NG ma, mara, bimarā
SG aima, biaima, pai aima, -mān }to us
NG hūn, waīra, biwaīra, hūnrā
SG aiwa, biaiwa, pai aiwa, -tān }to you
NG vān, vānrā, bivānrā
SG awān, bi awān, pai awān, -yān}to them

Of this multiplicity of forms the second in NG is the most correct and most used; the third is but a compound or amplification of it, whose use is alternative. The first or uninflected form is used around Bāyazid and by the frontier tribes of the north. The SG forms are also complicated by their numbers, but as with all the other forms of the pronouns the suffixial are used whenever possible, and the following examples will show better than explanation the various uses, as far as is possible briefly; the general use can only be acquired after the student is more familiar with Kurdish style:—

	va kutina vān wa kutina pai awāna wa kutina paiyān	and they said to them
	az bi werā gut min kutmī min kutm paiī	I said to him
_	dā merā dā bi min	he gave to me
	az dī kwai bidama ta min dī awa biamit	I, then, will give it to thee
	dar hāt pāra dā bihūn dar hāt pārā dā pai aiwa	came out and gave money to you
	ek gut marā hagar wutī paimān	if he should say to us

As has been said, the SG prefers the use of the suffixial pronoun wherever it is possible, but in some cases its use would lead to confusion, as in the last example, for were one to say hagar wutīmān it would mean 'if we said', as the verb form has no indication of the pronominal ending, the $\bar{\imath}$ meaning 'he' being merged in the final $\bar{\imath}$ of the verb itself. $M\bar{a}n$ would therefore supply a pronominal form which would be appropriated to the verb.

THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

The possessive pronouns are exactly the same as those of the genitive case, but Kurdish uses to a great extent the genitive of the reflexive pronouns, which are as follows:—

THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

These are formed by the addition of the word *khwa* to the pronoun itself, which has the meaning of 'self'. The NG differs from the SG in that it does not join the pronouns to the syllable *khwa*, while the SG prefixes *khwa* to the pronominal suffix. The reflexive pronouns are therefore as follows:—

	NG	SG
I myself	ma khwa, az khwa	khwam
thou thyself	ta khwa	khwat
he himself	ow khwa	$khwa\bar{\imath}$
we ourselves	ma khwa	klıwamān
you yourselves	hūn khwa	khwatān
they themselves	vān khwa	khwayān

In the genitive the NG omits the pronoun which precedes the reflexive particle, and the genitive form

stands entirely as \bar{i} khwa or \bar{a} khwa, following the rule of the genitive for nouns and pronouns, as—

chü ser khānīā khwa he went on the roof of his house az kenjī khwa dashüm I am washing my clothes

The number and person can therefore only be ascertained from the context in the NG. As the SG uses almost invariably the synthetic form, there is no doubt about the person intended, as—

min jilikī khwam dashüm	I am washing my own clothes
chū serī khānī khwaī	he went on his roof
ama pārāī khwamāna	this is our money
īshī khwatān khwatān	you know your ownaffairs best
dazānin	(literally, your own affairs
	you yourselves know)

When the SG uses this form in preference to the genitive of the ordinary pronoun it has, as in Persian, a slightly stronger meaning, and should be translated in most cases by its true equivalent, 'myself,' 'thyself,' etc., whereas in the NG it has merely replaced the ordinary genitive.

The reflexive pronouns form their cases in exactly the same way as nouns and are treated as such grammatically. We therefore get the forms—

	NG	SG
Nominative	min khwa, az khwa	khwam
	ta khwa	kliwat
	aw khwa	klıwaī
	ma khwa	khwamān
	hūn khwa	khwatān
	vān khwa	khwayān

Genitive	ī khwa, ā khwa	ī khwam
	do. do.	ī khwat
	do. do.	ī khwaī
	do. do.	ī khwamān
	do. do.	ī khwatān
	do. do.	ī khwayān
Accusative	khwaī	khwama
	do.	khwat
	do.	khwaī
	do.	khwamān
	do.	khrvatān
	do.	khwayān
Dative	bi khwa, khwarā	bi khwām, khwam
	do. do.	bi khwat, khwat
	do. do.	bi khwaī, khwaī
	do. do.	bi khwamān,khwamān
	do. do.	bi khwatān, khwatān
	do. do.	bi khwayān, khwayān

THE PRONOUNS

In all emphatic phrases, as 'I myself', this pronoun is used—

az khwa dazānim I myself know atu khwat burrua go thyself, i.e. thou thyself go

THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

These are as follows:—

	NG	SG
this	av, va, vīa, vaī, vī	am, hīn
that	aw, wī	\bar{ao}
these	$v\bar{a}n$	amāna
those	vān, wān	awāna

THE PRONOUNS

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Examples—

bi wī merūīrā gū he said to that man

liwān sarhaditān from those your boundaries

liwān āghāid from these chiefs

am pīāo this man vīa gū he said this

lamāna nīyya, bash it is not of these, perhaps it

 $lawana b\bar{u}$ was of those $h\bar{v}n bu$ it was this

It should be noted that in the NG the demonstrative pronoun agrees in number with the noun it precedes and indicates, but in the SG the plural form of the demonstrative pronoun is only used when the noun is *understood only*, and whenever the noun is indicated the singular form of the demonstrative pronoun is invariably used, whether the noun be plural or singular; thus we must say—

am pīāogān, these men, not amān pīāogān aw kābrakān, those fellows, not awān kābrakān

Besides these demonstrative pronouns are the pronouns—

ītir, *īdīn*, *īdī*, *dītereka* the other haram, haraw, av . . . khwa this same haraw, wī . . . khwa that same

the first being used after the noun, as-

haisterīdīn the other mule mālītir the other house

The first of the four forms of 'the other' quoted is SG, the second and third are NG, and the last is common to both. *Haram* and *haraw* are the SG forms and are used before the noun, as—

haram pīāo paim wutī this same man said it to me haraw gundaka tālānīān kird they looted that same village

Harav is sometimes used in the same manner in the NG, and the forms $av \dots khwa$ and $w\bar{\imath} \dots khwa$, which are found in the NG only, are used as follows:—

av mīrūf khwa merā wut that same man said it to me vān wī gundī khwa tālānī kir they looted that same village

THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

The interrogative pronouns are as follows:—

	NG	SG
who?	$k\bar{i}$?	kī?
what?	chī, chīk?	chī?
which?	kīzhki, kīzh, kizhān?	kām, kāmīn?
what sort of?	chtün ?	chün, chlūn?

Examples—

kī hāt wa chī kerīa? who has come and what has he done?

zheva dūān kīzh ki girt? which of these two did he take? kīzhān dār rīnda? which tree is a good one? kām gāojakawā kirdawa? which idiot has done this? chün pīāoīa? what kind of a man is he?

The first three of the pronouns above, 'who,' 'what,' and 'which', are declined in every respect like nouns.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The word ku does the duty of the relative pronouns, as—

mīrūi ku hāt the man who came
hasp ku az kirrī the horse which I bought
qal'a ku 'askarakān girt the castle that the soldiers
took

This pronoun is indeclinable, and when it is desired to construct such a phrase as 'the woman to whom he gave

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money' the phrase must be reconstructed to 'the woman who to her he gave money', where the relative pronoun is considered as a conjunctive particle, thus, zhenaka ku bi awa pārāī dā. Similarly, in the case where the relative pronoun is in the genitive in English, as 'the house of which I built the doorway', the sentence is inverted to 'the house which its door I built'; thus, khānīa ku az derī wī chī-kir, or 'the man from whom I took the money'; mīrūfī ku az zhiwī pārā girt, 'the man who I from him took the money.'

THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

These are-

kas one vekodin, vekitir, etc. each other hamūkas, gishkas, harkas everybody such a one, so and so filān chishtek, tishtek, naghdek something hīch, püch, krot, chī, tü nothing dītirī, ītirī, dīn, adīn, etc. the other chan, chand some hardü, hardüan, herdûk both zūr, pürr, galek many hamū, gishk all

Examples—

no one knows (one knows not) kas nāzānī gutin yekodîn they said to one another everybody knows hamūkas dazānin so and so said to me filānī paīm wutī he gave something tishtek dā I have nothing hīchim nīyva I have seen nothing chī namdīwa give me the other aw ītirī bīa

chan layānsome of themhardü ketinboth fellpürr hātinmany camehamū hūosh kirdall understood

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The adjective or qualifying word follows the noun it qualifies, and is connected to it by the particles i, \bar{a} , and ki, the last two being exclusively NG and the first common to all dialects, as—

hasp-ī-spī the white horse mīrūf-ā-pīr the old man ṭāifa-ki-rund the good tribe

In a few cases the adjective may precede the noun, as-

rrashwālaa swift (the black one)zardwālaa hornet (the yellow one)hīzbāoa rascal (shameful father)

It must be noticed that the qualificative is treated in every way as a noun in the genitive case, and so constant is this rule that a noun thus treated becomes practically an adjective, as, for instance—

hātin zhe ser-i-chīān o deshtān-i-chwl

they came from the mountain-tops and desert plains where $ch\bar{\imath}an$ and $ch\bar{\imath}wl$, in themselves pure nouns, become adjectives or qualificatives, and indistinguishable from pure adjectives in their connexion with the nouns they qualify.

Inversely, pure adjectives may be considered as substantives in the genitive case when they qualify indicated nouns, as in the case of

qizh-ī-rrash black hair

which would be equally correctly translated 'hair of blackness'.

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This substantival value of the apparent adjective appears in such a phrase as

rrashaka dakirrim na ālaka I will take black, not red

An even better example is furnished by a word so purely qualificative in English as 'good'—

SG pīāoek-ī-bāsh NG mīrū-ki-rund

Also

az yekī zhe rundakān girt I took one of the good ones where rundakān is a perfect plural noun and its value and use absolutely substantival.

It may be said, then, that to arrive at the Kurdish idea of an adjective we must turn our adjective into a noun, and say 'goodness' for 'good', for the Kurdish idea on the last phrase is 'I took one of the goodnesses'.

In English we have in some instances arrived at the same use, for we may say 'will you have a short or a long?' meaning a short drink or a long drink, etc. The Kurmānjī has always done the same thing, and thus—

draizhaka dakirrī yā kurtaka? will you have a long or a short?

where the object indicated may be any article, the name of which is understood either by immediately previous reference or by optical demonstration.

The sense in which the word may be said to be purely adjectival is in the instance where an auxiliary verb is used to join the noun and its qualificative, as—

raiga draizha the road is long bard girāna the stone is heavy

for we can immediately proceed to the comparison form, which can only be used in this situation, and which alone

proves the existence of the purely adjectival idea in Kurmānjī, as—

raiga draizhtira the road is longer bard girāntira the stone is heavier

the comparative form being made by the addition of tir to the positive. To express the superlative degree a compound phrase is necessary, as there is no affix for the superlative degree. We must say 'than all . . . -er', as—

raiga la hamū draizhtira the road is the longest, i.e. the road than all (others) is longer

and the use may lead to such a complicated phrase as-

NG Ḥama zhe hamū-ā-mīrūfān ku azī dīt mezintir a

SG Hama la hamū-ī-pīāoagān ki min dīm qalāotir a
Ahmad is the heaviest man I'ever saw; literally,
Ahmad than all the men that I saw heavier is

It will be noticed that the comparative form is placed at the end of the sentence immediately before the verb, which has always to be the last word, and this position, that of penultimate, is that which it usually assumes.

To say 'give me a better one' the same construction has to be resorted to, and one must say 'give me one better than this' (or 'that' as the case may be), thus—

NG zhi wī yekī rundtir bida than this one better give

THE COMPARATIVE PHRASES

I. 'as . . . as.'

'This mountain is as high as that'

There is no parallel construction to the English; one must say—

'The height of both mountains is one'

NG bilindīā hardū chīān yekīa

SG barzüī har dü keüān yekīka

or

'The height of this mountain and the height of that mountain are one'

NG bilindīā va kew bi bilindīā wī kew yekīa

SG barzüi am küi wa barzüi aw küi yekika

2, 'not so . . . as.'

'This is not so dear as that'; one must say,

'This is not of the dearness of that'

SG ama wa girānī awa nīyya

3. '...-er ...-er.'

A parallel construction for this phrase does not appear to occur in NG, but the SG gives an exact parallel in any phrase desired, provided always that it be introduced by har, 'ever.'

har nezzīktir, diyārtir the nearer, the clearer The NG would have to use an elliptical phrase.

THE NUMERALS

Cardinal Numbers

These are as follows:-

	NG	SG
I	yek, ek	yek
2	dü	düān
3	sī, sīsa	sīān
4	chār	chār, chwār
5	painj	penj
6	shash	shash
7	haft	haot
8	hesht	haisht
9	neh, nah	nih
10	deh	dah

	NG	SG
ΙΙ	dehoyek, yānza	yānza
12	dehudü, dehudüdü, dwānza	dwānza
13	dehüsī, saizda	siānza, zīāda
14	dehuchār, chārda	chārda, chwārda
15	dehupenj, pānza	pānza
16	dehushash, shānza	shānza
. I <i>7</i>	dehuhaft, havda	hewda
18	dehuhesht, heshda	haizhda
19	dehuneh, nüzda	nüezda
20	bīst	bīs
2 I	bīst u yek	bīs o yek
30	Sī	$s\bar{t}$
40	chel	chel
	penja, penjī	painjā
60	shest	shaist
70	hefta	heftā
80	haishtā, heshtā	haishtā
90	nüt, nüd	naüd
100	sad	so, süot
200	dü sad	düsüo, düsat
300	sīsad	saisat
	hezār	hazār, hezhār
10,000	deh hezār	
100,000	sat hezār	

14,528 chārda hezār o painj sat o bīst o haisht

The formation of the numbers, as is seen from the above, is the same as in Old English—'fourteen thousand and five hundred and twenty and eight.'

The words hezār, 'thousand,' and sat, so, etc., 'hundred,' take no plural form. One says, as in English, three thousand,' sai hezār, 'several hundred,' chan sat. Nor is it

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essential that a noun thus given a plural number shall take the plural form, as in the following example:—

haot $p\bar{\imath}ao$ (not haot $p\bar{\imath}aog\bar{a}n$) seven men The plural form is, however, sometimes used (SG) to emphasize the sense of number, as—

hezār mālakānī hayya he has a thousand (i.e. many) houses

The only fractional number in general use is $n\bar{\imath}w$, $n\bar{\imath}ma$, half; whenever it is desired to enumerate any other fractional number the Persian method is used, as—

yek zhi sī

one third (one of three)

yek zhe chār (or chārek) one quarter and so on.

Ordinal Numbers

These are formed from the cardinal numbers by the addition of $\bar{a}n$ or \bar{z} , with the exception of the 'first'—

first

paishīn, awwal (Arabic), yekī, eyek

second düwī, düwānī, dedüān

third

sīī, sīyān

fourth chāran, chārī, chwārī fifth painji, painjān, etc.

twenty-first bis o yeki

twenty-sixth bīs o shashī, etc.

The adverbs 'firstly', etc., are not used, the ordinal numbers in their simple form being invariably employed.

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THE AUXILIARIES 'TO BE' AND 'TO BECOME'

As a knowledge of the auxiliary verbs 'to be' and 'to become' is essential before the regular verbs can be learned, and as they serve in a measure as a guide to the formation of the ordinary Kurmānjī verb, it is well to thoroughly learn them before proceeding to the more difficult section of this part of the Kurdish grammar. As these auxiliaries are almost identical in form and use, they are treated here side by side in order that the little differences which distinguish them may be the more readily detected.

The verb 'to become' is one which is used with nouns and past participles (verbal nouns) to form passive verbs, and is encountered frequently. Where the English uses the verb 'to be', with part of the active to form the passive, the Kurmānjī uses the verb 'to become', as—

English 'to throw' is the active

'to be thrown' is the passive

Kurdish 'to throw' is the active

'to become thrown' is the passive

As the SG and NG show some considerable differences, the forms of each group are shown side by side here.¹

Infinitive

hain, būin to be

būn to become

Present Indicative
Affirmative
I am, etc.

NG

SC

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az haima, hem, -em	min haim, ham, -im	
ta haī, -ī	tu haī, haīt, -ī	
aw hayya, -a	aw hayya, -a	
am haina, -in	aima hain, haimān, -in	
hūn hain, -in	aiwa hain, haitān, -in	
vān haina, -in	awān hain, havān, -in	

¹ It will be seen that each group also has several forms, each form being separated from one another by a comma.

I become, etc.

az dabūm, dabüin	mın dabim, abim
ta dabī, dabīt, bīt	tu dabüi, abüī
aw dabī, dabit, bit, dabitin	aw dabī, abī
am dabin, dabīm	aima dabin, abin
hūn dabin, dabīt	aiwa dabüin, abin
vān dabin, dabīt	awān dabin, abin

Negative

I am not, etc.		I do not become, etc.	
√ NG	SG	NG	SG
az nīm, nīnim	min nīm	az nābim	min nābim
ta nī, nīnī	tu nīt	ta nābī	tu nābī
aw nīna, nīyya, tünna	aw nīyya	arv nābī	aw nābī
am nīnin, tünīnin	aima nīn	am nābin	aima nābin
hūn nīnin, tünīnin	aīwa nīu	hūn nābin	aiwa nābin
vān nīnin, tunīnin	awān nīan	vān nābin	awān nābin

Preterite

Affirmative

I was, etc.		I became, etc.	
NG	SG	NG	SG
būm, az hābūm, az bū	$b \bar{u} m$	az būm	min būm
būī, ta hābūī, ta bū	$bar{u}ar{\imath}$	ta būī	tu būī
bū, aw hābū, aw bū	$bar{u}$	$aw b \bar{u}$	arv bū
būn, am hābūn, am bū	$b\bar{u}n$	a:n būn	aima būn
būn, hūn hābūn, hūn bū	$b\bar{u}n$	hūn būn	aiwa būn
būn, vān hābūn, vān bū	$b\bar{u}n$	vān būn	awān būn

Negative

I was not, etc. I did not become, etc.

Both Groups

nābūm	_	nābūn
nābūī		nābūn
nābū		nābūn

Imperfect

Affirmative

I used to be, etc.	I used to become, etc.
NG	、SG
az dabūm	dam bū, ambū, būām
ta dabūī	dat bū, atbū, būāit
a v da $bar{u}$	daībū, ībū, būā
am dabūn	damānbū, mānbū, būāmān
hūn dabūn	datān bū, tānbū, būāitān
vān dabūn	dayān bū, yānbū, buāyān

Negative

I used not to be, etc.	I used not to become, etc.
az nadibūm	$nambar{u}$
ta nadibūī	$natbar{u}$
aw nadibū	$naar{\imath}bar{\imath}$
am nadibūn	namānbū
hūn nadibūn	natānbū
vān nadibūn	nayānbū

Perfect

Affirmative

I have been, etc.

NG

az būma, büina, habūya, būya ta būta, büita, habūya, būya aw būya, büna, habūya, būya

am būna, büina, habūya, būya hūn būna, büina, habūya, būya vān būna, büina, habūya, būya I have become, etc.

SG

dambūa, ambūa, būma
datbūa, atbūa, būta, būīya
daībūa, aībūa, būa
damānbūa, amānbūa, būna
datānbūa, atānbūa, būna
dayānbūa, ayānbūa, būna

Negative

I have not been, etc.

NG

NG

nābūma, tunabūm

nābūta, tunabūū

nābūya, tunabūa

nābūna, tunabūn

nābūna, tunabūn

nābūna, tunabūn

nābūna, tunabūn

natānbūa, nābūna

Pluperfect

nayānbūa, nābūna

nābūna, tunabūn

Affirmative

I had been, etc. I had become, etc.

Both Groups

 būbūm
 būbūn

 būbūī
 būbūn

 būbū
 būbūn

Negative

nābūbūm nābūbūn nābūbūī nābūbūn nābūbū nābūbūn

Subjunctive and Optative

I may become, May I become, etc. I may be, May I be, etc. NG SG SG NG bim $b\bar{a}m$ bām bim $b\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ bit bit bāī bī, bibāya, bāya bī bāt bā, bāt bān bān bin bin bin bin bān bān

Negative

bin

bin

bān

bān

As above, with $n\bar{a}$ prefixed.

Conditional

Affirmative .

If I be or become

Both Groups

bibim, büm bibin, büiāin bibit, būdī bibin, būiāin biba, būya bibin, būiān

Negative

nābim, nābüm nābin, nābüiāin nābit, nabüāi nābin, nābüiāin nāba, nabüya nābin, nabüiān

Future

Affirmative

I shall be or become

NG SG
bibim, debūm dabimawa, dabim, dabūm
bibī, debūī dabitawa, dabī, dabūī
biba, debū dabīwa, dabī, dabū
bibin, debūn dabinawa, dabin, dabūn
bibin, debūn dabinawa, dabin, dabūn
bibin, debūn dabinawa, dabin, dabūn

Negative

With $n\bar{a}$ in the place of bi in NG and in place of da in SG.

Imperative

Positive

Become! be!

NG SG bai bī bin bin

Prohibitive

NG and SG maba

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Past Participle

Been, become

NG

SG

būa, bīa, habūa

 $b\bar{u}a$

USES OF THE TENSES

(a) Present Indicative

While the future has its own form, it is not at all unusual for the present indicative of the verb 'to become' to perform its duties, and it is permissible to say, for example—

> hailak dabūm hailak dabimawa

I shall be tired I shall be tired

without there being any difference in the sense.

(b) Present Indicative, second form (affixial form).

This form is that which is most generally used, and it attaches to whatever is the penultimate word of the sentence, the ultimate position being its own, as a verb. Examples of present indicative uses-

- I. Hawā sār-a. The weather is cold.
- 2. Hīw rūzhin-a. The moon is bright.
- 3. Min karwāni-m. I am a caravaneer.
- 4. Atū gāoj-ī. Thou art a fool.
- 5. Aima jengkar-in. We are fighting men.
- 6. Aiwa sālker-in. You are beggars.
- 7. Awān pīska-in. They are miserly.
- 8. Dāorīshī gedā shāh dabī, shāh gedā abī. The beggar priest becomes a king, the king becomes a beggar.
- 9. Min mazānī chün dabī. I knew how it would be.
- 10. Min mastī khiālātī kasīk-im. I am drunk with the thoughts of one.

II. Dabaizhī min sultān-im. He says, 'I am the Sultan'

- 12. Min zairkirrī tu nīm. I am not thy slave.
- 13. Zīānī wī tunna. It is not his loss.
- 14. Gūt mīrü wā nīna wi nābit. He said to the man, 'This is not and cannot be.'
- 15. Aw qat wā tunīna. Verily it is not so.
- 16. Dimāldā nīnin. They are not in the house.
- 17. Sālī tir rasm dabī. Next year it will become the custom.

In example 9 it is noticed that the word $dab\bar{i}$ is translated as 'it would be'. This is owing to the rule that narrative of any kind must be an exact quotation of what happened in the past, as if it were in the present. The literal translation is, then, 'I knew "how it will be",' where the use of the present indicative of the verb 'to become' is used as a future for the verb 'to be'—see (a). The same use is noticed in example 14, where the word nābit indicates a future sense.

In this manner the 3rd person singular verb 'to become' acquires the meaning 'to be possible', and is used in that signification very frequently, for by saying 'it will not be' a meaning is conveyed that 'it cannot be', and this is one of the commonest uses of the verb 'to become', as—

pīāo nābī bifarrī

a man cannot fly, lit. 'it will not be that a man fly'

azānim nābī

hagar abī bom bīainaī if you can, bring it for me I know it will be impossible

(c) Present Indicative form—haima, haim, ham, etc.

It will have been remarked that the affixial form of the verb as exemplified in (b) could not be used unless it had a word to which to affix itself. Where none exists, then, the complete form must be used, as-

kich limāl-a? is the girl at home? arai, hayya yes, she is

Whenever it is desired to contradict a statement or to emphasize one, this form of the verb is used, as-

irūozh sār niyva tū āghāī minī?

it is not cold to-day chün niyya, zūr sār hayya how is it not, it is very cold are you my master?

āghāit haim

I am thy master

This form of the verb is also separate whenever it has the meaning of 'to exist', 'to have being', which is one of the most general of its meanings, as in the following examples:-

NG dīsanī labīgīrīwī hayya, va qawī māmūrā vān hain so there is (of them) at Bigiriwi, and their appointments are many

la har kas dul sūozī hayya in every man there exists mercy

dikurdistānī zāf hain

there are many in Kurdistan, lit. 'in Kurdistan many they are'

zhinā min hayya

it is my wife, or I have a wife, i.e. 'there is to me a wife'

SG am ghazala wurda khiālakī hayya there is but a little idea in this sonnet

(d) Preterite

It will be noticed that both the verb 'to be' and the verb 'to become' are the same in the SG, and that the NG also possesses identical forms which are very generally used. It is possible, then, to encounter two words in a sentence exactly the same, one having the meaning

'was' or 'were' and the other the meaning 'became', as in the following sentence:-

SG jārān nāsākh bū pāshī du māng chāk bū formerly he was ill, but after two months became well where the first $b\bar{u}$ signifies 'was' and the second $b\bar{u}$ 'became'. Examples-

na jhu bum na musarmana nor Jew was I nor Mussulman

haf sad khulām mīn habūn

I had seven hundred servants, lit. 'there were seven hundred servants to me'

Khosrū o Mahmūd o Farhād, har sī shāzda būn Khosru and Farhad and Mahmud, all three were princes

har chī haistr habūna birrīn they took all the mules there were

Besides the ordinary signification of the preterite it may also stand for the perfect in describing an action which has just occurred, as in the following example:-

SG har īsta süār bū he has just mounted, lit. 'just now a rider he became?

This use, which would appear to be incorrect grainmatically, is common to Persian also, which makes free use of the form. The NG, however, does not appear to employ it to such an extent as does the SG.

(e) Perfect

Examples of the use of the perfect, the one form of which expresses both the perfect of the verb 'to be' and of the verb 'to become '-

NG Kerhī o Ahmī büina nāwī kasikī tūna būn

> nāsākham būa hashtīa wī hishkabūn. būna vakā dāra sāla haftā tamām būva

become like wood seventy years have been finished SG hīzum ī mutbakh sūoz the wood within the grate

Karhi and Ahmad have been

there has not been the name

his bones dried up and had

of anyone

I have been ill (SG)

has been burnt

 $b\bar{u}a$

It will be noticed that the perfect is used in instances where the preterite would often be used in English, as in the first two examples, which are taken from a story which relates events which might in English well be in the preterite. This use of the perfect is governed by no regular rule, and must be learned by inspection. The SG makes some certain slight modifications in the sentence which indicate whether the word used is part of the verb 'to be' or part of the verb 'to become', and the following examples may serve to illustrate to a certain extent this idiom.

If we say jārān shāraka gāorā būa, the meaning is 'once the town has been a big one', but if we put the word jārān in the definite singular and say jāreka shār gāorā būa, the meaning is properly 'it is a long time that the town has become a big one', though this rule is not absolute. In the word jar and its inflections we have the reason for the different interpretations of the verb. The word jārān denotes a definitely past time, and since the action of becoming denotes a progression or duration of time, it is obvious that the verb 'to become' is not that which is intended by $b\bar{u}a$, but a word which will agree in sense with iārān, which word is būa, 'has been.' Jāreka, meaning

'a long time', also has the meaning 'since a long time', and with this meaning it is possible to imagine the progression of the action of becoming great, wherefore the interpretation of the word $b\bar{u}a$ as 'has become' is logical.

In Sina (Ardalan) and occasionally in Sulaimania (Southern Turkish Kurdistan) the form is encountered which inserts a g to strengthen the word, making bügūma for būma, bügūta for būta, etc.

(f) Pluperfect

This form, though met with in poetry, will seldom be encountered in colloquial language, its duties being performed to a great extent by the perfect itself.

(g) Subjunctive and Optative

Examples of the use of subjunctive—

SG hagar sātī labīrim chū hailakī zhāmī izhdar bim if I should forget for an hour, may I be slain with a dragon's wound

khwash bī shālā May it be pleasant, God willing NG zhibo bchukīdī Kurmānjān, wakī la Qur'ān khalās bin, lāzima la sawādī chāf nās bin

For Kurdish children, what time they may have learned the Qur'an it is necessary that they be acquainted with writing.1

(h) Conditional

Examples of the use of the conditional—

SG hagar bība darrūim

if it be possible, I will go SG diyār būyā, bāsha if it be visible, it is well qenjtira ki rrash būtān it is better that they be black

¹ From the Nobhar of Ahmadī Khanī Hakkārī (see Introduction).