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THE DIALECT OF AWROMAN (HAWRĀMĀN-Ī LUHŌN)

Grammatical sketch, texts, and vocabulary

BY

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Introduction

Year the turn of this century three Europeans in succession visited the mountainous district of Awroman (Hawrāmān), in the west of the Persian province of Kurdistan (Ardalan), and made notes on the dialects spoken there. The first to publish his not very considerable notes was J. DE MORGAN, in 1904. By that time both Age Meyer Benedictsen and Oskar Mann had returned with the fruits of their labours, but neither immediately published his material.

Although both these scholars actually visited Awroman, the greater part of their linguistic notes was made beforehand in the town of Sanandaj (Sina). It is possible that Mann became aware of a certain discrepancy between his notes and the dialect of Awroman proper, due to the shortcomings of his informant. At least, whatever the reason, he did not mention the dialect specifically in the plan for the appropriate part of his great Kurdisch-Persische Forschungen. Nevertheless his notes were published, after his death, by HADANK.3 It will, therefore, be necessary to return to the question of their accuracy.

The most important collection of notes and texts was undoubtedly that made by Benedictsen. Unfortunately it was not until 1921, when in his own words 'les textes ne m'étaient plus bien familiers, et que bien des passages m'étaient devenues incompréhensibles', that his material was published, 'grâce aux lumières et au zèle inlassable de M. Arthur Christensen'.3

In the light of new material it is now possible to give a clearer picture of the morphological processes of the language. These are of a surprising complexity for a modern West Iranian dialect. They are far more intricate, for example, than those of any Kurdish dialect, though Hawrāmī forms an island in a Kurdish sea. Indeed, in many ways Hawrāmī has the aspect of a somewhat archaic Middle Iranian dialect. Not the least of its claims for attention is the light it throws on the history of neighbouring Kurdish dialects.4

¹ In Mission scientifique en Perse, tome V, Etudes linguistiques, Paris, 1904.

Mundarten der Gürün, besonders das Kändülät, Auramant und Bädschälant, bearbeitet von Karl Hadank,

Berlin, 1930, pp. 367-395.

amples was brought into line with that used in my description of Kurdish (see below). In the present work

^a Les dialectes d'Awroman et de Pawa, textes recueillis par Âge Meyer Benedictsen, revus et publiés avec des notes et une esquisse de grammaire par Arthur Christensen, Copenhagen, 1921 (Hist, Filol, Medd. Dan. Vid. Selsk., VI, 2) [cited B-C]; also 'Some New Awromani Material prepared from the collections of Age Meyer Benedictsen', by A. Christensen, BSOAS, 8, 467-476 [B-C, II].

See my 'Origins of Kurdish', TPS, 1961, 68-86. In that article the transcription of Hawrami ex-

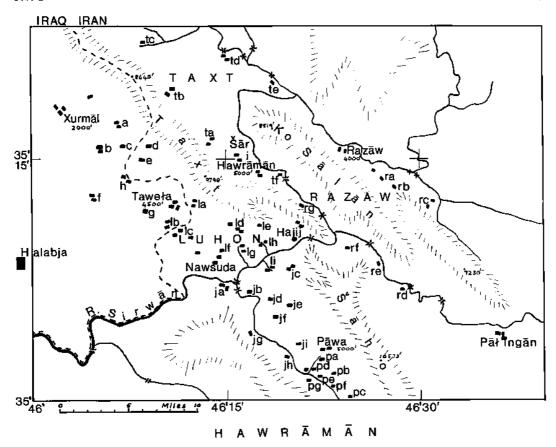
In 1957 I had the good fortune to meet in London a young man from Awroman, Taḥsīn, son of Muḥammad Amīn, originally of the district of Luhōn (see Map). Now when Benedictsen visited 'Naw-e-Sūtä' (recte Naws¹ūda) in 1901 he was the guest of the 'sultān-e-Lohūn' [sic], who, however, regarded him with 'une méfiance croissante' and in the end 'une inimitié ouverte' which forced him to retire from the scene sooner than he would have wished. It was to our common amusement, therefore, that Tahsin and I decided this 'sultān' must have been his great-grandfather, namely Ḥama Sacīd Sān (= Sultān), father of Jāfar Sān, father of Muḥammad Amīn Sān.⁵ My friend proved ready and willing to make amends for his ancestor and the following notes are based entirely on information kindly supplied by him in the course of many months of periodic questioning. Thanks are also due to the School of Oriental and African Studies, of the University of London, which made his co-operation possible.

Hawrāmī is a Gōrānī dialect and, as will appear, probably the most archaic and best preserved of the group. The dialect described here is that of Hawrāmān-ī Luhōn, and more specifically of its chief village Nawsūda. This was the home of Jafar San and his family until 1932, when he went into exile in Iraq. There he died, in Halabja, in about 1943. Tahsin was born in a Hawrāmī village in Iraq. On the family's return to Persia his father went to live in Pāwa, which he therefore considered his home. Nevertheless he was well aware of the differences between his mother tongue and the dialect of Pāwa. To avoid any chance of confusion, however, I preferred to restrict my enquiries to his own dialect. It must be said further that his second language is the Kurdish of Suleimaniye. While it is always possible that this may have influenced his Hawrāmī, his remarkable consistency under cross-examination leads me to think not.

I have felt obliged to reverse the process and transcribe the occasional quotations from Kurdish according to the scheme demanded by the description of Hawrāmī.

⁵ See the family tree given by C. J. Edmonds, Kurds, Turks and Arabs, London, 1957, p. 155, to which work the reader is also referred for a full description of Awroman (see Index, s. v. Hewrámán).

Balxa.



Key to the map.

(Villages identified from the 1/4 inch: 1 mile map by Taḥsin.)

b Gulp.	e <i>Hāna garm</i> ła.	h <i>Biāra.</i>
c ? Bāxa kon.	f Xarpāni.	
Luhon. Nawsuda.		
la <i>Zāwar</i> .	ld Nodša.	lg Šarākān.
Ib Sosakān.	le Bentrwe.	lh <i>Daraw Hajijiā</i> .
lc Šošme.	lf Narwi.	li $Wuar{r}ar{a}$.

 $Berw\bar{a}z.$

 \mathbf{d}

Hajij.

Daray mar.

¥	
144-3	== -
ыwя	nra

ja Hirwe.* jb Daribar.* jc Dāriān.	jd je jf	Komadara.* Nījār.* Šawalxe.*	jg jh ji	Dīša. G(1)rāla. Nuriāw.*
Pāwa. <i>Pāwa</i> .				
pa Xānagā. pb Durisān.* pc Darabayān.*	pd pe	Nosma. Darmur.	pf pg	Sarkrān. Bındara.
Taxt, Šāri Hawrāmān,				
ta Kamālā. tb Darawki.	te td	Dizli.	te	Tıfti.

th Darawki.	tc	Dızli.	te	Tıfli.
	td	Bărămāwā,	tf	S(1)len,
Razāw. Razāw.				

rb	Dagāgā. Māzibm. Bridar.		Dałamarz. Zom.		Asparez. Kalji.
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^{*} Kurdish-speaking population.

Phonology

§ 1. The phonemic system of Hawrāmī is remarkably similar to those of the surrounding Kurdish dialects of Suleimaniye and Sina. There are 26 consonants (including two semi-vowels), which may be represented by the same symbols as have already been adopted for the Kurdish dialects. The vowel phonemes, however, 10 in number, present a problem of representation. For various reasons, particularly the close relationship between 'long $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} ' and the corresponding semi-vowels, the diacritics traditionally used are inadequate for our purposes. The symbols used below, therefore, may appear strange at first sight.

	Labial	Dental, Alveolar	Palato- Alveolar	Velar	Uvular	Pharyn- gal	Glottal
Stop and Affricate	р b	t d	č j	k g	q		
Fricative	f	s² z	š ž	x	-	<u>h</u>	h
Nasal	m	n					
Lateral		l t					_
Vibrant		r ř					
Semi-vowel	w		y				

Consonants.

- § 2. Of the consonants it is the dental and alveolar series which requires most definition.
- (a) d, normally a voiced dental stop, is realized in post- and inter-vocalic position, and between r and a following vowel, as a continuant [ə], as in the Kurd. of Sul. and Sina.³ This sound, represented in the notes of Andreas⁴ and Benedictsen by δ ,

¹ See my Kurdish Dialect Studies, London, 1961, I, § 1.

² As in Sul. Kurdish (v. KDS, I, § 10b), the Arabic emphatic consonant <u>sas</u> is heard in the two words <u>sas</u> '60' and <u>sad</u> '100' only.

³ KDS, I, §§ 8b, 37.

⁴ Iranische Dialektaufzeichnungen, aus dem Nachlass von F. C. Andreas, zusammen mit Kaj Barr... bearbeitet und herausgegeben von Arthur Christensen, Berlin, 1939, p. 215.

without further definition, is a half-close central continuant caused by the tip of the tongue approaching the upper teeth without making contact. Thus it is not a fricative and will be written here d, i. e. as a continuant allophone of d.

An exception is the d of the 2nd person plural verbal ending -de. Although Benedictsen gives $-\delta\ddot{a}$ as a variant of his $-d\ddot{a}$, Tahsin never realized this as other than a dental stop in any context.

kard 'he did', karda 'done', karde 'you do'

In one context d is entirely absorbed, viz. by a following i, e. g. -idi > -i in $b^{\dagger}idia$ [\dagger bi: ϵ] 'look!'

(b) The same continuant [a] is heard as the normal realization in final position of the 2nd singular personal pronoun suffix, in contrast with the non-final form -(1)t. The continuant is accordingly written t.

hāy-t-ā 'art thou awake?'
dižman-iţ 'thy enemy', aḍā-ţ 'thy mother'

(c) The phoneme n comprises, beside the normal voiced dental nasal, a velar allophone [n]. This is never heard without a following g(k), however fleeting.

angusa [aŋˈgusa, aŋˈɛusa] 'finger' dang [daŋg, daŋɛ/k] 'fame'

In a few numerals it is realized as a nasalization of the preceding vowel \tilde{a} , thus $y\tilde{a}nza$ [j \tilde{a} ; z \tilde{a}] 'eleven'.

(d) l and l, r and \bar{r} , correspond exactly to the same phonemes of Sul. Kurd.⁵ l is a front and l a back, velarized, dental lateral. r is an alveolar flap, while \bar{r} is rolled. Neither l nor r ever occur in initial position in a word.

mila 'mountain pass'

: mila 'mouse'

māru 'I bring'

: māru 'I break'

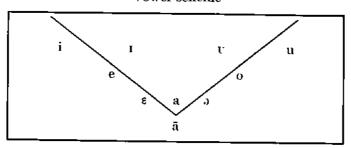
(e) h and c, occurring mainly in loanwords from Arabic, are quite distinct from h and the glottal stop [?] respectively.

horia 'houri', hāzīr 'ready' cumr 'age', (c)amra 'order'

Vowels.

- § 3. Seven of the vowel phonemes are 'long', $i e \epsilon \bar{a} > o u$, and three 'short', i = u.
- (a) Of the short vowels *t*, a slightly open, central [i], is particularly unstable. In unstressed position between consonants it is frequently not realized.
 - ⁶ KDS, I, §§ 13-16.





w[|]tt 'he said' ktt[|]ebtm 'my book' w[|]tstt' 'you put' : n¹awi 'he did not say' : ā k(i)tebm¹a 'that my book'

: w_| isttar | a 'you dropped it'

In such cases raised I will normally be written, as

 $naw^{I}t$, \bar{a} $kiteb^{I}ma$, $wist^{I}tara$.

(b) In initial syllables both I and U are prone to reduction in certain contexts, even when stressed, e. g.

 $*t^{\dagger}Ifi > t^{I}f^{\dagger}i, \ *k^{\dagger}Ita > k^{I}t^{\dagger}a, \ *b^{\dagger}Is\bar{a}nu > b^{I}s^{\dagger}\bar{a}nu, \ *k^{\dagger}Usi > k^{w}s^{\dagger}i, \ *k^{\dagger}Usu > k^{w}s^{\dagger}u$

- (c) u is realized as a short, slightly open [u], except as in these last examples (i. e. the word k^wsi and the verbal stem $k^wsi-kvsitay$) where the sequence $k^wsi-kvsitay$ without syllabic value. [Following w-, [u] is probably to be considered an allophone of I in every case.]
- (d) a ranges from an open front [a], normally, to near half-open [ϵ], particularly in final position. It is quite distinct, however, from the phoneme long ϵ .
- (e) The long vowels i, u are very near to cardinal position. When unstressed and preceded by another vowel they are realized as semi-vowels, i. e. form diphthongs $(v.\ infra)$. Unstressed i, u followed by another vowel, however, do not become entirely semi-vocalic, i. e. they do not always appear to lose their syllabic nature.

lu|e [lu/w|e:] 'they went'
us|e 'he was sleeping'
wiar|u [wi/ja|fu:] 'I pass'
ku|eb, kut|ebi 'book' (direct, oblique
singular)

: l'ue ['lu:e'] if he had gone' : n'awse 'he was not sleeping'

: w'iaru ['wi:afu'] 'if I pass' : zārot'a, zārot'ay 'child' (f) A special case of the realization of unstressed i, u followed by another vowel is that of verbs with initial y-, w-, with the modal prefixes m(i)-, b(i)-. Thus

mi-yār'i is realized [mi/ja:|fi:]
mi-war'u is realized [mu/wa'fu:]

It appears convenient to retain the phonemic spellings -1y-, -1w-, for these i, u.

mmwar'u 'I eat' : mmwaru'ɔ [mu/wafu/w'ɔ:] 'I drink'
mmwar'i [mu/wafii:] 'you eat' : mmwari'ɔ [mu/wafi/j'ɔ:] 'you drink'

(g) In contrast with the diphthong ay the vowel sequence $a^{\dagger i}$ also occurs, e. g. $z\bar{a}rola^{\dagger}i$ 'childhood'.

The diphthongs can, therefore, hardly be written in any other way than ay and, by analogy, aw. It is equally possible to write phonetically yV, wV (V representing any vowel) whenever they occur. However, in view of the constant alternation between $i/y^{\parallel}V$ and $^{\parallel}iV$, $u/w^{\parallel}V$ and $^{\parallel}uV$ in verbal paradigms, it seems preferable to retain the vowel phonemes i, u regularly in this context, as in the examples above. For this reason the macron as a diacritic is out of place here.

(h) The half-close long vowels e, o are quite distinct from the half-open ε , o respectively.

 $b^{\dagger}ie$ 'they were' $lu^{\dagger}ene$ 'they were going' $w^{\dagger}aro$ 'if he eat' $wari^{\dagger}o$ 'it is eaten'

: $b^{\dagger}ie$ 'if he had been'

: $lu^{\dagger}ene$ 'they have gone'

: $w^{\dagger}aro$ 'drink!'

: $wari^{\dagger}o$ 'it is eaten'

(j) In unstressed position before another vowel o is normally indistinguishable from the close u, e. g.

 $fo^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ [ru[|]a:], oblique plural of fo 'day', $biro^{\dagger}e$ [bifu[|]e:], plural of biro 'brow'.

(k) ε is most frequently the product of the juncture of \bar{a} and following e. Compare

 $wrt/w^{\dagger}rte$ 'he / they slept' : $\bar{a}m^{\dagger}\bar{a}/\bar{a}m^{\dagger}\varepsilon$ 'he / they came' $krt^{\dagger}eb/krt^{\dagger}ebe$ 'book / books' : $dag^{\dagger}\bar{a}/dag^{\dagger}\varepsilon$ 'village / villages'.

It is also the result of the reduction of final -ewa in certain circumstances (v. § 24). In a few cases it appears to be the result of $Im\bar{a}la$, e. g. er 'fire' (< * $\bar{a}dir$, OIr. $\bar{a}tar$ -); but compare kn^leb 'book' (< Ar. $knt\bar{a}b$). The latter form is normal in Kurd., from which it is probably borrowed.

(1) σ has only one function. It appears for the suffix -(a)wa following a consonant or the vowels i, u.

```
warenew a 'I was drinking', waru ' 'I drink' wareni ' 'you were drinking', wari ' 'you drink' warew a 'he was drinking', warow a 'he drinks' w ardewa 'drink ye!' w aro 'drink!'
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bòqaš niā kīnāčakéwa / mezakáyə 'he pushed the girl / table'

Juncture.

§ 4. Apart from the juncture of $-\ddot{a} + -e$, yielding $-\varepsilon$, the following alone have any major effect on morphological processes.

-a is normally absorbed by a preceding vowel other than i, u. Thus

 $y\bar{a}n^{\dagger}a$, $pi^{\dagger}\bar{a} + -i^{\dagger}a$ remain $y\bar{a}n^{\dagger}a$, $pi^{\dagger}\bar{a}$, $war^{\dagger}e$, $war^{\dagger}o + -aw^{\dagger}a > warew^{\dagger}a$, $warow^{\dagger}a$.

On the other hand, final -a is displaced by following -e.

 $da + -|ene\rangle d|ene, y\bar{a}n|a + -ew\rangle y\bar{a}n|ew.$

Stress.

§ 5. Stress plays a major role in Hawrāmī. Its position alone may either distinguish between otherwise identical forms or entail certain morphological consequences.

'they went' : $l^{\dagger}ue$ 'if he had gone' $lu^{\dagger}\varepsilon$: Jāmene 'if I had come' ām!ene 'they have come' $m^{\dagger}\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ 'it is a snake' : mār ā 'they bring' 'laugh!' 'laughter' $: x^{\dagger}ua$ $xu^{\dagger}a$ 'good (fem. sing.)' $x\bar{a}s^{\dagger}a$ 'goodness' $: x^{\dagger} \bar{a} s a$: poł āmā-na 'it is our steel' $pol^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ -n 'it is steel'

(a) Each word has one invariable loud stress, the position of which is not predictable except within certain inflectional patterns. This main word stress is marked by [1-] before the stressed *vowel* (not necessarily *syllable*). Words, or phrases, of three or more syllables may also have an appreciable secondary stress, marked [1-], the position of which bears no fixed relation to that of the main stress.

Pretonic: 1 mınišu_lar^la 'I am sitting down' 2 niš ener a 'I was sitting down' 'I sat down' 3 n_iištāner a $n^{\dagger}al_{1}\bar{a}ne$ 'I did not go' Posttonic: 1 $m^{\dagger}as\bar{a}n_{\dagger}u$ 'I do not buy' 'if I do not sit down' 3-4 n anišuar_ia 'I was not sitting down' n|anišener_|a 4 n'aništabener a 'I had not sat down'

In these examples the stress pattern is determined by the fixed order of precedence of the stresses of the various prefixes, stems, endings and suffixes.

(b) The only examples of a shift of stress away from the normal pattern occur when a vowel irregularly loses its syllabic character. Its stress is then taken by the following syllable.

 $b^{\dagger}llu$ 'if I go', but $b^{\dagger}s^{\dagger}\bar{a}nu$ [b|sa:nu'] 'if I take' $\bar{r}o/\bar{r}^{\dagger}oe$ 'day/days', but $bir^{\dagger}o/biro^{\dagger}e$ [bif'ue:] 'eyebrow/brows'

(c) Sentence stress differs only in degree from word stress. In complete utterances the main stresses are marked $[\dot{z}]$, the secondary stresses $[\dot{z}]$. Thus, $dir_{|}e\check{z}\bar{a}^{|}i+hiz|i+\check{s}^{|}awe+_{|}i$ $zangim^{|}a+_{|}a\check{z}ni>d^{|}re\check{z}\bar{a}i$ hizi $\check{s}\grave{a}we$ i $zang^{|}m\grave{a}$ $\check{a}\check{z}ni$. I heard this bell throughout last night'.

Morphology

Nominal Inflection.

- § 6. In the inflection of both nouns and adjectives a distinction of two numbers (singular and plural),¹ two grammatical genders (masculine and feminine), and two cases (direct and oblique) is observed.
- (a) A substantive appears in the oblique case when it is:
 - i) the direct object of a verb, and is at the same time defined,
 - ii) in genitival relation to another noun (v. § 9, ii),
 - iii) governed by a preposition (but see § 43 (c)),
 - iv) the agent, in certain circumstances, of a transitive verb (v. § 38 (a)).

In all other circumstances a noun appears in the direct case.

- (b) With nouns having no natural gender² the distinction of grammatical gender is mainly dependent on the form of the word. Thus nouns which in their simple form end in a consonant, or in the stressed vowels $-^{1}a$, $-^{1}i$, $-^{1}o$, $-^{1}u$, are masculine. Those ending in unstressed -a or -i, or in stressed $-^{1}e$, are feminine. Most nouns ending in $-^{1}\bar{a}$ are masculine, but a few are feminine.
- § 7. All adjectives (other than those listed in § 13), whether attributive or predicative, agree with the nouns they qualify in number, gender and case.³ They accordingly show the fullest inflection. The inflectional morphemes are the same for all nouns and adjectives, viz. obl. sg. M. -i (-y), F. -e, and dir. pl. -e, obl. - $^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ for both genders. When these are joined with the simple nominal forms there emerge three main patterns of inflection.

1 A small number of nouns appear only in the plural, e. g. f'lle 'clothes', g'lže 'hair', sIm'ele 'mou-

* Except that of two or more attributive adjectives joined by u 'and' only the last takes inflectional endings.

² With some animals the sexes are distinguished by different names, e. g. asp 'horse', mā'ini 'mare'; g'āwa (F!) 'ox', māng'āwa 'cow'; bar'ān 'ram', m'aya 'sheep'; sābr'in 'he-goat', b' lza 'she-goat'; tut'a 'dog', d'ala 'bitch'; yakān'a 'wild boar', d'ara 'wild sow'. For other animals the same noun, with fixed gender, serves for both sexes, e. g. Masc. b lzl'a 'kid', hawreš'a 'rabbit', xug 'pig'; Fem. 'āska 'gazelle', h'ašša 'bear'. k lt'a, F. 'cat' has irregular stress.

I. Adjectives and Masc. nouns ending in a consonant, or stressed -1i, -1o, -1u; Fem. nouns ending in unstressed -a, -i.

Sg. Dir. Obl. PI. Dir. Obl.	Masc. pir 'old (animate)' p'iri p'ir pir	Fem. p [†] ira p [†] ire re
Sg. Dir. Obl. Pl. Dir. Obl. Sg. Dir.	har 'donkey' h ⁱ ari h ⁱ are har ⁱ ā Ēo 'day'	māh [†] ara 'she-ass' māh [†] are māh [†] are māhar [†] ā
Obl. Pl. Dir. Obl.	roy r oe ⁴ ro ā	

Fem. nouns ending in -i preserve this in the direct case, both sg. and pl., but only in isolation. When they are joined with any other form (except a simple epithet) they are inflected as if they ended in -a.

Sg. Dir.	k¹ārḍi (k¹ārḍa-) 'knife'
Obl.	k arde
Pl. Dir.	k ārdi (k ārde-)
Obl.	kārd ā

II. Adjectives and Masc. nouns ending in stressed -1a; Fem. nouns ending in stressed -1e.

Sg. Dir. Obl. Pl. Dir. Obl.	Masc. kon ^l a 'old (inanimate)' kon ^l ay kon ^l e kon ^l ä	Fem. kon ^l e kon ^l e
Sg. Dir. Obl. Pl. Dir. Obl.	yān ^j a 'house' yān ⁱ ay yān ^j e yān ^j ā	

Fem. nouns ending in -le only preserve this in isolation. When they are joined with any other form (except either Izafe) they lose this ending and are inflected as if they ended in -la.

⁴ Exceptionally bIr's 'eyebrow', pl. bIro'e (v. § 3 (j)).

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Sg. Dir. kin\bar{a}\check{c}^{\dagger}e\ (kin\bar{a}\check{c}^{\dagger}a\text{-})\ 'girl' Obl. kin\bar{a}\check{c}^{\dagger}e Pl. Dir. kin\bar{a}\check{c}^{\dagger}e Obl. kin\bar{a}\check{c}^{\dagger}\bar{a}
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III. Adjectives, and nouns of either gender, ending in stressed $-1\bar{a}$.

	Masc.	Fem.
Sg. Dir.	$ji^{\dagger}ar{a}$ 'separate'	Ĭi¹e
Obl.	ji¹āy	jίε
Pl. Dir.	<i>J</i> i¹ε	
Obl.	Jiāy	$^{ ar{a} }$
Sg. Dir.	$pi^{\dagger}ar{a}$ 'man'	$a d^{\dagger} \bar{a}$ 'mother'
Obl.	pi¹āy	a ₫ ¹ε
Pl. Dir.	$pi^{\dagger}arepsilon$	$a ot\! d^4 arepsilon$
Obl.	piāy ⁱ ā	aḍāy¹ā

Examples.

kitéb / kitébe bàra	- bring a book / books!
yāná / yāné karò	build a house / houses!
kárdi bàra	bring a knife, knives!
kīnāčé čīīa	call a girl, girls!
dagá / dagé b ¹ sàna	buy a village / villages!
ja äs _i mi taxt _i ay taw _i ane faqt ⁱ ar	 harder than iron (ās¹in) / board (taxt¹a) / stone (taw¹ani)
čiřuč _l amu ž ⁱ ane kināč ⁱ e ad ⁱ e	- the face of a woman $(\tilde{z}^{\dagger}ani)$ / girl / mother
kıt ebu kvf ä piäy ā žan ā kınāč ā	- a book of (= for) boys (kvr̄) / men / women / girls

Definition.

- § 8. The degree of definiteness of a substantive may be marked by any one from three pairs of suffixes, according to its gender.
- (a) The suffixes -ew M., -ewa F., express singleness or indefiniteness. Their presence naturally precludes the plural morphemes and the oblique morphemes expressing
- 5 A fem. noun takes the suffix -ew, however, when it quantifies another noun (v. § 10) or when a greater degree of indefiniteness is intended. The obl. is then -ewi.

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š,awew ja šaw'ā

- one night (ś'awa) from the nights

- a pitcherful (āflāw'e; cf. āflāw,eway p'aīa 'a full

pitcher')

č,inna s'ālew

yāwà dagéw

- one night (ś'awa) from the nights

- a pitcherful (āflāw'e; cf. āflāw,eway p'aīa 'a full

pitcher')

- some years (s'āla)

- he came to a village (dag'ā F.)
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• Indefiniteness in the plural is marked only by the absence of any of the following defining suffixes.

dàmu kārdáyč mlwarð – he even eats knife-blades dàmu kārdakā tét karə – sharpen the blades of the knives. a direct object. Otherwise a noun with either suffix is declined according to pattern I above.

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hlarew, floew, yānlew, pilew — a donkey, day, house, man māhlarewa, klārdewa, kmāčlewa, adlewa — a she-ass, knife, girl, mother kitébew / kārdewa bāra — bring a book / knife! — a knife-blade sarļaw pilewi / kmāčlewe — a man's / girl's head
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(b) A substantive is normally defined by one of the suffixes $-ak^{\dagger}a$ M., $-ak^{\dagger}e$ F. With these suffixes the noun is declined mainly according to pattern II above.

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harak<sup>|</sup>a, řok<sup>|</sup>a, yānak<sup>|</sup>a piäk<sup>|</sup>a
                                                     - the donkey, day, house, man
harak<sup>l</sup>e, řok<sup>l</sup>e, yänak<sup>l</sup>e, piāk<sup>l</sup>e
                                                     - the donkeys, days, houses, men
m\bar{a}harak^{\dagger}e, k\bar{a}rdak^{\dagger}e, kin\bar{a}\check{c}ak^{\dagger}e, ad\bar{a}k^{\dagger}e - the she-ass(es), knife (knives), girl(s),
                                                            mother
but adekle
                                                      - the mothers
kitebakáy | kitebaká bàra
                                                      - bring the book / books!
kārdaké / kārdaká bàra
                                                      – bring the knife / knives!
sarıaw piāklay / kınāčakle
                                                     - the head of the man / girl
čiřuči amu žanak e / adāk e
                                                     - the face of the woman / mother
kıtıebe kufak<sup>l</sup>ā / kınāčak<sup>l</sup>ā
                                                     - the boys' / girls' books
```

(c) An isolated substantive qualified by a demonstrative adjective (v. § 13, i) always takes one of the suffixes -|a|M., -|e|F.

```
i har a, yān a, pi ā — this donkey, house, man \bar{a} māhar e, kār\dot{q} e, kinā\dot{c} e — that she-ass, knife, girl
```

Unlike -aka, however, this determinant normally follows all other inflectional morphemes and suffixes. When so separated from the qualified noun it is represented by -aka for both genders (and is therefore not realized after any vowel other than i, a).

```
    ā kiteb<sup>I</sup>m<sup>I</sup>a | kināčem<sup>I</sup>a
    i hariá | yānayá b<sup>I</sup>sàna
    buy this donkey | house!
    ā kārḍé | dagé b<sup>I</sup>sàna
    buy that knife | village!
    ā kitebimá | kināčemá bàra
    bring that my book | daughter!
    i har<sup>I</sup>e, yān<sup>I</sup>e, pi<sup>I</sup>e
    these donkeys, houses, men
```

⁷ In this case only was Tahsin in any doubt, as to whether 'that village' should be * \tilde{a} dag' \tilde{a} or * \tilde{a} dag' \tilde{c} (though in the course of a story he used \tilde{a} werag' \tilde{a} 'that evening'). The obl. sg. and dir. pl. forms are undoubtedly both \tilde{a} dag' \tilde{c} .

- those she-asses, knives, girls - those my books / daughters - those our books / daughters - buy these donkeys / houses! - buy those knives / villages!

- bring those my books / daughters! - bring those our books / daughters!

When a plural pronominal suffix is present, as in the examples marked + above, the definite suffix -|a| is concealed. Rarely the suffix -|a|, or at least its stress, may occur before such a pronominal suffix. The effect is to emphasize the individuality of the object defined.

ā kīteb amā kīnāč emā	– that our bóok / dáughter
ä kitebámā kināčémā pay b à ra	 bring that bóok / gírl for us
i k1teba siāwmā wānān5	 we have read this black book⁸
i kīteba siāwámā wānān)	 we have read this bláck book⁹

Izafe.

- § 9. There are two forms of Izafe in Hawrāmī, connecting a substantive with a following epithet or genitive respectively.
- i) The Epithetic Izafe is i(y). It is displaced, however, by the sg. noun endings -¹i, -i, -¹e, and by all inflectional morphemes. The following epithet, even a noun in apposition, agrees in number, gender and case with the substantive it qualifies.

kitjebi / kitjebewi si[†]āw kıtıebe siläwe yān_lay / yān_lewi gawr[|]a $y\bar{a}n_1e^-gawr^\dagger e$ t_iājeway ā**it**una m_iaray / m_iareway gawr e dag_iāy / dag_iɛway gawr e $m_{\parallel}a\bar{r}e \mid dag_{\parallel}e \mid gawr^{\parallel}e \mid$ tawiani / tawianeway si āwa tawiani silāwe kınāč_le / kınāč_leway zar^tifa kınāč_ie zar[|]ife Ja ās₁ıni xır¹ābi ja taxt_iay kon^lay ja pol₁āy bīrgad¹āri

- black books - a big house big houses - a crown $(t^{\dagger}\tilde{a}ja)$ of gold $(\tilde{a}tt^{\dagger}un)$ - a big cave (m|afa)

a black book

 a big village big caves / villages - a black stone - black stones - a beautiful girl - beautiful girls

- (made) from bad iron - (made) from old wood - (made) from shining steel

⁸ See § 38 (b). 9 See further § 9, i (c). Hist, Filos, Skr. Dan, Vid. Selsk. 4, no. 3.

Ja taw₁ane si¹āwe h₁inu ž¡anewe gošt¹ine

- (made) from black stonethat of a fat woman.
- (a) In the oblique plural the succession of two words, noun and epithet, each with the morpheme $-|\bar{a}|$ is avoided, the first $-\bar{a}$ being reduced to -a.¹⁰

dag_lew pařu yān_la gawr^lā k_lašew pařu mař_la wvčkl^lā yān_lew pay zārol_la badařaft^lā ine yāgapè žanà goštin**à**ne a village full of big houses
a mountain full of small caves
a home for delinquent children
these are the footprints of fat women.

That this vowel, -a, is a reduction of the morpheme $-\frac{1}{4}\bar{a}$, and not simply a compound vowel (see below), is shown clearly by the following example, in which it is realized after $-\bar{a}$.

h_line piāy_la goštīnⁱā

- those of fat men.

- the black book / books

- the Khan's black book

– bring the black book / books!

– that big house / those big houses

(b) When the qualified noun phrase is defined, either by the suffixes $-ak^{\dagger}a$, $-ak^{\dagger}e$ or by a demonstrative adjective, the Izafe construction is replaced by an 'open' compound construction. That is to say, the noun is joined to its epithet by a compound vowel -a (not realized after -a, $-\bar{a}$, but displacing the F. endings -i, -|e|) and the adjectival element is then inflected as if the phrase were a single substantive.

kti_leba siāwak^la | siāwak^le kti_leba siāwak_iaw x^lāni ktièba siāwakáy | siāwaká bāra ā yān_la gawr^la | gawr^le ā yānà gawrayá | gawrā wvīna ā yānà gawràw | gawrā xāniá wvīna

destroy that big house / those big houses
destroy that big house / those big houses of the Khan!
this big village, these big villages
buy this big village / these big villages!
the black stone(s)
bring the black stone / stones!

ā kīnāč_ta zarif[†]e ā kīnāčà zarifé / zarifá čīīa

i dagà gawré | gawrá b¹sàna

tawàna siāwaké / siāwaká bàra

i dag_lā gawr[†]e

tawiana siāwakie

bring the black stone / stones!
that beautiful girl, those beautiful girls
call that beautiful girl / those beautiful girls!

(c) In the case of a singular masculine noun qualified both by an adjective of inflectional type I^{11} and by a demonstrative adjective, the suffix $-^{l}a$ may appear twice, viz. once (with secondary stress) immediately following the adjective, which it emphasizes, and again finally.

11 The only case in which this phenomenon is observable.

¹⁰ The behaviour of the adjective tar 'other' in this context is exceptional; v. § 13 (b).

```
    ā kītèba siāwiá bằra
    ā kītèba siāwayá bằra
    bring that black book!
    bring that black book of the Khan!
    ā kītèba siāwa xāniá bằra
    bring that black book of the Khan!
    bring that black book of the Khan!
```

ii) The Genitival Izafe is u(w). This displaces the sg. obl. morphemes -i, -e, but is itself superseded by the M. sg. ending $-^{i}i$, F. sg. ending $-^{i}e$, and by both pl. morphemes, dir. -e, obl. $-^{i}\bar{a}$. The following genitive almost always appears in the obl. case. 12

```
h<sub>l</sub>aru / yān<sub>l</sub>aw šuān<sup>l</sup>ay
                                                    - the shepherd's donkey / house
h_1are / yān<sub>1</sub>e šuān<sup>1</sup>ay
                                                    - the shepherd's donkeys / houses
m\bar{a}h_{\parallel}araw \mid k_{\parallel}\bar{a}rdaw \mid dag_{\parallel}\bar{a}w \quad \check{s}u\bar{a}n^{\parallel}ay
                                                    - the shepherd's she-ass / knife / village
                                                    - the shepherd's daughter(s)
kīnāčie šuān ay
m\bar{a}h_{\parallel}are \mid k_{\parallel}\bar{a}rde \mid dag_{\parallel}\varepsilon \text{ šu}\bar{a}n^{\parallel}ay
                                                    - the shepherd's she-asses / knives / villages
h<sub>|</sub>arewu | yān<sub>|</sub>ewu šuān<sup>|</sup>ay
                                                    - a donkey / house of the shepherd
m\tilde{a}h_1arewaw | k_1\tilde{a}rdewaw šu\tilde{a}n^1ay
                                                    - a she-ass / knife of the shepherd
dag swaw | kınāč ewaw šuān ay
                                                    - a village / daughter of the shepherd
harak aw | yānak aw šuān ay
                                                    - the donkey / house of the shepherd
harakıe / yānakıe šuān'ay
                                                    - the donkeys / houses of the shepherd
māharak<sub>i</sub>e / kārdak<sub>i</sub>e / kīnāčak<sub>i</sub>e šuān<sup>i</sup>ay - the she-ass(es) / knife (knives) / daugh-
                                                           ter(s) of the shepherd
dag\bar{a}k_{\parallel}e / dag\varepsilon k_{\parallel}e \ \check{s}u\bar{a}n^{\parallel}ay
                                                    - the village / villages of the shepherd
                                                    - bring the shepherd's donkey!
hàru šuānakáy / harakàw šuānáy bằra
kàrdaw šuānakáy / kārdakè šuānáy bāra - bring the shepherd's knife!
hàre šuānakáy / harakà suānáy bàra
                                                     - bring the shepherd's donkeys!
kàrde šuānakáu / kārdakà šuānáu bàra
                                                    - bring the shepherd's knives!
ā h<sub>l</sub>aru / māh<sub>l</sub>araw šuānau a
                                                    - that donkey / she-ass of the shepherd
\bar{a} h_1 are / m\bar{a}h_1 are šuānay a
                                                    - those donkeys / she-asses of the shepherd
ā hàru / kằrdaw šuānayá bằra
                                                    - bring that donkey / knife of the shepherd!
ā harā | kārḍā šuānayá bāra
                                                    - bring those donkeys / knives of the shep-
                                                           herd!
```

(a) This same Izafe form occurs in a number of combinations where the genitival nature of the second element is sometimes less than obvious, e. g.

```
p_{\parallel}a\bar{r}u\ \bar{a}ft\bar{a}w^{\parallel}ewi — a pitcherful (pa\bar{r}u\dots generally 'full of ...')

ma\bar{s}\gamma_{\parallel}ulu\ harm^{\parallel}\bar{a}na — busy with, at work

p_{\parallel}\bar{a}w\ q\bar{a}n^{\parallel}uni — according to the law, legally

cáynu čèwi\bar{a} — it is exactly the same (replica of the thing).
```

It also helps to form a number of compound prepositions (v. § 43 (a)).

¹² See § 10.

Partitive relation.

§ 10. A partitive relation is not expressed with the genitive (oblique), but by the simple juxtaposition of the quantifying and quantified nouns.

 $sin_1 iew \ bir^{\dagger}inj$ — a tray of rice $\check{c}_{\parallel}inna \ s_{\parallel}arew \ na\check{c}^{\dagger}ir$ — some head of game $nimsa\check{c}at \ i\bar{a}$ — half an hour's journ

nimsacāt fā - half an hour's journey (of road) pàru āftāwèwi náwtam pay bằra - bring me a pitcherful of oil!

When the quantifying noun is feminine and singular it takes the suffix -ew, not -ewa.

 $h_{\parallel}itew \ k^{I}l^{\parallel}\bar{a}\check{s}e$ — a pair $(h^{\parallel}ita)$ of shoes $m_{\parallel}i\check{s}tew \ m^{\parallel}ak\check{i}$ — a handful $(m^{\parallel}i\check{s}ta)$ of salt

 $kom_1 \varepsilon w \ taxt_1 e \ ma\bar{r}i^{\dagger}\varepsilon$ — a heap $(kom^{\dagger}\bar{a})$ of broken boards

Note the (inexplicable) distinction between:

zàru piālèw čáym dà panà - give me the money of (= for) a cup of tea,

zàru dùe piālè čấym dà panà - for two cups of tea,

with 'cup' in the direct case in both sentences, and:

zàru čuầr / firà piālà čấym dà panà — give me the money for four / many cups of tea.

with the expected oblique case.

Vocative.

§ 11. A simple noun, or one qualified by a single epithet joined to it by the Izafe, is uninflected when used as a vocative.

|ay mat|ia - O aunt!

 $|ay mat|iay x|\bar{a}sa$ — O dear (good) aunt!

-O lad!

 $|ay| k_| v \tilde{r} i j u^| \tilde{a} n$ — O young lad! $|ay| m \tilde{a} m_| o y x^| \tilde{a} s$ — O dear uncle!

Such an epithet may be compounded with the noun, however, and the resulting open compound takes the defining suffixes M. -|a|, F. -|e|, in the vocative.

 $[ay \ mat_i | ia \ x\bar{a}s^i e$ — O dear aunt! — O young lad!

Similarly, when a noun is qualified by more than one epithet the final adjective may take the appropriate defining suffix.

ay fāhisày besàrmi bewaqāré - O shameless and undignified whore!

When no vocative particle is present the stress is brought forward to the first syllable of a noun.

 \tilde{r} óła– Child! $\dot{a}d\bar{a}$ – Mother! \underline{h} áma-tamał– Lazy Hama!

Comparison of adjectives.

§ 12. (a) The comparative is formed by the addition of $-t^{\dagger}ar$ to the simple adjective and inflects normally. In comparisons 'than' is expressed by the preposition ja.

polà ja tawàne faqtárā tawànewa niana ja almāsi faqtàra i tawanè ja kārde težtárana màžgewi xās xāstárā ja čīručàmewi juānxāsi

- steel is harder than stone
- there is no stone harder than diamond
- this stone is sharper than a knife
- a good brain is better than a handsome face.
- (b) A superlative in -tar in is used attributively, preceding the noun.

madāli_lew pay āzātar_lin cask^lari — a medal for the bravest soldier kti_lebew pay ziraktar_lin zārol^lay — a book for the eleverest child.

Predicatively, however, the superlative is normally expressed by the periphrasis 'more . . . than all . . . '.

ałmàs ja gırd tawànewe raqtárā

- diamond is the hardest stone.

Adjectives preceding the noun.

- § 13. The following classes of adjectives precede the nouns they qualify:
- i) The demonstrative adjectives \bar{a} 'that', i 'this', which are inflexible. The qualified noun, or noun phrase, takes the suffix -|a|, -|e| (v. § 8 (c)).
- ii) Numerals, both cardinal (§ 14) and ordinal (§ 15).
- iii) Superlatives (§ 12 (b)).
- iv) The following interrogative and indefinite adjectives, none of which agrees with the noun qualified. The noun may take an indefinite suffix -ew, -ewa (v. § 8 (a)).

čI 'what(ever)'
čInn(a) 'some'
fhān(a) 'such-and-such'
gIrd 'all'
hič (with the negative) '(not) any'
har, h!arči, hač 'whatever, whichever'
kām 'which'

či kitèbew miwānis - what book are you reading? činⁿ š awew - some nights činna midd[†]atew - some time mıdd_|atu č_|ınna m[|]āngewi - a period of some months fitjāna kias - such-and-such a person, so-and-so ja g_i Ird taw¹ anewe - than all stone(s) gird čjewit hlan - you have everything g^{\dagger} Iroew (g_{I}^{rd} roew) - every day hìč nàwca harmànewa nákare - he would do no kind of work har n|awcew - whatever kind, manner kām kītèbi mīwānib - which book are you reading?

(a) The adjective $fir^{\dagger}a$ 'many, much' may either precede or follow the noun it qualifies. Only when following does it agree with the noun.

 $m_{\parallel} \bar{a} r e f r r^{\parallel} e$ — many snakes $f r_{\parallel} a p i \bar{a} \bar{t}_{\parallel} e \check{c}^{\parallel} \bar{a} y$ — many cups of tea.

(b) The adjective tar 'other' always follows the noun it qualifies and accordingly agrees with it.

 $sac_{\parallel}\bar{a}tew\ t^{\parallel}ar$ - (in) another hour $kin\bar{a}\check{c}_{\parallel}eway\ t^{\parallel}ara$ - another girl $f_{\parallel}ila\ kon_{\parallel}e\ x_{\parallel}alqi\ t^{\parallel}ari$ - old clothes of other people $kin\bar{a}\check{c}_{\parallel}e\ t^{\parallel}are$ - other girls

It is exceptional, however, in that it does not take the obl. pl. morpheme $-^{i}\bar{a}$, but -i for both genders. The obl. morpheme of the preceding noun therefore remains unchanged (v. § 9, i (a)).

 $pes_{\parallel}a\ haz_{\parallel}\bar{a}r\ ju\bar{a}n_{\parallel}\bar{a}\ t^{\parallel}ari$ — like a thousand other youths $pes_{\parallel}a\ kin\bar{a}c_{\parallel}\bar{a}\ t^{\parallel}ari$ — like other girls — the peaks of other mountains

(c) 'Such' is expressed by $p\bar{a}s(n)^{\dagger}a$, $\epsilon\bar{a}mn^{\dagger}a$, etc., primarily adverbs meaning 'thus', following the qualified noun.

 $suālk_i$ ari čāmn i a — such a beggar $c\`ewi~p\=as(n)\`a~n\'abian$ — there has never been such a thing.

(d) Certain ordinary adjectives may occasionally precede the noun they qualify and are then uninflected. The effect is of greater emphasis.

caj ab kās b iew — a fine (strange) business! xās juābšā nádāwa — they did not give a straight (good) answer.

Cardinal numerals.

§ 14.	1	yak	11	yānz a ¹³	21	wis u y'ak
8	2	d¹ue	12	duānz ^l a		
	3	y ^l are	13	senz a	30	si
	4	ču ār	14	čuār d la	40	čıl
	5	panj	15	pănz ^Î a	50	panj̃∣ā
	6	šiš	16	šānz!a	60	ša <u>s</u> 14
	7		17	<u>h</u> awd¹a	70	<u>ħ</u> aft¹ā
	8	hašt	18	hažd¹a	80	ha š $t^{\dagger}ar{a}$
	9	no	19	$noz^{\dagger}a$	90	naw¹a <u>d</u>
	10	da	20	wis	100	$\underline{s}ad^{14}$
	10	uu			1,000	$haz^{ }ar{a}r$

(a) yak is the only adjectival form of 'one'

yak pi¹ā / ž¹ani

- one man / woman

In counting, however, the form y^luwa is used. Thus,

 $y^{\dagger}uwa$, $d^{\dagger}ue$, $y^{\dagger}are$, $\delta u^{\dagger}\bar{a}r$...

- one, two, three, four, etc.

This is, in fact, a feminine pronoun, the masculine equivalent being yo.

y ošā / y uwašā tanià yó / yúwa āmå - one (male / female) of them

- only one (man / woman) came.

(b) Normally a noun qualified by a cardinal appears in the plural.

panj šiš sulāre

- five or six horsemen

sad $s^{\dagger}\bar{a}te$

- a hundred years

dùe / yàre kitébem pay bàra

- bring me two / three books!

(c) When a definite noun is also qualified by the numerals '2' or '3' these, appearing as $d_{\parallel}ua$, $y_{\parallel}ara$, form a type of open compound with it, the whole being treated as a singular.

díta kitebakáy bára ā yàra zārolayá čira but, ā čuār zārolā čira - bring the two books!

- call those three children! - call those four children!

- (d) Note the idiomatic use of the cardinal adjective in $m_{\parallel}\bar{a}ngay$ ču $\bar{a}rd^{\parallel}e$ 'full ('fourteen') moon'.
- (e) When used substantively all the cardinals (except y^luwa F., obl. y^luwe) may take the obl. morpheme -i (-y).

pay yoy, $d^{\dagger}ui$, $y^{\dagger}ari$, $\delta u^{\dagger}\bar{a}ri$, noy, day, $w^{\dagger}isi$ – for one, two, three, four, nine, ten, twenty.

¹³ See § 2 (c). 14 See § 1, n. 2.

Ordinals.

§ 15. Ordinals are normally formed by the addition of -|am| (-h|am for the numbers 10-19) to the cardinals.

 $fiak^{\dagger}am$, $du^{\dagger}am$, $yar^{\dagger}am$, $cu\bar{a}r^{\dagger}am$, $no^{\dagger}am$, — first, second, third, fourth, ninth, $dah^{\dagger}am$, $y\bar{a}nzah^{\dagger}am$ tenth, eleventh $yak_{\parallel}am$ $pi^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ — the first (= most important) man.

Alternatively -am'in is employed.

 $yaram_|in f|\bar{a}r$ — the third time $\check{c}u\bar{a}r\grave{a}m(\grave{i}n)$ = $\check{c}u\bar{a}r\grave{a}k\grave{a}y$ = $\check{b}ring$ the fourth child!

Pronouns. Personal and Demonstrative.

- § 16. Hawrāmī has, in effect, not two but three series of independent pronoun forms which may be classed under this heading.
- (a) Pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons, singular and plural, which are inflexible.

Sg. 1 min 'I, me' Pl. 1 em'a 'we, us' $\frac{1}{2}$ to 'thou, thee' $\frac{1}{2}$ sim'a 'you'

(b) Pronouns of the 3rd person, ed, $\bar{a}d$, which have both personal and demonstrative features. These are fully inflected, according to pattern I, but with exceptional obl. plural forms.

3 Proximate M. F. Sg. Dir. ed 'he (here)' leda 'she' Obl. |edi |eqe|Pl. Dir. lede 'they' Obl. ediš ā 3 Remote Sg. Dir. $\bar{a}d$ 'he (there)' da 'she' Obl. |ã₫i $\bar{a}de$ Pl. Dir. $|\bar{a}de|$ 'they' Obl. ādiš!ā

(c) Purely Demonstrative pronouns, $in^{\dagger}a$, $\bar{a}n^{\dagger}a$. These are fully inflected according to pattern II, but with the addition of the suffix $-^{\dagger}a$ where it is observable (in the M. sg. obl.) and the same 'pronominal' obl. plural. Although the stress is normally on the last syllable it may shift to the first, yielding the emphatic forms $^{\dagger}ina$, $^{\dagger}ana$.

Proximate	М.		F.
Sg. Dir.	in a 'this'		$in^{\dagger}e$
Obl.	inay¹a		$in^{\dagger}e$
Pl. Dir.		$in^{\dagger}e$	
Obl.		iniš $^{\dagger}ar{a}$	
Remote			
Sg. Dir.	$\bar{a}n^{\dagger}a$ 'that'		$\bar{a}n^{ }e$
Obl.	ānay a		$ar{a} n^{\dagger} e$
Pl. Dir.	-	$ar{a}n^{\dagger}e$	
Obl.		$ar{a}$ niš $^{\dagger}ar{a}$	

Suffixes.

§ 17. Beside the independent forms there occur six personal pronoun suffixes.

Sg. 1	$-(I)m^{15}$	PI, 1	-mā
2	-(1)t, $-(1)t$ -	2	-tā
3	-(1)š	3	-šā

- (a) These suffix forms fulfil the functions of a pronoun which is:
- i) in genitival relation to a noun ('possessive suffix'),
- ii) direct object of a transitive verb in the present tenses,
- iii) agent of a transitive verb in the past tenses,
- iv) governed by a preposition.

In conjunction with the substantive verb (v. § 28) they may also have dative sense.

(b) The 'possessive suffix' is attached directly to the noun, or phrase, it qualifies. When this represents an article of personal property, or one having a close personal relation to the possessor, it is normally defined by the suffix $-ak^{\dagger}a$, $-ak^{\dagger}e$.

```
kıtebak'am, -ak'at, -ak'at — my, thy, his book

y\bar{a}n_{\parallel}a ha\bar{r}in_{\parallel}a k\bar{a}wılbiak'at — their dilapidated mud house

but,

y\bar{a}n'ewm\bar{a} (wv\bar{r}an) — one of our houses (has collapsed).
```

Parts of the body and senior relatives are not so defined.

```
d^{\dagger}asim — my hand

s^{\dagger}arit — thy head

p\bar{a}y \ \bar{r}^{\dagger}\bar{a}sim \ (me\bar{s}o) — my right foot (hurts)
```

 $^{^{16}}$ When followed by another morpheme these forms lose their vowel. In such cases a raised $^{\rm I}$ will normally be written.

 $m\bar{a}inak_1e$ $ad^1\epsilon m$ āna àspu tātáymāna

- my mother's mare
- that is our father's horse,
- (c) As the last two examples show, the possessive suffix follows any oblique morpheme which may be present. The same is true of an agent suffix.

saràw kvřewim | kmāčèwem māfá

- I broke a boy's / girl's head.

A suffix governed by a preposition differs significantly from its possessive or agential counterpart in that it displaces an oblique morpheme which would otherwise be present (though this is not discernible in the case of a fem. sg. noun). Thus:

kitebakáym (kināčakém) bàra kitebakám / kināčakám bàra ā kītebimá (kīnāčemá) bāra ā kitebāmá / kināčāmá bāra kitebakám (kināčakém) pay bàra

- bring my book (daughter) - bring my books / daughters - bring that my book (daughter) - bring those my books / daughters

kitebakém / kināčakém pay b**àr**a ā kīteb^īmá (kīnāčemá) pay bāra å kitebemá / kināčemá pay bàra

- bring the book (girl) for me - bring the books / girls for me - bring that book (girl) for me - bring those books / girls for me.

(d) Before elaborating these examples it is convenient to introduce one last suffix which may appear with a nominal form, viz. the adverbial -ič (-yč; -č only following -e, -i, -y) 'also, moreover, even'. Its position, following an obl. morpheme, but preceding any pronominal suffix, may be clearly seen in the following series of sentences.

kıtèba siāwakáy(č) bàra kstèba siāwakáy(či)m bàra kılèba siāwaká(yčī)m pay bàra ā kītèba siāwi(č)á / siāway(č)á bàra \bar{a} kitèba siāwi (\check{c}^I) má / siāway (\check{c}^I) má bầra – bring that my black book (too) \tilde{a} ktřeba si $\tilde{a}w(i\check{c})^Im\acute{a}$ / si $\tilde{a}wa(y\check{c}^I)m\acute{a}$ pay – bring that black book for me (too) båra

- bring my black book (too) - bring the black book for me (too) - bring that black book (too)

- bring the black book (too)!

kàrda težaké(č) bàra kårda težaké(či)t båra kàrda težaké(či)m pay bàra ā kārda težé(čá) bāra ā kārda teže(č^I)tá bāra ā kārda teže(č^I)má pay bāra

- bring the sharp knife (too) - bring your sharp knife (too)

- bring the sharp knife for me (too) - bring that sharp knife (too)

kītèba siāwakā(yč) bāra kītèba siāwakā(yčī)m bāra - bring that your sharp knife (too) - bring that sharp knife, those sharp knives

for me (too) - bring the black books (too) - bring my black books (too)

k1tèba siāwaké(č1)m pay bāra	
ā kītèba siāwā(yčá) bāra	_
ā kītèba siāwā(yč ^ī)má b ầ ra	-
ā kītèba siāwe(čī)má pay bàra	_
kàrda težaká(yč) bàra	_
etc. etc.	

- bring the black books for me (too) bring those black books (too) - bring those my black books (too)

- bring those black books for me (too)

bring the sharp knives (too)

Reflexive Pronoun.

§ 18. The sole reflexive pronoun is we- 'self'. It never occurs independently, but is always qualified by a personal pronoun suffix, thus

- myself, thyself, himself (herself) wem, wet, weš w emā, w etā, w ešā - ourselves, yourselves, themselves

This qualified form may take a second pronominal suffix.

kitèbakaw wé-t-im pay bàra - bring me your own book! hakāyatakè wètim pay kára - tell me your (own) story!

It does not, however, take the same suffix twice.

weš (for *weš-iš) fārā - she disguised herself.

Possessive Pronoun.

§ 19. The place of a possessive pronoun is taken by the words hin M., 16 h ina F., h^{\dagger} ine pl., which, joined to a following genitive noun or pronoun, give the sense 'that of . . .'.

hinu min ja hinu to firá xāstàrā — mine is much better that yours ā kārdè hìnaw mtnana - that knife is mine ā kārde gird hìne minane - those knives are all mine i bizè hìnaw tātáymana - this goat is my father's.

Interrogative pronouns.

§ 20. The following interrogative pronouns occur.

češ 'what?' 'who?' kām 'which?' àna čéšā

- what is that? pay čéši mrdiày - what are you looking at? i yaribà kén - who is this stranger? kámšä - which one (of them)?

16 hin appears in neighbouring Kurdish dialects in much the same sense, and in Suleimani Kurd. with the extended meaning of 'what's-his-name, thingummy'.

Verbs.

- § 21. Each verb has two stems, present and past, which are not always predictable one from the other. On these two stems the system of simple tenses is built by means of various modal prefixes and personal endings. From the present stem are formed:
 - i) the Present Indicative tense,
 - ii) the Present Subjunctive,
 - iii) an Imperfect tense,
- and iv) the Imperative.

From the past stem are formed:

- v) the Past Indicative tense,
- and vi) the Past Conditional.

Also from the past stem is formed a past participle which, combined with simple tenses of the substantive verb, yields further, compound tenses. These are:

- vii) the Perfect Indicative,
- viii) the Perfect Subjunctive,
- ix) the Pluperfect,
- and x) a Perfect Conditional.

An infinitive verbal noun is also formed from the past stem, by the addition of the morpheme -|a|y. It is in this form that verbs are normally quoted.

The use of the various tenses is described below, § 46.

Relation between the stems.

§ 22. (a) The majority of verbs have past stems ending in $-|\bar{a}|$ and infinitives therefore in $-|\bar{a}y|$, preceded by a consonant. With very rare exceptions the form of the present stem is then that of the past stem less the final vowel.

Intransitive.			Past		Present
	gel [†] āy	'go about'	$gel^{\dagger}ar{a}$ -	:	ge l -
	prī ^{ri} āy	'fly'	$p_{m{I}m{ar{r}}^{\dagger}}ar{a}$ -	:	ри г -
	pıžm [†] āy	'sneeze'	pıžm∣ā-	:	pižm-
	tars āy	'be afraid'	$tars^{\dagger}ar{a}$ -	:	tars-
	žiw ^t āy	'live'	žiw [†] ā-	:	žiw-
Transitive.					
	fā r †āy	'change'	fār¹ā-	:	fā ī -
	les äy	'lick'	$les^{\dagger}ar{a}$ -	:	les-
	pars†āy	'ask'	pars ā-		pars-
	šel¹āy	'press'	šel†ā-		šel-
	zān [†] āy	'know'	$zar{a}n^{\dagger}ar{a}$ -		zān-
	žan āy	ʻshut'	žan∣ā-	: :	žan-

Exceptions.

 $aar{r}f^{\dagger}ar{a}y$ 'snatch' $aar{r}f^{\dagger}ar{a}$: $aar{r}far{a}n$ - $as^{\dagger}ar{a}y$ 'buy' $as^{\dagger}ar{a}$: $asar{a}n$ - $dar{a}y$ 'give' $dar{a}$: da-

(b) Many verbs have past stems ending in $-i^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ -, infinitives in $-i^{\dagger}\bar{a}y$. These form their present stems in -ia-.¹⁷

Intransitive.

gtži lä-: gīžiagıži İāy 'fight' 'stick' lıki∣ā-: likialıki lāy 'be tired' mäni|ā-: māniamāni |āy mari†ā-: mariamaři läy 'break'

The only Transitive of this type is

 $ni^{\dagger} \hat{a} y$ 'put' $ni^{\dagger} \hat{a}$: nia-.

(c) Verbs whose past stems end in -i, infinitives in $-i^{\dagger}ay$, have present stems without this final vowel. With the exception of

 $bi^{\dagger}ay$ 'be' bi- : b-

they are all Transitive.

lasafi-: asaī-'wipe' asari ay ažn(aw)ilay 'hear' $|a\check{z}n(aw)i-|$: $a\check{z}n(aw)$ $bI\bar{r}^{\dagger}i$ -: bɪrbīīīi ay 'cut' čīn¦i-: činčīni ay 'pluck' : diz $diz^{\dagger}i$ $dizi^{\dagger}ay$ 'steal'

(d) When the past stem of a verb ends in -st- the present stem, with few exceptions, ends in -z-.

Intransitive.

(e)st-: (e)z- $(e)st^{\dagger}ay$ wast-: wazwast ay 'rise' Transitive. āst ay 'let' āst-: āz-'bite' gazgast[|]ay gastwāst-: wāzwāst|ay 'request' wist[|]ay 'throw' wist-: wiz-Exceptions. bast!ay 'tie' bast-: baski|äst-: kiān-'send' kiäst|ay

17 See § 3 (e).

nswist ay 'write' nswist : nswistestay 'spin' rest : res-

There is a similar relation between some past stems ending in -št- and their present stems ending in $-\check{z}$ -,

Transitive.

bīrešt ^ļ ay	'roast'	bır ešt-	:	bīrež-
mıšt ^ı ay	'suck'	mıšt-	:	mıž-
īašt ay		₹ašt-	:	₹až-

but many such verbs have present stems in -š-.

Intransitive.

 $ništ^{\dagger}ay$ 'sit' $ništ^{-}$: $ništ^{-}$ Transitive. $kešt^{\dagger}ay$ 'weigh' $kešt^{-}$: $keš^{-18}$ $kušt^{\dagger}ay$ 'kill' $kušt^{-}$: $kwš^{-}$

Other past stems ending in -t- correspond to a variety of present stems ending in palatal consonants.

Intransitive.

wit^lay 'sleep' wit-: *us-*Transitive. $mit^{\dagger}ay$ 'spill' mıt-: m/jpāt∣ay . 'chop' pāt-: pāčsot|au 'burn' sotsočwăt lay 'say' wātwāčwet^lay 'sift' wetwečwat ay 'doff' wat-: wažwvrat|ay 'sell' $wvr^{\dagger}at$ -: wuraš-

Note the 'irregular' correspondences of

 $gIrt^{\dagger}ay$ 'seize' gIrt : $gerkawt^{\dagger}ay$ 'fall' kawt : gIn- $šIt^{\dagger}ay$ 'wash' šIt : šor-

(e) When the past stem ends in -rd- the corresponding present stem normally ends in -r-.

Intransitive.

wiard ay 'pass' wiard : wiar-

18 Cf. keš'āy, keš- 'pull'; the above form with -t- is secondary, as in awa-pečl'ay, alongside awa-peč'āy, -peč- 'wrap up'.

Transitive.

bard ay 'take' bard : barkard ay 'do' kard : kar-

The stem vowels may differ, or the present stem be contracted.

Intransitive.

mard ay 'die' mard : mr-

Transitive.

 $w\bar{a}rd^{\dagger}ay$ 'eat' $w\bar{a}rd$: $war-\bar{a}wIrd^{\dagger}ay$ 'bring' $\bar{a}w^{\dagger}Ird$: $\bar{a}r$ -

Classification of stems.

§ 23. The formation of the simple tenses is materially affected by the forms of the two stems. The main types may be classified as follows:

Past stems.

- 1) Monosyllabic, e. g. kard-, wit-.
- 2) Polysyllabic, with initial stress, e. g. 'asari-, w'iard-.
- 3) Polysyllabic, with final stress, e.g. $\bar{a}w^{\dagger}rrd$ -, $f\bar{a}r^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ -.
- 4) Ending in $-\bar{a}$ -, e. g. $\bar{a}m^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ -, $d\bar{a}$ -.
- 5) Ending in -i-, e. g. 'ažn(aw)i-, btř'i-.

Present stems.

- A) Ending in a consonant, e.g. us-, niš-.
- B) Ending in -a-, e. g. da-, gižia-.
- C) With initial a-, e. g. asān-, asaī-.
- D) With initial \bar{a} -, e. g. $\bar{a}r$ -, $\bar{a}z$ -.

Some stems, naturally, fall into more than one such class.

Preverbs.

§ 24. A number of verbs are compounded with the 'preverbs' $an^{\dagger}a$, $ar^{\dagger}a$, $aw^{\dagger}a$. These are, in fact, only ever *pre*fixed to the infinitive,

anakard'ay 'don', aranist'ay 'sit down', awawarday 'drink'.

With all finite forms of the verbs they are suffixed, after the personal endings and all other suffixes.

kard-an¹a, karo-š-an¹a ništ-ar¹a, mīnišo-r¹a wārde-w¹a, mīwarow¹a

awa is exceptional in that after all consonants and the vowels i, u it appears as z. $w\bar{a}rd^{\dagger}z$, $miwaru^{\dagger}z$, $miwaru^{\dagger}\bar{s}^{\dagger}z$.

(a) The form $-w^{\dagger}a$, following a verbal ending with final -e, may yield either $-ew^{\dagger}a$ or $-^{\dagger}e$. The result may be seen below (§ 33 (b)) in the conjugation of $\bar{a}m^{\dagger}\bar{a}y$. The reason for this reduction is unclear. 19

As a 'preverb' awa yields -arāwa when combined with -ara (but see § 43 (a)).

wizùšara wấr
— I shall throw it down
wizošaràwa wấr
— he will throw it down again
wist^Išarāwa wấr
— he threw it down again.

With -ana it appears to form *-awana in the combination dāwan ay 'hit',

dāšāwaná – they set off (lit., beat it)

but on the analogy of the similar combination, with an absolute preposition, $d\bar{a}ypan^{\dagger}ay$ 'give (to)', $d\bar{a}s$ paná 'he gave it to him', the 'preverbs' may become separated as wana,

dãš waná – he set off.

Modal and Negative prefixes.

- § 25. (a) m_{I} , before vowels m_{I} , is prefixed to the present stem of certain verbs only to form the Present Indicative tense. All verbs with an initial vowel other than a_{I} take the prefix m_{I} . Initial a_{I} is displaced by the prefix m_{I} . All verbs with initial n_{I} , n_{I} , n_{I} , and n_{I} , and
- (b) Verbs taking m(t)- in the Present Indicative take the prefix $b^{\dagger}(t)$ in the Present Subjunctive and the Imperative, with the exception of a few with initial w-. Thus, from

ār-	'bring'	Indic. mār-	Subj.	$b^{\dagger} \tilde{a} r$ -
us-	'sleep'	mus-	•	$b^{\dagger}us$ -
asān-	'buy'	mīsān-		$b^I s^ ar{a} n^{-21}$
niš-	'sit'	mıniš-		b¹ıniš-
wān-	'read'	mIwān-		$b^{\dagger}nv\bar{a}n$ -
war-	'eat'	(mı)war-,	but	$w^{\dagger}ar_{\uparrow}$,

and, with irregular loss of initial w-, from

 $w\bar{a}\check{c}$ - 'say' $m\bar{a}\check{c}$ -, but $w^{\dagger}\bar{a}\check{c}$ -.

Verbs which do not take the prefix b(t)- are stressed on the first syllable in both Present Subjunctive and Imperative, as are all verbs in the Past Conditional.

21 See § 3 (b).

¹⁹ Short forms such as ew^ia , mew^ia , bew^ia are not, however, reduced to * ε , * $m\varepsilon$, * $b\varepsilon$. Nor are such forms as $\bar{a}m\varepsilon w^ia$ (<* $\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ -e- w^ia) reduced.

³⁰ The syllabic structure of the stem does not seem to have any bearing on the matter. Cf. keš- | mI-niš-, faž- | mI-fam-, wāz- | mI-wān-.

(c) The negative prefix for the Present Indicative and the Imperative is normally $m^{\dagger}a$ - for all verbs. With stems having initial \bar{a} -, however, and the stem a- 'come', this would produce forms indistinguishable from the affirmative except occasionally in the position of the stress. ma- is therefore replaced by mi- and $n^{\dagger}i$ -, giving in effect $n^{\dagger}im$ - with these stems. Thus,

mısān- mi	mār-
	aws-
	asān-
mıniš- m	aniš-
mīwān- m ^l	awān-
(mt)war- m [†]	awar-
$mar{a}ar{c}$ - m^{\parallel}	awāč-
and, from a-, ma-	ma

(d) The prefix $n^{\dagger}a$ -negates all other tenses of all verbs, replacing $b^{\dagger}(t)$ - in the Present Subjunctive.

Personal endings.

§ 26. There are five distinct sets of personal endings, forming the Present tenses, the Imperative, the Imperfect, the Past Indicative and Past Conditional respectively. They are essentially as follows: 22

	Present	Imperative	Imperfect
Sg. 1	$-u /-w^{23}$		-lene
2	-i /-y	-a /—	- eni
3	-0	•	-1 <i>e</i>
Pl. 1	-me /-ym e		-¹enme
2	$-de/-yd^{\dagger}e$	-de -yde	-lende
3	-ā		- ¹ ene
	Past Indicative		Past Conditional
Sg. 1	-ā(ne)		-ene
2	-i /-y (-ay after i)		-eni
3 M.	_		_
3 F.	$-a^{24}$		- €
Pl. 1	-ime /-yme (-ayme)		-ɛnme
2	-ide -yde (-ayde)		-ɛnde
3	-е		-ene

²² The second forms in each case appear after stem-final vowels.

²⁸ Hadank, publishing Mann's 'Auramani' material, has Pres. Sg. 1 -ûm (-úm) in every case but one (mälû (Sh) against mälûm (A), p. 386) and Sg. 3 -û (except mägliû (Sh), p. 390). -ûm occurs as a Pres. Sg. 1 ending only in the literary Gorani xoun (e. g. Mokri, Kurdish Songs, No. 171) and it was almost certainly this that his informant (A), if not (Sh) also, was 'selling' to Mann as Hawrāmī. The few correct forms in A's manuscript vocabulary (kindly placed at my disposal by the Akademie der Wissenschaften und der Literatur, Mainz) were not transcribed by Mann and were therefore overlooked by Hadank. They are: [overleaf]

The connection between the Imperfect and Past Conditional endings is obvious. The latter must be presumed to comprise the former preceded by a 'conditional infix' *- \bar{a} -, with $\bar{a} + e > \varepsilon$.

Substantive verb.

§ 27. (a) The substantive verb, beside the normal tenses detailed below, has a special enclitic form of the present tense. This, alone of present tenses, shows a distinction of gender in the 3rd person singular. In the 3 Sg. Masc., moreover, the postvocalic form of the enclitic depends on the position of the stress in the word supporting it.

		Following a consonant, i, or u.	Following a vowel
Sg.	. 1	-anā	-nā
	2	-ani	-ni
	3 M.	-ă	-na after a stressed vowel
	3 F.	-ana	-na
Pl.	1	-anme	-nme
	2	-ande	-nde
	3	-ane	-ne

The postvocalic forms of the enclitic appear regularly as the auxiliary in the Perfect Indicative of all verbs.

(b) The enclitic also combines with n'i- to form the following negative present:

```
Sg. 1 n^{\dagger}ian\bar{a}, 2 n^{\dagger}iani, 3 M. n^{\dagger}i\bar{a}, 3 F. n^{\dagger}iana – am, art, is not Pl. 1 n^{\dagger}ianme, 2 n^{\dagger}iande, 3 n^{\dagger}iane – are not
```

(c) Following the adverbs $in^{\dagger}\bar{a}$, $\bar{a}n^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ (v. § 45 (a)), however, the enclitic verb appears in a variant form in all persons other than the 1st Sg. The variant forms are identical with the Past Indicative endings given above. Thus, $in^{\dagger}\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, but $in^{\dagger}\bar{a}y$, $in^{\dagger}\bar{a}$, $in^{\dagger}\bar{a}yme$, $in^{\dagger}\bar{a}yde$, and $in^{\dagger}\varepsilon$ ($<*in^{\dagger}\bar{a}-e$).

inày čikó? inàna čé

- where are you? here I am.

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ss contd.

mh by nws = mabenu-s 'I shut it' (cf. māblnām, p. 381),

mch šws = mačasu-s 'I taste it' (cf. mādāsām, p. 383),

mh lyswsw = malesu-s-o 'I lick it up',

mpycw/ysw = mapeču/i-s-o 'I/you wrap it up'.
```

A further corruption is to be seen in the form mnyrmm = mdntdrdm 'I put down' (p. 390; it occurs twice in A's vocabulary), in which the 'preverb' -ara appears before, instead of after, the personal ending (v. § 24 above); the correct form mnywrh = maniaw - ara is given by A on another page of his vocabulary.

24 Thus a past stem ending in a consonant or i appears to be declined like an adjective, in the 3rd person, e. g. Sg. M. wit, F. w'ita, Pl. w'ita, Pl. w'ita, But stems with final \bar{a} do not change like adjectives in \bar{a} , nor is the stem modified for gender or number in the 1st and 2nd persons.

(d) Examples,

min kvī-anā | kināčé-nā - I am a boy / girl to kvī-ani | kınāčé-ni - you are a boy / girl - he is a boy / our son åd kt f-ā | kt fu emá-n åda kınāčé-na | kınāčè min-ana - she is a girl / my daughter emà kvře-nme | kmäčé-nme - we are boys / girls šimà koře-nde | kinäčé-nde - you are boys / girls àde kūre-ne | kınāčé-ne - they are boys / girls - what is that? ānà čéš-ā - it is a horse / book / house ásp-ã / kɪtéb-ã / yāná-n tawáni-ana / māini-ana - it is a stone / mare áspe-ne / yāné-ne - they are horses / houses kitebaká-n / tawanaké-na kitebaká-n / tawanaké-na - it is the book / stone ānà aspu tātáym-ā / tātáymā-na - that is my / our father's horse - it is the book / stone ānè māinaw tātáym-ana / tātáymā-na — that is my / our father's mare.

§ 28. The morpheme $h^{\dagger}a$ - combines with the 3rd person (postvocalic) forms of the normal enclitic verb, thus

Sg. M. han, 3 F. hlana, Pl. hlane

with the sense 'there is, are'.

(a) In the affirmative and interrogative, but not the negative (where the simple forms $n^{\dagger}i\bar{a}$, etc., suffice), these forms appear with the personal pronoun suffixes giving the sense of 'to have'.

kitèbewit hán? hánim

- have you a book? (yes) I have

harmànat hána pàyit karù?

- is there anything (have you any work)

that I can do for you?

- yes (I have)

kầr dis hána / háne — yes (1 have)

— he has a knife / some knives

— she has a pleasant laugh.

(b) The ordinary enclitic substantive verb is used in conjunction with the personal pronoun suffixes in a number of idioms, e. g.

 $h\dot{a}y$ -t- \bar{a} — are you awake? $\bar{a}wr\dot{a}$ - \bar{s} - \bar{a} — he is hungry (now)

(but āwrá-n - he is hungry (poor and starving))

 $qvb\dot{u}l^{-I}m-\bar{a}$ – I accept

tājīrakà hát¹šā - the merchant is lucky.

(c) Especially common is the use with the word $gar^{\dagger}ak$ 'necessary' to express 'want, wish'.

garák-^Im-ā – I want (it is necessary to me) čéštį garàkā – what do you want?

agar garák^Itā ba m^Irāḍ btyāwi — if you want to attain your desire...

(d) In tenses other than the Present Indicative, forms of the verb $bi^{\dagger}ay$ serve in all these constructions in place of the enclitic, or han, etc.

dúe ktrē-š bène– he had two sonsāwrā-š be– he was hungrygarākšā be bīlā pay rāwe– they wanted to go hunting.

Past Participle.

§ 29. The past participle, from transitive verbs always passive in meaning, is formed from the past stem by the addition of -1a. Thus, from

wit-the participle $wit^{\dagger}a$ 'having gone to sleep' $w^{\dagger}iard$ - $wiard^{\dagger}a$ 'having passed' $\bar{a}w^{\dagger}ird$ - $\bar{a}wird^{\dagger}a$ 'having been brought' $\bar{a}m^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}m^{\dagger}\bar{a}$ 'having come'.

but from

but

The participle, being an adjective, has distinct feminine and plural forms. The direct case forms appear consistently throughout the compound tenses.

M. $w_i t^{\dagger} a$ F. $w_i t^{\dagger} e$ Pl. $w_i t^{\dagger} e$ $w_i a_i d^{\dagger} a$ $w_i a_i d^{\dagger} e$ $w_i a_i d^{\dagger} e$

Stress precedence.

- § 30. The various elements which make up verbal forms each have a certain stress value, including zero. When two or more elements, which would have had the main word stress had they occurred singly, appear in the same verbal form they are subject to the following order of precedence:
- 1) negative prefixes, $n^{\dagger}a$ -, $m^{\dagger}a$ -, $n^{\dagger}Im$ -,
- 2) the 'preverb' suffixes $-an^{\dagger}a$, $-ar^{\dagger}a$, $-aw^{\dagger}a$ ($^{-\dagger}a$),
- 3) the modal prefix $b^{\dagger}(t)$, or the initial stress of the Present Subjunctive, Imperative, or Past Conditional,
- 4) the personal endings of the Present Indicative or Imperfect, or the past stem, or the past participle.

Thus the stress of a member of class 2 becomes a secondary word stress if a member of class 1 is present, as this has the main word stress. The stress of a member

of class 3 becomes a secondary word stress if a member of class 2 is present, but is often reduced entirely if a member of class 1 is present, and so on. The effect of this will be seen in the paradigms below.

Regular conjugation.

§ 31. i) The Present Indicative is formed of the present stem, the Present personal endings and, with some verbs, the modal prefix m(t). The substantive verb $bi^{\dagger}ay$ shows slight irregularity in this tense. Thus, from:

	us- 'sleep'	da- 'give'	kar- 'do'	b- 'be'
Sg. 1	$mus^{\dagger}u$	mɪd̞ˈaw	kar u	bu
2	mus i	mı⊈ αy	kar i	bi
3	mus [†] o	$mId^{\dagger}o$	kar lo	bo
Pl. 1	$musm^{\dagger}e$	mıdaym ¹ e	karm [†] e	$b^{\dagger}ime$
2	$musd^{\dagger}e$	midayd¹e	$kard^{\dagger}e$	$b^{\dagger}ide$
3	$mus^{1}ar{a}$	$m_I d^\dagger ar{a}$	$kar^{\dagger}ar{a}$	$bar{a}$
Negative, w	ith the prefix $m^{\dagger}a$ -,			
Sg. 1	$m^{\dagger}awsu$	m¹adaw	$m^{\dagger}akar_{\dagger}u$	m ^l abu
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

ii) The Present Subjunctive is formed of the present stem and the Present personal endings with, in some cases, the modal prefix $b^{\dagger}(I)$. When this is not present the first syllable of the stem is stressed. The subjunctive of the verb 'to be' is only distinguished from the indicative in the negative.

Sg. 1	b [†] usu	b [†] ıdaw	k ^l aru	bu
2	b [†] usi	b [†] ıday	k ^l ari	bi
3	b [†] uso	b [†] ıdo	k ^l aro	bo
Pl. 1	b†usme	b¹1daym ₁ e	k arme	b¹ime
2	b†usde	b¹1dayd ₁ e	k arde	b¹ide
3	$m{b}^{\dagger} m{u} m{s} m{ ilde{a}}$	b¹ı₫ā	k∣arā	$bar{a}$

Negative, with the prefix $n^{|}a$ -,

Sg. 1	n¹awsu	n¹adaw	$n^{\dagger}akar_{\dagger}u$	n¹abu
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

iii) The Imperative consists of the present stem and the Imperative endings and, with some verbs, the prefix $b^{\dagger}(I)$.

Sg. 2	b usa	$(b^{\dagger}I)da$	$k^{\dagger}ara$	ba
Pl. 2	$m{b}^{\dagger}usde$	(b 1)dayde	$k^{\dagger}arde$	b¹ide

Negative, i. e. prohibitive, with the prefix $m|_{a}$ -,

Sg. 2	m awsa	m ada	$m^{\dagger}ak_{\dagger}ara$	$m^{\dagger}aba$
Pl. 2	$m^{\dagger}awsde$	m ad ayde	$m^{\dagger}ak_{1}arde$	$m^{\dagger}ab_{\dagger}ide$

iv) The Imperfect is formed simply by the addition of the Imperfect endings to the present stem.

Sg. 1	us¹ene	$d^{\dagger}ene$	kar lene	$b^{\dagger}ene$
2	us ^l eni	d [†] eni	kar leni	b eni
3	$us^{\downarrow}e$	de	kar le	be
Pl. 1	us en me	$d^{\dagger}enme$	kar enme	$b^{\parallel}enme$
2	us ^l ende	d¹ende	kar ende	b\ende
3	us ^l ene	d¹ene	$kar^{1}ene$	$b^{\dagger}ene$

Sg. 1
$$n^{\dagger}aws_{\dagger}ene$$
 $n^{\dagger}ad_{\dagger}ene$ $n^{\dagger}akar_{\dagger}ene$ $n^{\dagger}ab_{\dagger}ene$ etc. etc.

v) The Past Indicative is formed by the addition of the appropriate personal endings to the past stem. Thus, from:

	wit- 'sleep'	$dar{a}$ - 'give'	kard- 'do'	<i>bi-</i> 'be'
Sg. 1	w¹stā(ne)	$d^{\dagger} \tilde{a}(ne)$	k∣ar₫ā(ne)	$b^{\dagger}iar{a}(ne)$
2	w^{\dagger} iti	dāy	$k^{\dagger}ardi$	$b^{\dagger}iay$
3 M.	wit	J=	kard	bi
3 F.	$w^{\dagger}ita$	dā	k ^l ar <u>d</u> a	$b^{\dagger}ia$
Pl. 1	w itime	d¹āyme	k ardime	$b^{\dagger}iayme$
2	w [†] ītide	d¹äyde	k ardide	$b^{\dagger}iayde$
3	w^{\dagger} ite	de	$k^{\dagger}arde$	$b^{\dagger}ie^{\top}$
Negative,				
Sg. 1	$n^{ }aw^{I}t_{ }ar{a}(ne)$	$n^{\lceil}ad_{ vert}ar{a}(ne)$	n¦akļardā(ne)	$n^{\dagger}abi_{\dagger}\tilde{a}(ne)$
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

vi) The Past Conditional consists of the past stem, always stressed on the first syllable, and the Past Conditional endings.

Sg. 1	w^{\dagger} ı t_{\dagger} ene	$d^{\dagger} arepsilon n e^{25}$	$k^{\dagger}ard_{\parallel}\varepsilon ne$	$b^{\dagger}i_{\parallel}ene$
2	$oldsymbol{w}^{\dagger}oldsymbol{t}oldsymbol{t}_{1}oldsymbol{arepsilon}oldsymbol{i}$	$oldsymbol{d}^{!}arepsilon n i$	$k^{\dagger}ard_{\parallel}eni$	$b^{\dagger}i_{1}eni$
3	$w^{!}$ I $t\varepsilon$	darepsilon	k arde	$m{b}^{\dagger}im{e}$

²⁵ See next note.

Pl. 1 2 3	w ^l tt _l enme w ^l tt _l ende w ^l tt _l ene	d ⁱ enme d ⁱ ende d ⁱ ene	k ^l ard _i enme k ^l ard _i ende k ^l ard _i ene	b i enme b i ende b i ene
Negative,				
Sg. 1	$n^{\dagger}aw^{I}t_{\dagger}ene$ etc.	n'ad _i ene etc.	n¹ <i>akar₫∣ɛne</i> etc.	n¹abi₁sne etc.

vii) The Perfect Indicative, being formed from the past participle by the addition of the enclitic present of the substantive verb, has distinct forms for Masc. and Fem. in the singular.

Sg. 1 M. 1 F. 2 M. 2 F. 3 M.	wIt [†] anā wIt [†] enā wIt [†] ani wIt [†] an wI [†] ena	d ^l ānā ²⁶ d ^l enā d ^l ēni d ^l eni dān d ^l ena	kard ^l anā kard ^l enā kard ^l ani kard ^l eni kard ^l an	bi ^l anā bi ^l enā bi ^l ani bi ^l eni bi ^l an bi ^l ena
3 F. Pl. 1 2 3	wit [†] enme wit [†] ende wit [†] ene	a'ena d'enme d'ende d'ene	kard [†] ena kard [†] enme kard [†] ende kard [†] ene	bi ^l enme bi ^l ende bi ^l ene
Negative,				
Sg. 1 M.	$n^{\dagger}aw^{I}t_{\dagger}anar{a}$ etc.	n¹ad _l ānā etc.	n [†] akarg _i anā etc.	n ^ļ abi _ļ anā etc.

viii) The Perfect Subjunctive is formed from the past participle by the addition of the Present Subjunctive of the substantive verb (see ii) above).

Sg. 1 M.	wīt ⁱ abu	$d^{\dagger}ar{a}bu$	kard abu	bi abu
1 F.	wīt ^l ebu	$d^{\dagger} arepsilon b u$	kard ebu	$bi^{\dagger}ebu$
2 M.	w ı $t^{\dagger}abi$	d¹ābi	kard abi	bi¹abi
2 F.	wɪtˈebi	$d^{\dagger} arepsilon b i$	kard ebi	bi ebi
3 M.	$wit^{\dagger}abo$	$d^{\dagger} ar{a} b o$	$kard^{\dagger}abo$	$bi^{\dagger}abo$
3 F.	$wit^{\dagger}ebo$	$d^{\dagger} \varepsilon bo$	kard lebo	bi ebo
Pl. 1	wit ⁱ ebime	$d^{\dagger} arepsilon bime$	kard ebime	bi¹ebime
2	wɪt ebide	$d^{\dagger} arepsilon bide$	kard lebide	bi [†] ebide
3	wīt ebā	$d^{\dagger}ebar{a}$	kard¹ebā	bi ebā

²⁶ A number of Past Conditional and Perfect Indicative forms of the verb $d\bar{a}$ - are identical. Regarding this peculiarity of verbs with a past stem ending in -' \bar{a} -, see § 33 (a).