbáz miser	řéj [adj.] color
purzá aunt's son or daughter	řéjə [conj.] maybe
pyáw man	řésm picture
pyawetí humanity	řesmgír photographer
q	řéš [adj.] black
qác leg	řəšəbá <u>resheba</u> , dust storm
qadír (man's name)	řəšol (man's name)
qawá coffee	řištín (řež-) to sprinkle
qawéi [adj.] brown	řjá kirdín to beg, entreat
qawəltí lunch	řó [preverb] down
qazánj profit	
qazewán goose tender	
qələbáleg crowd	

řoyštín ~ řoyn (řo-/řw-) to go	səwzé (plur. səwzəwát) green	
řož sun,day	(noun)	
řožaná [adj.] daily	sfír without veil	
řožawá west	sí [numeral] thirty	
řožawai [adj.] western	sinemá the movies	
řožhélst sunrise, east	siné tray	
řwán (řwe-) to grow	sífré zero	
řwandín (řwen-) to plant	sifták first sale of day	
s		
ság [adj.] clear, certain	síg stomach	
sál year	skút silence	
sán (s-) to wake up	snóq box	
sárd [adj.] cold	snogəřéš black box	
sardá cold (noun)	spardín (sper-):	
sardí coldness	řá spardín to order, command	
sardugárm cold and hot	spí [adj.] white	
sbý [adv.] tomorrow	stan (st-):	
sé [numeral] three	héł stan to get up, arise	
seanzé [numeral] thirteen	súd avail	
sér [adj.] strange	súr [adj.] red	
séw apple	surbáw [adj.] reddish	
sébéb reason, cause	swár horseman	
sébhéyne [adv.] tomorrow	swaré cavalryman	
ségt hour, watch, clock, o'clock	swén oath	
ség dog	s	
ségbáz dog fancier	séd [numeral] hundred	
ségsór dog washer	š	
séhól ice	šá king	
šemmín French bread	šai ceremony	
séndín (sənd-) to take, receive	šanzé [numeral] sixteen	
séqf ceiling	šár city	
sér head	šatrínj chess	
sér kewtín to succeed	šáx mountain	
sérbán roof	šaxewán mountaineer	
sérbáz soldier	šazadé prince, princess	
sérf spending	šažín queen	
sérjó (place name)	šéw evening meal	
serspí [adj.] hoary	šéhwani hermaphrodite	
séwá haggling	šékír sugar	
séwá k. to haggle	šékirdán sugar bowl	
séwbé (a kind of flower)	šelín (šel-) to be lame	
séwz [adj.] green	šemšemékwér bat (animal)	
séwzaí green (noun)	šérm bashfulness	

šermín [adj.] bashful	tírsnók coward
×	tírš [adj.] sour
šést [numeral] six	tká kírdín to thank
šést [numeral] sixty	tó [pron.] you
šéw night	topín (top-) to die (animal)
šéwq light (noun)	tór fishing net
šežló a six (<u>cards</u>)	tořbá musette bag
šín [adj.] blue	trozí wild or "snake" cucumber
šír milk	trumpél automobile
šír [adj.] ragged	třé grapes
širé rag	túk hair
širəxór infant	tukín [adj.] hirsute
širín [adj.] sweet	tuləság puppy
širutír swords and arrows	túr radish
šít thing	turəyé anger
škán (ške-) to break	twanín (twan-) to be able, can
škanəwə (ške-...əwə) to be broken	twé slice
škér thanks (to God)	txwá, tuxwá [interj.] indeed?!
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	
téčtil vacation	
tedbír kírdín to arrange	
tənánet [conj.] well, then	
társ dung	
×	
tesbík ~ təzbík prayer beads	
~ təšékkúr kírdín to thank	
təšpí wooden dish	
təšpilé small wooden dish	
təšpiloké very small wooden dish	
təxté board (wood)	
təxwá bobby pin	
tféy rifle	
tirbiržán beautiful person	
tíž [adj.] sharp	
tírs fear	
tírsán (tírs-) to fear	
tírsandín (tírsen-) to frighten	
u	
utél hotel	
v	
víjəvíj (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 kírdín to ruin	
werán bun to be ruined	
wé, Cu/Vw [conj.] and	
wék [conj.] as	
wéku [prep.] like	
wélam:	
wélam dánəwə to think	
wér [preverb] from	

wəstán (wəst-) to stand
řá wəstán to stop (intrans.)
wistín (-əwe(t); passive wistr-) to want
wutú iron (instrument)
wutucí laundryman
wutín (łe-/łi-; passive wetr-) to say
wétnewə (łe-...əwə) to teach

x

xałúz charcoal
xałužá cousin
xałužín aunt
xané, xanú house
xásətən [adv.] especially
xawənmáł host
xawlí towel
xélk, xéłq people
xérík [adj.] busy (plus subjunctive verb: about to)
xéw dream
xíł a spinning
xiłxiłoká a top
xínkán (xinke-) to drown, choke
xistín (xe-/x-) to pull
xizím relative, relation
xizmayətí relationship
xó self
xó [interj.] I say! (accosting)
xoləměš ash
xonəxóř one who does not eat
xóš [adj.] pleasant, nice, delicious
xóšk sister
xoškəgəwrá elder sister
xóžgə [conj.] would that
xráp [adj.] bad
xurí wool
xulxeloká 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

yanzé, yanzdá [numeral] eleven
yapréx stuffed cabbage rolls
yarí play, move (in games)
yešán (yeše-) to ache, pain
yék [numeral] one
yékém [numeral] first
yékémín [numeral] first
yékgirtú [adj.] united
yéksér [adv.] straight, immediately
yéktíř [numeral] one more
yéłé [interj.] hurry up

z

załíff [adj.] weak
zanín (zan-) to know
zewí ground, earth
zehmét trouble, bother
zín saddle
zirbrá step-brother
zirék [adj.] clever, smart
zirxóšk 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
žerkán basement
žián (ži-) to live
žín life

žín woman, wife
žmardin (žmer-) to count
žmaré numeral, number
žúréwə inside

t

gantikéy [adj.] funny
gaqlé intelligence
gáyb shame

géba aba (woman's black cloak)
gém̄r age (years)
gərəqxó̄r heavy drinker
gérz, ɿərz ground, floor
gəttár notions shop
gəttarcí notions shopkeeper
gísa Jesus
gísaí Christian

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