A Comparative Study of Declarative Sentences in English and Kurdish

Asst. Instructor Khalid Ali Abdullah  Asst. Instructor Burhan Qadir Salim

University of Raparin                                University of Raparin
College of Education                            College of Basic Education
English Department                                      English Department

ABSTRACT

The present study is a comparative study which is about declarative sentences in English and Kurdish. It aims to compare the structures and the uses of the active forms of the declarative sentences according to the time of happening an event in both languages to show similarities and differences between them. The study consists of two main sections. The first section includes the types of declarative sentences in English with their structures and usages. The second section includes some key concepts related to Kurdish declarative sentences. Also it includes the different structures and uses of Kurdish declarative sentences. The study ends with some important conclusions taken from the research, a list of Kurdish phonemic symbols and a list of English and Kurdish references.

1. Declarative Sentences in English

1.0 Introduction

English declarative sentences have a canonical SVO order. English itself is one of the languages in which tenses (present, past, and future) can be easily recognized or indicated via changes in verb forms. So, it has only two forms of verbs: past and present. The combinations of (be + present participle), (have + past participle), and (will + base) can be regarded as tenses because the forms of be, have and will are changeable in present and past; they are finite (= tensed) verbs. So tense is a typical feature of the forms of a verb that shows the differences in time of an action carried out.

The foregoing paragraph paves the way for devoting this section only to turning the spotlight on present and past declarative sentences.
1.1 Present Declarative Sentences
1.1.1 Present progressive
   It is also called present continuous. It has the following basic form: (present forms of BE + PRESENT PARTICIPLE). Although the declarative progressive form generally indicates that an action or event is ongoing, it is used in various situations.

A) The time of an action or event happening is simultaneous with the time of referring to it.
   1) ‘Where is John?’ ‘He is walking in the garden.’
      It can be inferred, because of the linguistic context ‘where is John?’, that there is no need to use time expressions like now or at the moment. We understand that John is in the middle of walking; he has started walking and has not finished it yet.

B) It is used when an action or event happens not necessarily at the time of speaking. Murphy (2004: 2) refers to this situation as “a period around now”; Thomson and Martinet (1986: 154) refer to it as “about this time.”
   2) ‘Is Lisa working today?’ ‘Yes, she is.’
      The question is not about Lisa working at the moment of speaking because she may be having rest at the time of asking the question. The time words used in this situation are today, this week, this year, etc.

C) It is used in transitory (= temporary) situations.
   3) I am sharing the room with a friend of mine until I find a place.
      The following illustration is the time line for the above mentioned situations:

D) It is used when everything is prepared for an event or action that is expected to happen in the future.
   4) We are having a party on Monday evening.
      From sentence (4), it can be deduced that everything was organized such as decorating the place of the party, arranging the tables and seats, sending invitation cards to our friends and relatives, etc. And it can be inferred that the time in the future is near.
      Thomson and Martinet (1986: 155) mention two other situations in which the present progressive tense is used:

E) It can be used before a point in time in the future:
   5) At ten I am lying on the beach.
      In sentence (5), a point in time is indicated which is (at ten) and the action of lying will have begun before this point and will continue after it. So the sentence means I
start lying before ten. The time line for situations (D) and (F) can be illustrated as follows:

```
PAST     NOW     FUTURE
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F) The second situation is that present progressive is used with present simple, but it is not very common. It is only used when we describe “daily routines” or in “dramatic narrative”:

6) They’re coming back from London when one of the rear tyres of the bus bursts.

G) Present progressive can be used with always. It is mainly used in the affirmative. It is used with always when an action or event happens more than normal which leads to annoyance.

7) He is always criticizing me.

Some actions which are done are not deliberate. In sentence (8), the action losing is not something we want to do.

8) He is always losing his car key.

Sometimes present progressive with always has positive meaning. With positive meaning, the action is done deliberately; it is something we want to do.

9) I am always helping/reading.

H) It is used in changing situations. Vince (2008: 10) points out that the changes are not necessary to be at the moment of speaking. It is in a period around now, but the period may take a long time.

10) Life is becoming more and more complex.

### 1.1.2 Present Simple

Generally speaking, the simple form, regardless of past or present and out of context, indicates the completion of an event compared to the present progressive. Leech (2006: 94) defines present simple as a form of finite verbs that consists of either the base form or the –s form. The base form is used in all circumstances except for the third person singular that needs the –s form. The following are various situations in which present simple is used:

**A)** It is used when talking about facts/things that are always true/always happen.

This situation is also called ‘eternal truths.’ Quirk et al (1985: 179) state that there is no need to time elements and name it “state present” in the sense that most of the stative verbs are used in this situation, see 11c and d:

11a) Wood floats in water.
11b) Three and eight make eleven.
11c) Water consists of two atoms of hydrogen and one atom of oxygen.
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11d) This soup tastes bland.

B) It is used for talking about habits. It is also used for timeless statements. Here dynamic verbs can also be used.

12a) My father chain-smokes.
12b) Lions roar.
12c) Giraffe eat leaves.

Because habits are repeated actions, time elements like every year, every day, etc. can be used.

13) We go to London every year.

C) In newspaper headlines, it is used instead of past simple:

14) PUTIN VOWS TOUGH LINE ON SYRIA THREATS

D) Present simple is used when a story is narrated, the action of a play is described, or a joke is cracked. It is usually in informal or colloquial English. Leech (2006: 50) names this situation “historic present” because it refers to past time:

15) Antonio is well known for his kindness. He has many friends, among them a young Venetian nobleman called Bassanio. Although he comes from a noble family, Bassanio is poor and spends more money than he can afford to live the kind of life he likes. But Antonio loves him and lends or gives him money whenever he needs it.

E) It is used when a sport commentator comments on a game. Here the use of present simple is instead of present progressive; the commentator describes the events happening inside a stadium at the time of speaking. Alexander (1988: 166) adds that in such a case present simple is used for a rapid completed action at the time of speaking.

16) He passes the ball to Rooney. Rooney is inside the penalty area. He is awarded a penalty after a late tackle. Beckham volunteers to take the penalty. Oh! What a bad luck! He misses the penalty in the last minute of the game. Oh! The referee whistles and now the match ends in a two-all draw.

F) With performative verbs, instead of present continuous, present simple is used. Sentence (16) is stated by priests. He is performing the ritual action of announcing at the time of speaking.

17) I announce you man and wife.

G) Reporting verbs are used in present simple:

18a) I hear you are jobless now.
18b) People tell me nobody can get on well with her.

H) It can be used with school, train, etc. schedule with future meaning:

19a) We have chemistry at 12: 30.
19b) The train arrives at ten.
I) It is used when talking about how often things are done by using the frequency
adverbs and expressions. So it is about repeated actions and daily routines. Frequency
adverbs used in this situation are: always, usually, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, hardly ever, rarely, seldom, never. Frequency expressions are once/twice a week, every other day, once every two months, etc.

J) It is used when an action or event is in a permanent situation:

20) I live in Ranya. I have lived here all my life.

1.3 Stative and Dynamic Verbs

Stative verbs are those verbs that describe a state of affairs without performance
of an action; when a state is described, there is not any involvement of physical
activities. Dynamic verbs, on the other hand, contrast with stative verbs in that they
describe the performance of actions, that’s why, they are called action verbs. Stative
verbs are involuntary actions while dynamic verbs are deliberate actions. When you
want to (listen) to your teacher, you voluntarily perform an action. On the contrary, at
the time of listening to your teacher, you may suddenly and involuntarily (hear) an
explosion outside the class. Stative verbs are not normally used in progressive
tenses; they do not take –ing. Whenever a stative verb takes –ing, it loses its stative
meaning. Stative verbs can be classified as follows:

A) Verbs of the senses: hear, smell, taste, feel, observe (= notice)

B) Verbs of feelings and emotions: love, hate, like, dislike, pity, envy, desire,
fear, loathe, respect, mind, care for (= value)

C) Attitudinal verbs: agree, disagree, prefer,

D) Mental verbs: know, think, imagine, realize, suppose, recall, recognize,
remember, forget, believe, see (= understand), wonder,
recollect, mean,

E) Relational verbs: consist of, contain, depend on, equal, fit, include, need,
suffice, lack, require

F) Possessive verbs: belong to, own, possess, have

G) Linking verbs: seem, sound, look

H) To BE

1.2 Past Declarative Sentences

1.2.1 Past simple

Past simple is generally used when actions or events happened in the past,
finished in the past, and it does not have any connection with now. Leech (2006: 81)
defines past simple as a form of the verb phrase consisting of only one verb as the
main one. It has past –ed form whatever its subject is. Past simple is used in the
following situations:

A) When the time of the action is definite:

21) He died yesterday.

B) When the time of the action is asked about:

22) When did you buy this car?
C) When a single past action happened at a moment in a period of time, now finished:
   23) I once saw the president.

D) When an action happened for a period of time in the past, now finished.
   24) Dinosaurs lived on the earth.

E) When an action habitually or repeatedly happened in the past:
   25a) He always wore a brown scarf.
   25b) They never gambled.

The general time line diagram of the past simple can be illustrated as follows:

```
PAST     | NOW    | FUTURE
-----    | ------ | -------
```

The time line for situation (C) is illustrated by Thomson and Martinet (1986: 163) showing only a single past action:

```
PAST     NOW           FUTURE
---      | ---          ---
```

They (ibid) illustrate the time line for the situation (D):

```
PAST     NOW           FUTURE
---      | ---          ---
```

1.2.2 Past Progressive

It is also called past continuous having the following basic form: (past forms of BE + PRESENT PARTICIPLE). This form indicates that an ongoing action or event was unfinished in the past. It shows a period of time in the past but the exact time limits are not necessary to be known.

```
Past progressive     NOW           FUTURE
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The time line shows the about times of starting or finishing of an action. The following are the main uses of it:

A) Past progressive can be used when we talk about a gradual development of a situation without any definite time:
   26) The situation was getting worse and worse.

B) It is used with a point in time indicating that an action started before that time and perhaps continued after it.
   27) The students were taking the exam at 9.30.

   From sentence (27), we understand that the students started taking the exam before 9.30, and they were in the middle of the exam and they continued answering the questions after 9.30.
C) By comparison with past simple, the period of the action in past progressive is longer and starts first. On the other hand, past simple is shorter and happens in the middle of past progressive. The following diagram shows the use of past progressive with past simple:

![Diagram showing past progressive with past simple]

D) Past progressive can be used as a background of past simple when we narrate a story:

28) I was walking in the forest. The bees were humming and buzzing. The butterflies were fluttering by and alighting on the flowers. I was enjoying looking at these views when suddenly a bear appeared.

E) It can be used for temporary situations in the past:

29) We were living with some friends until we found a place. Thomson and Martinet (1986: 164)

1.2.3 Present Perfect Simple (non-progressive present perfect)

Present perfect has the following basic form: (present forms of HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE). This form indicates that an action started in the past and has effect on now.

![Diagram showing present perfect simple]

The diagram shows that someone smoked all the cigarettes in the past but it has effect on a situation that exists (the packet is empty) now. So there is a connection between a present situation and a past action.

Present perfect can be used with just (= a short time ago), already (= sooner than expected), and yet (in negative sentences).

30) They have just come back from London.
31) ‘Can you vacuum the floor, please? ‘But I have already vacuumed it.’
32) She hasn’t arrived yet.

It is used when someone says how many or how many times he/she has done something.

33) I have written three books.
34) She has seen this film twice.

1.7 Present Perfect Progressive

It has the following basic form (present forms of HAVE + BEEN + PRESENT PARTICIPLE). It is used, sometimes, instead of and has the same meaning as present perfect simple.
35) She has been working hard for more than twenty years.

1.7.1 Present Perfect Simple or Progressive

Thomson and Martinet (1986) and Murphy (2004) explain the differences between present perfect simple and progressive as the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Perfect Simple</th>
<th>Present Perfect Progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It focuses on the result of an action:</td>
<td>It focuses on the activity, especially when someone complains:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I’ve done all my accounts – here they are.</td>
<td>- I’ve been doing my accounts all afternoon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is used with how much, how many, and how many times:</td>
<td>It is used with how long, since, and for:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I’ve read 10 pages of this book.</td>
<td>- How long have you been reading this book?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- We’ve played football twice today.</td>
<td>- He’s been playing football for 20 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is used with permanent situations:</td>
<td>It is used with temporary situations:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- People have eaten a lot less meat over the last 30 years.</td>
<td>- People have been eating less meat lately because of the recent economic crisis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is more usual in negative, with always, and state verbs, even if we have since, for, and how long:</td>
<td>It is used with all (day, afternoon), etc.:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I’ve been in London since last Monday.</td>
<td>- It has been snowing all day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- He has always been honest.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- She hasn’t phone me since last weekend.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.8 Past Perfect Simple

It has the following basic form: (HAD + PAST PARTICIPLE). It is used when we talk about an action or event in the past before another past action or a point of time in the past. It is also called ‘a past in the past.'
Focus on the following diagram showing the difference between present and past perfect simple:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Perfect Simple</th>
<th>Past Perfect Progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Someone had smoked all my cigarettes</td>
<td>Someone has smoked all my cigarettes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.9 Past Perfect Progressive

It has the following basic form: (HAD + BEEN + PRESENT PARTICIPLE). It has the same meaning as past perfect simple. There are the same differences between past perfect simple and progressive as shown in present perfect simple and progressive.

36) Finally the bus arrived. I had been waiting for more than half an hour.
37) His eyes were red. He had been crying.

1.10 Future

In English the most common construction or way to refer to future time is (WILL + INFINITIVE). The basic meaning of (will + infinitive) construction is that you decide at the time of speaking to do something in the future even if the future is very close to the time of speaking. It is mostly used in formal written English.

38) ‘Someone is knocking at the door.’ ‘I’ll open it.’

The (will + base) construction has other meanings such as promising, threatening, offering, etc.

39) I’ll pay back your money next week, I promise.
40) If you don’t pay back, I’ll kill you.
41) I will give you a hand with that.

The following are some other constructions that are used to refer to the future:

A) Be going to + infinitive

This form is used in informal spoken English. It means you will do something in the future but you decided in the past, and you have intention, to do something in the future.

42) Tom: Let’s go to London.
Jane: Good idea! We’ll visit a lot of friends. (The decision is at the time of speaking)

Two days later, Jane sees Alice and says:
We’re going to visit a lot of friends in London. (The decision was made 2 days ago)

When something is predicted to happen in the future, (be going to + infinitive) is used based on an evidence that exists now. Quirk et al (1985: 214) name this situation “FUTURE RESULT OF PRESENT CAUSE.”

43) It is going to rain. (Because black clouds exist)

B) Will + progressive infinitive

It has the following form: (will + be + present participle). It means someone will be in the middle of doing an action in the future.

44) This time tomorrow I will be working in my new office.

C) Will + perfect infinitive
The form is (will + have + past participle) indicating that someone before a standpoint in the future will finish doing something.

45) By the time you arrive, I will have finished work.

NOW \[\text{Will have finished}\] FUTURE

2. Declarative Sentences in Kurdish

2.0 Introduction

In Kurdish language, the basic elements in sentences are canonically arranged as SOV but it allows variations. According to the time of declaring and happening an event, Kurdish tenses are mainly divided into present and past. Before discussing these tenses, there are some important terms, related to the Kurdish tenses, which should be explained in order that the readers can easily understand the Kurdish present and past formulas.

2.1 Pronouns:

a. Free personal pronouns
   - Min (I)
     Ėme (We)
   - To (You for second singular person) Ėwe (You for second plural person)
   - Ew (He/she/it) Ewan
     (They)


b. Bound personal pronouns:

1. Possessive pronouns

These pronouns are attached to the end of nouns.

1. -im (My)/-man (Our) \[\rightarrow\text{bawik}im\] (my father) bawik\text{man}
   (our father)
2. -it (Your)/-tan (Your) \[\rightarrow\text{bawik}it\] (you father) bawik\text{tan}
   (your father)
3. -i (His/hers/its)/ -ian (Their) \[\rightarrow\text{bawik}i\] (his/her father) bawik\text{ian}
   (their father)


2. Personal pronouns for present verbs:

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1. Bound personal pronouns, in Kurdish, are regarded as inflectional bound morphemes and they are attached to the end of nouns, root of verbs and stem of verbs.
These pronouns are regarded as inflectional bound morphemes and they are attached to the end of non-past transitive and intransitive root verbs (Xoş naw, 2015: 42-43 & Dzey, 2014: 201):

1. -iṁ (for first singular person) →-iṁ (for first plural person)
   - (Min) Deh-iṁim…(l (will) bring…)
   - (cōme) deh-iṁin… (We (will) bring…)

2. -iǚt (for second singular person) →-iṁ (for second plural person)
   - (To) Deh-iüğt … (you (will) bring…)
   - (cōwe) Deh-iüğnin… (You (will) bring…)

3. -iętr or -iętr (for third singular person) →-iṁ (for third plural person)
   - (Ew) Deh-iętrt … (he (will) bring(s)…)
   - (Ewan) Deh-iętrnin (They (will) bring…)

If the root verb ends with the vowel ‘e’ and ‘o’, -iętr for the third singular person will change to -iętr:
   - (Ew)iowment (he/she (will) eat(s) apples)

In the above example, the root verb of ‘xiwardin’ is ‘xo’ (Berzncy et al, 2011: 9, 22-23; Rehî mî, 2013: 28-30 & Xoş naw, 2015: 43), (see,).

3. Personal pronouns for past verbs:

   1. For transitive verbs:

      These pronouns are attached to past transitive verbs. They occur in different positions within the verbs depending on the type of past tense (Berzncy et al, 2011: 18-22; Baban, 2012: 13-14, 20; Emîn’ 2014: 100; Dzey, 2014: 201 & Xoş naw, 2015: 40):

      a. -m (for I) →hînam (I brought…)
         -man (for we) →hînaman (we brought…)
      b. -t (for you (second singular person)) → hînat (you brought…)
         -tan (for you (second plural person)) → hînatan (you brought…)
      c. -i (for He/ she/ it) → hînay³ (he/she brought …)
         -ian (for They) →hînayân (they brought…)

   2. For intransitive verbs:

      These pronouns are attached to past intransitive verbs. They usually occur at the end of past intransitive verbs (Berzncy et al, 2011: 18-21; Baban, 2012: 13-14, 19; Emîn, 2014: 101; Dzey, 2014: 201 & Xoş naw, 2015: 41):

      a. -m (for I) →çûm (I left)
         -în (for we) →çûyn (we left)

2. Kurdish language is a pro-drop language (null-subject language), so it is possible to say: sëw dexwat (literal translation. eats apple).
3. Whenever [i] is preceded by a vowel, [i] is changed to [y].
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2.2 Infinitive

Infinitive\(^4\), in Kurdish, can be defined as a form that contains a root and it ends by one of these suffixes (-an, -în, -tin, -din, -ûn) (Emîn, 2014: 150). For example, kêlan (ploughing), pijmin (sneezing), nustûn (sleeping), birîn (taking), and ciwîn (chewing). From the example (1), fierostûn (selling) is a noun, because it is a subject in the sentence. Also it is a verb, because it performs and action later. Moreover, Xoşnaw (2015: 67) defines infinitive as “a word or a source that is used for forming past action or noun which is used in sentences to show an event, but this event is not added to a person or a thing, also it does not contain number and time”.

1. Fierostûn le xiwastin baştîra. (selling is better than borrowing)

To Emîn (2014: 149-150), infinitive, in Kurdish, can be identified by the following characteristics:

1. A word is considered as infinitive if it ends with one of the following suffixes:
   a. -an, for example in sutan (burning) and in kûsan (weighing)
   b. -în, for example in kirîn (buying) and in fiîn (flying)
   c. -tin, for example in gîrtin (holding) and in kuştîn (killing)
   d. -din, for example in çaqandîn (sticking) and in mîrdîn (dying)
   e. -ûn, for example in çûn (going) and in dirûn (sewing)

2. Infinitive is not described

3. If the suffix of -n is omitted from the Infinitive, the form is changed to past verb. This case is equivalent to English past simple tense. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Xîstûn (extinguishing)</td>
<td>xist (extinguished). E.g. Farahad çrakai xist (Farhad extinguished the lantern)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sirîn (erasing)</td>
<td>sirî (erased). E.g. Dara taxtakai sirî. (Dara erased the board)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, to Xoşnaw (2015: 70-71), infinitive, in Kurdish, is identified by having the suffix -n at the end, and this suffix co-occurs with the letters Ĺ, Ĭ, ī, d, a, and t. Thus, the suffix -n and the mentioned letters together form infinitive and they are regarded as infinitive markers. For example:

- çû+ n =çûn (leaving)

\(^4\) Infinitive, in Kurdish, is equivalent to those English nouns formed by -ing form verbs (gerund). For example, nüsîn (writing) from nusî (to write).
kiɾn + n = kiɾn (buying)
bird+ n = birdin (taking)
suta + n sutan (burning)
nust + n = nustin (sleeping)

Emîn (2014: 150-151) and Xoş naw (2015: 67-70) classify infinitive into three types according to its structure:

1. **Simple infinitive**

A simple infinitive consists of a free morpheme and it ends with \(-n\). For example, *birdin* (taking) and *kewtin* (falling).

2. **Complex infinitive**

A complex infinitive consists of a simple infinitive with a prefix or a suffix or a confix. For example:
- Prefix + simple infinitive, as in *ber + dan = berdan* (releasing)
- Simple infinitive + suffix, as in *birdin + ewe = birdinewe* (winning)
- Prefix + simple infinitive + suffix, as in *tē + kirdin + ewe = tēkirdinewe* (refilling)

3. **Compound infinitive**

A compound infinitive consists of two words in which one of the words is an infinitive. For example:
- Simple word + simple infinitive, as in *dest + kewtin = destkewtin* (achieving)
- Complex noun + simple infinitive, as in *rēga + girtin = rēgagirtin* (holding road)

### 2.3 Verb stem

Emîn (1984: 78) and Xoş naw (2015: 72-73) state that all infinitives, in Kurdish language, end with \(-n\) and by removing this \(-n\), a verb stem is formed. Verb stem, sometimes, is called past root or past simple in Kurdish language.
- Verb stem = past simple = past root

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb stem (past simple/ past root)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hānan (brining)</td>
<td>hāna (brought)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiwardin (eating)</td>
<td>xiward (ate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Řijan (spilling)</td>
<td>ſi (spilt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dizin (stealing)</td>
<td>diz (stole)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Şuştin (washing)</td>
<td>şuşt (washed)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.4 Verb root

Verb root, in Kurdish, is defined as a form that is derived from infinitive and it becomes a part of the structure of the infinitive. In most of the times, the root of verb is regarded as a bound morpheme that is not used alone (Xoş naw, 2015: 73). Moreover, according to him (2015: 76-80) and Emîn (2014: 155-158), non-past verb
root can be formed by removing the infinitive suffixes (infinitive markers) from the
infinitive transitive verbs. For example:

1. Removing the infinitive –n and the suffix-a from the infinitive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hênan (bringing)</td>
<td>hên</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kêlan (ploughing)</td>
<td>kêl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the infinitive is intransitive verb, the infinitive -n will be omitted and the morpheme
-a is changed to -ê.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Şikan (breaking)</td>
<td>şikê</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xinkan (choking)</td>
<td>xinkê</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Removing the infinitive –n and the suffix -i from the infinitive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biɾên (cutting)</td>
<td>biɾê</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiɾên (flying)</td>
<td>fiɾê</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Removing the infinitive –n and the suffix -û from intransitive infinitive verb:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bûn (borning)</td>
<td>bû</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Çûn (going)</td>
<td>çû</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the infinitive is a transitive verb, only the infinitive –n will be omitted. Here, the
verb root and the verb stem are identical.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dirûn (sewing)</td>
<td>dirû</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girûn (skinning)</td>
<td>girû</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Removing the infinitive –n and the suffix -t from infinitive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Firoṣtin (selling)</td>
<td>firoṣ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girtin (holding)</td>
<td>gîr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of verb roots can be derived from infinitives just by removing the infinitive -n.
Here, the verb root and the verb stem are identical:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bîstîn (hearing)</td>
<td>bîst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bestîn (tying)</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peristîn (worshiping)</td>
<td>perist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of verb roots can be derived from those infinitives that they end with the
suffixes of (t+in), if these suffixes are preceded by a consonant and before this
consonant, there is a vowel, the suffixes (t+in) are removed and the vowel of (a or e)
is changed to (ê):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Palawtin (filtering)</td>
<td>palêw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of verb roots can be derived from those infinitives that they end with the
suffixes of (t+in), if these suffixes preceded by /s/ or /ʒ/ the suffixes of (t+in) are
removed and /s/ is changed to /z/ and /ʒ/ is changed to /j/:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>verb root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Xiwaștin (borrowing)</td>
<td>xiwas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geștin (biting)</td>
<td>gez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuștin (killing)</td>
<td>kuj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Çuștin (tasting)</td>
<td>çûj</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some of verb roots can be derived from infinitives with the suffixes of (-t, -in) randomly:

**Infinitive** | **verb root**
---|---
Roystin (leaving) | ño
Şuştin (washing) | şo
Nustin (sleeping) | nu

5. Removing the infinitive -in and the suffix -d from the infinitive:

**Infinitive** | **verb root**
---|---
Xiwändin (studying) | xiw新车
Mirdin (dying) | mir

Some of verb roots can be derived from those infinitives that they end with the suffixes of (d+in), if these suffixes are preceded by a consonant and before this consonant, there will be a vowel (a or e), the suffixes (d+in) are removed and the vowel of (a or e) is changed to (ê):

**Infinitive** | **verb root**
---|---
Çandin (planting) | çên
Nardin (sending) | nêr
Birjandin (roasting) | birjên

Some of verb roots can be derived from infinitives with the suffixes of (-d, -in) randomly:

**Infinitive** | **verb root**
---|---
Xiwardin (eating) | xo
Birdin (taking) | be
Kirdin (doing) | ke

2.5 Declarative sentences:

In general, declarative sentences in Kurdish language are distributed among present and past tenses:

2.5.1 Present declarative sentences

In Kurdish language, declarative present sentences can be classified into two types according to the verb within the sentence whether it is strong or weak⁵.

a. Present sentences with weak verbs:

Present simple sentences with weak verbs are formed from the infinitive 'bûn' (being). Here, weak verbs include 'e' for now and 'debêt' for future. These kinds of verbs cannot be used alone. They require a complement (noun, pronoun, adjective, and adverb) to complete their meanings (Berzncy et al, 2011: 36-40).

1. Present sentences with weak verb for now

- Subject+ complement+ e+ personal pronoun

46) Dara endaziyarê. (Dara is an engineer)

47) Mindalekan zêrekîn. (the boys are clever)

The weak verb ‘e’ is only shown when the subject is the third person singular as the example (Dara endaziyarê) shows (Berzncy et al, 2011: 41). Thus, in case of having

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⁵. In Kurdish language, e (am/is/are), bu (was/were) and debêt (will be) are considered as weak verbs when they are main verbs.
other subjects other than third person singular, the weak verb is replaced by personal pronouns:

48) Min dictorim. (I am a doctor)
49) Ema dictorin. (we are doctor)
50) To dictorit. (You are a doctor)
51) Ėwa dictorn. (You are doctor)
52) Ew dictore. (he/sh is a doctor)
53) Ewan dictorin. (They are doctor)

In negative, ni- (not) is positioned before the personal pronoun (ibid). For example:
54) Min dictornım (I am not a doctor)

2. Present sentences with weak verb for future

✓ Subject + complement + debêt.
55) Mindaleke zêrak debêt. (the child will be clever)
56) Azad mamosta debêt. (Azad will be a teacher)

In negative, de- is replaced by na- (not) in debêt (ibid). For example:
57) Mindaleke zêrak naëbêt. (the child will not be clever) (Berzncy et al, 2011: 41)

b. Present sentences with strong verbs:

Except the weak verbs, all the other verbs are regarded as strong verbs. For example:

- Dexwat (to eat)
- Derdeçêt (to succeed)
- Desutênêt (to burn)

In present sentences, for transitive and intransitive verbs, the personal pronouns are always attached to the end of the root verb, as the below formulas show (Baban, 2012: 17; Rehî mî, 2013: 37; Emî n, 2014: 179-180 & Xoş naw, 2015: 86-87):

1. Formulas of the present simple tense:

a. Formula of the present tense for intransitive verbs:

✓ (Subject) + de + root of the verb + personal pronoun (m - în, ît - n, -at/-êt, - n)

58) (Piyaweke) derwat. (the man goes)

b. Formula of the present tense for transitive verbs:

✓ Subject + direct object + de + root of the verb + personal pronoun (m - în, ît - n, -at/-êt, - n)

59) (Kiçeke) pencereke deșkenêt. (the girl breaks the window)

In negative case, the prefix de- is replaced by na- (not). For example:
60) Kiçeke gîtar najenêt. (the girl doesn’t play guitar) (Berzncy et al, 2011: 9;
Emî n, 2014: 184 & Xoş naw, 2015: 110)
2. **The use of present (simple) tense in Kurdish language:**

1. Present simple is used to describe things that are always true:
   61) Zewi bedewry xorda desur$t$. (the earth goes round the sun)
   62) Aw le 100 °$c$ dekul$t$. (water boils at 100 °$c$)

2. Present simple is used for situations that exist now:
   63) Ku$ê$ke yar$ê$ba$h$ dazan$t$. (the boy plays the game well)
   64) Guleke ciwane. (the flower is beautiful)
   65) Piyawek$e$ mamostaye. (the man is a teacher)

3. The present simple is used to talk about habits or things that happen on a regular basis:
   66) Hamû $ş$awek sa$'at$ 10 pm dexewim. (I sleep every night at 10 pm)
   67) Min $â$datan beyanyian zû lexew heldestim. (I usually get up soon in the morning)

4. Present simple is used for talking about an event at the time of speaking (now):
   In central Kurdish language, an action can be described that is happening at the time of speaking by using adverbs of time indicating now, such as: wa, ewa (just) and $ê$sta (now):
   68) Wa baran debar$t$. (It is just raining)
   69) $ê$sta de$î$om bo zanko. (I am going to university now) (Emîn, 2014: 181&
(Xo$naw$, 2015: 87)
5. Present simple for an event in the future

In Kurdish language, present simple can be used for an action that is happening in the future by using adverbs of time indicating future, such as: this week, next month, next year... etc (Xoş naw, 2015: 88):
70) Saištir deçim bo zanko. (I will go to university next year)
71) Em hefteye deçim bo Hewlîr. (I will go to Hewlîr this week)

6. Present simple for progressive

To talk about particular actions or events that have begun but have not ended at the time of speaking:
72) Legal kû qisa dekey? (Who are you talking to?)

2.5.2 Past declarative tenses

To Emîn (2014: 166), past tenses belong to those tenses that they declare an event about a person or about something in a situation in past. In Kurdish language, according to strong and weak verbs, past sentences are classified into two types:

2.5.2.1 Past simple sentence with weak verb:

In Kurdish language, a sentence with weak verb is identified by having the verb ‘bû’ (was/ were) as the main verb in the sentence. Bû is a verb stem that is derived from the infinitive ‘bûn’ (being). Bû, like ‘e’ and ‘debet’, cannot stand alone. It requires a complement (noun, pronoun, adjective and adverb) to complete its meaning (Berzncy et al, 2011:36-40).

✓ Subject+ complement+ bû+ (personal pronoun)

73) Piyawekê mamostabû. (the man was a teacher)
74) Gulekan ciwanbûn. (the flowers were beautiful)
75) Ahengeke be şewbû. (The party was at night)
76) Ewa min bûm, ke le baxekeda desuîâmewe. (It was me, that I was walking in the garden)

In negative case, ne- (not) is positioned at the beginning of the verb stem ‘bû’ (Emî n, 2014: 184 & Xoş naw, 2015: 110). For example:
77) Piyawekê mamosta nebû. (the man was not a teacher)
2.5.2.2 Past sentences with strong verbs:

In Kurdish language, according to the time of happening an event, past sentences are divided into four tenses (Baban, 2012: 16, 104-115 & Dzey, 2014: 86):

1. Past simple sentence:

In general, simple past tense is used to talk about things that happened in the past (Emîn, 1960: 202).

1.1 Formulas of the past simple tense:

a. For intransitive verbs:

✓ (Subject) + verb stem + personal pronoun (-m, - în, -ît - n, -Θ, -n)

78) (Min) nustîm. (I slept)
79) (me) serkawtîn. (we succeeded)


b. For transitive verbs:

✓ Subject + direct object+personal pronoun (-m, - man, -t, -tan, -an, - an) + verb stem

80) Awan genmekeyan haîri. (They crushed the wheat)

When the direct object is mentioned, the personal pronouns are attached to the end of the direct object, as the example (80) shows. But when the direct object is not mentioned, the personal pronouns are attached to the end of the transitive verb stem, as the example (81) shows (Emîn, 2014:167-168).

81) Min kûlam {subject+ verb stem + personal pronouns}. (I ploughed)

Past simple tense is negated by ‘ne-’ (not) which occurs at the beginning of the verb stem as the examples (82) and (83) show. However, for transitive verbs, when the direct object is not mentioned, the personal pronouns are moved and attached to the end of ‘ne-’ (not), as the example (84) shows (Emîn, 2014:167, 184):

82) (Min) nenustîm. (I didn’t sleep)
83) Ewan genmekeyan nehaiî. (They didn’t crush the wheat)
84) Min nemkîla {subject+ ne+ personal pronoun+ verb stem}. (I didn’t plough)

Moreover, in complex verb stem, ‘ne-’ is positioned to the front of the second part of the stem, as the example (85) shows:

85) Ême sernekekawtîn. (we didn’t succeed)

1.2 The uses of past simple:

To Emîn (2014: 168), past simple can be used for the following situations:

1. For a specific event in the past:

86) ‘Elî pûrî çû bo Hewler. (Ali went to Hewler yesterday)

2. For an event that happens at the time of speaking:
87) Ewa segeke kerwîşkekay ûawk kirid. (the dog just chased the rabbit)

3. For an event that happens in the future, but the event is expected to be happening:
88) Eger çûyêt bo bazaê, tozk xoxim bo bikê. (If you went to bazar, buy me some peaches)

4. For two events happening one after one:
89) Katêk dermanekanim xiward, xewim Iê kewit. (when I had the medicines, I slept)

5. For an event that is about to be happening:
90) Hatim (for answering someone’s call). (Literal translation. I came)

2. Past progressive tense:

Past progressive tense is used to talk about things that were happening in the past and had not stopped happening. They were continuing (Emîn, 1960: 223; 2014: 173 & Xoş naw, 2015: 84-85).

2.1 Formulas of the past progressive tense:

a. For intransitive verbs:
   ✓ (Subject) + de+ verb stem + personal pronoun (-m, -în, -ît - n, -Θ, -n)
91) (Min) deçûm. (I was leaving)
92) (me) deçûyn. (we were leaving)(Baban, 2012:106)

b. For transitive verbs:
   ✓ (Subject) +direct object + personal pronoun (-m, -man, -t, -tan, -an)+de+ verb stem.
93) (Min) goşteke m dexward. (I was eating the meat)
94) (me) goşteke man dexward. (we were eating the meat)

When the complement (direct object) is mentioned, the personal pronouns are attached to the end of the direct object, as the example (93) and (94) show. But when the complement (direct object) is not mentioned, the personal pronouns are positioned after ‘de-’ at the beginning of the transitive verb stem, as the example (95) shows (Emîn, 2014:173-175).
95) (Min) demnûsê (subject) +de+personal pronouns + verb stem). (I was writing)

Past progressive tense is negated by ‘ne-’ (not) which is occurred before the de+verb stem as the examples (96) and (97) show. However, for transitive verbs, when the direct object is not mentioned, the personal pronouns are moved and attached to the end of ‘ne-’ (not) and at the beginning of the de+verb stem, as the example (98) shows (Emîn, 2014:174, 184):
96) (Min) nedecûm. (I was not leaving)
97) (Min) goşteke m nedexward. (I was not eating the meat)
2.2 The uses of past progressive:

To Emîn (2014: 175), past progressive tense can be used for:
1. A continuous event in past:

98) (Min) nem deňûs {(subject) + ne+ personal pronoun+de+verb stem}. (I wasn’t writing).

2. Habit used in past:

100) Heta mali le Koye bû, hemû hawûnûk, dehat bo Hawlûr. (When her house was in Koye, every summer, she was visiting Hewler)

3. For an event that was about happening in the past:

101) Eger dergakem danexistibaye, dizeke derbazdebu. (If I didn’t close the door, the thief was escaping).

3. Past tense for an action happening at an unspecified time before now (this tense is equivalent to present perfect tense in English):

This tense is used for describing an action that is happening before the moments of speaking (the action is not happening a long time ago) (Emîn, 1956: 17). This tense is marked by ‘-ue’. The letters ‘u’ and ‘e’ are separated by personal pronouns in case of having intransitive verbs (Berzncy et al, 2011: 18-21). To Xoş naw (2015: 86) and Baban (2012: 107), ‘-ûe’ is marked for this tense when the verb stem ends with the letters ‘t’ and ‘d’, if not it is marked by ‘-ue’ for the other letters.

3.1 Formulas

a. For intransitive verbs:

✓ (Subject)+ verb stem +-û+ personal pronoun (-m, -în, -ît - n, -Θ, -n)+e

102) (Min) kewtûme. (I have failed)

103) (Ewan) kewtûne. (they have failed)

b. For transitive verbs:

✓ (Subject) +direct object + personal pronoun (-m, - man, -t, -tan, -û, -an)+verb stem+ ûwe

104) Min wanekem xiwûndûwe. (I have studied the lesson)

When the complement (direct object) is mentioned, the personal pronouns are attached to the end of the direct object, as the example (104) shows. But when the complement (direct object) is not mentioned, the personal pronouns are inserted between -ue, as the example (105) shows (Emîn, 2014:169-170).
105) (we) kir\textit{utane} {(subject) + verb stem+u/û+ personal pronouns+e}. (you have bought)

This kind of past tense is negated by ‘ne-’ (not) which is attached to the beginning of the verb stem as the examples (106) and (107) show. However, for transitive verbs, when the direct object is not mentioned, the personal pronouns are moved and attached to the end of ‘ne-’ (not) and at the beginning of the verb stem, as the example (108) shows (Emîn, 2014:170, 184& Xoş naw, 2015: 86, 110):

106) (Min) \textit{nekew\textit{ûme}}. (I have not failed)

107) Min waneke nexi\textit{wûwe}. (I have not studied the lesson)

108) (we) \textit{netankir\textit{we}} {(subject) + verb stem+u/û+ personal pronouns+e}. (you have not bought)

3.2 The uses of the tense:

To Emîn (2014: 171), the mentioned tense, in Kurdish, can be used for the following situations:

1. An action happened in past completely:

109) S\textit{wekem çand\textit{ûwe}}. (I have planted the apple)

2. To show an action begun in the past and continuing into the present:

110) H\textit{êşta bexdam ned\textit{we}}. (still I have not seen Baghdad)

3. For a particular action happened in past:

111) Xan\textit{ûwekeman le parewe firoşt\textit{ûwe}}. (We have sold our house from last year)

4. For happening an action doubtfully:

112) Nazanim Azad hatotewe. (I do not know that Azad has come back)

5. For happening an action that is expected that action has happened:

113) Wabizanim Dana le ristesazi dernaç\textit{ûwe}. (I think Dana has not succeeded in syntax)

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure.png}
\caption{The tense in Kurdish}
\end{figure}

6. For indicating an action that is happening in the future:

114) Roj\textit{ê} le rojan detb\textit{nim ke bûyte piyaw}. (One day I will see you that you will have become a man)

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure.png}
\caption{The tense in Kurdish}
\end{figure}
4. Past perfect in Kurdish (this tense is equivalent to past perfect in English):

Past perfect is used to talk about a past situation or activity that takes place before another past situation or activity. It is used for describing an event happening along time ago. This tense is marked by ‘bû’, which is formed from ‘bûn’ (to be), that is attached to the verb stem (Baban, 2012: 97, 106). For example:

115) katêk ke wa hatin bo malim, min nan nêwerom xiwardibû. (When you came to my house, I had had lunch)

4.1 Formulas of past perfect tense:

a. For intransitive verbs:

✓ (Subject)+ verb stem +bû+ personal pronoun (-m, -în, -ît - n, -Θ, -n)

116) (Min) tirsabûm. (I had scared)

117) (To) tirisabûyt (you had scared) (Baban, 2012: 106)

b. For transitive verbs:

✓ (Subject) + direct object + personal pronoun (-m, -man, -t, -tan, -Δ, -an)+verb stem+bû

118) me qay şekem man bestibû. (we had fastened the belt)

When the complement (direct object) is mentioned, the personal pronouns are attached to the end of the direct object, as the example (118) shows. But when the complement (direct object) is not mentioned, the personal pronouns are attached to the end of ‘bû’, as the example (119) shows (Berzncy et al, 2011: 22 & Emân, 2014:169-172-173)

119) (we) birjand bûtan {(subject) + verb stem+bû+ personal pronouns}. (you had roasted)

Past perfect tense is negated by ‘ne’- (not) which is attached to the beginning of the verb stem as the examples (120) and (121) show. However, for transitive verbs, when the direct object is not mentioned, the personal pronouns are moved and attached to the end of ‘ne’- (not) and at the beginning of the verb stem, as the example (122) shows (Emân, 2014:172, 184):

120) (Min) netirsabûm. (I had not scared)

121) me qay şekeman nebestibû. (we had not fastened the belt)

122) (we) netanbirjandibû {(subject) + verb stem+bû+ personal pronouns}. (you had not roasted)
Conclusions

1- In Kurdish language, most of the times, the root of the verb is considered as a bound morpheme that is not used alone. In contrast, in English, root is a free morpheme that it can stand alone.

2- The position of bound personal pronouns, in Kurdish past declarative sentences, is changed depending on the type of past tense, but in present declarative sentences is sustained. In English, personal pronouns are free morphemes and their position is fixed in present and past sentences.

3- In Kurdish present declarative sentences, the same group of personal pronouns are used. But in past declarative sentences, the group of personal pronouns are changed depending on having transitive or intransitive verb in the sentence.

4- Kurdish present declarative sentences are formed from the root of the verb that is a bound morpheme, but past declarative sentences are formed from the verb stem that is a free morpheme.

5- In central Kurdish language, an action can be described that happens at the time of speaking by using adverbs of time indicating now (wa, ewa and ḳāsta). In contrast, in English, present continuous is used for that situation.

6- In central Kurdish language, an action can be described that happens in the future by using adverbs of time indicating future (this week, next month). In contrast, in English, there are a variety of situations in which different tenses are used for the future (e.g. present simple, present progressive, future perfect, future continuous, simple future and be going to).

7- In English, distinctions between past perfect simple and past perfect continuous, and present perfect simple and present perfect continuous are clearly drawn. In contrast, there are not such differences in Kurdish.

8- In English, state verbs are used only in simple tenses; they cannot be used in progressive tenses. In contrast, in Kurdish, there is not such a distinctive case.
## List of Kurdish Phonemic Symbols

### 1- Kurdish Consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>pʔr</td>
<td>‘old’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>bir</td>
<td>‘well’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>tːR</td>
<td>‘net’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>dest</td>
<td>‘hand’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>kuːr</td>
<td>‘hunched’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>ɡoːR</td>
<td>‘grave’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/q/</td>
<td>quːR</td>
<td>‘mud’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɛ/</td>
<td>ew</td>
<td>‘he, she, or it’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>befir</td>
<td>‘snow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>miro</td>
<td>‘human’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>sed</td>
<td>‘hundred’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>zeR</td>
<td>‘gold’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>şew</td>
<td>‘night’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>jʊr</td>
<td>‘room’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>xiwê</td>
<td>‘salt’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>ʃem</td>
<td>‘grief’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>heb</td>
<td>‘pill’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>ʃerēb</td>
<td>‘Arab’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>hest</td>
<td>‘feeling’</td>
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<tr>
<td>/g/</td>
<td>Čep</td>
<td>‘left’</td>
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<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>lêw</td>
<td>‘lip’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>cor</td>
<td>‘type’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>hêl</td>
<td>‘line’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>mirid</td>
<td>‘died’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>nêr</td>
<td>‘male’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>pêrê</td>
<td>‘the day before yesterday’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>kuːr</td>
<td>‘boy’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>wêne</td>
<td>‘picture’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
<td>yek</td>
<td>‘one’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2- Kurdish Vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/iː/</td>
<td>sîr</td>
<td>‘garlic’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/iː/</td>
<td>xiwardi</td>
<td>(s)he ate’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/iː/</td>
<td>mîrdîn</td>
<td>‘death’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>mê</td>
<td>‘female’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>‘ten’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/aː/</td>
<td>dar</td>
<td>‘wood’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/aː/</td>
<td>gund</td>
<td>‘village’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/uː/</td>
<td>dûr</td>
<td>‘far’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/uː/</td>
<td>bon</td>
<td>‘perfume’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
English References


Kurdish References

- Emîn, Nuri ’Elî’. (1956). *Qewahid Zimanî Kurdi, le (Sarf u Nehuda)*. Baghdad: Mehrfar Publisher.
الخلاصة

تعتبر هذه الدراسة هي دراسة مقارنة عن الجمل الخبرية في اللغتين الانكليزية والكردية. وهي تهدف إلى مقارنة التركيبات والاستخدامات للأشكال الفعلية للجمل الخبرية وحسب وقت وقوع الحدث في كلتا اللغتين وذلك من اجل بيان اوجه التشابه والاختلاف بينهما. تتكون الدراسة من مبحثين رئيسيين، يتناول البحث الأول انواع الجمل الخبرية في اللغة الانكليزية مع التراكيب والاستخدامات. بينما يتطرق البحث الثاني بعض المفاهيم الاساسية المتعلقة بالجمل الخبرية الكردية. وكذلك يتضمن اختلاف التراكيب والاستخدامات في الجمل الخبرية الكردية. تتحتم الدراسة ببعض الاستنتاجات الهامة المأخوذة من البحث، قائمة من الرموز الصوتية الكردية وبعض المصادر الانكليزية والكردية.