

## **A Comparative Study of Declarative Sentences in English and Kurdish**

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### **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."

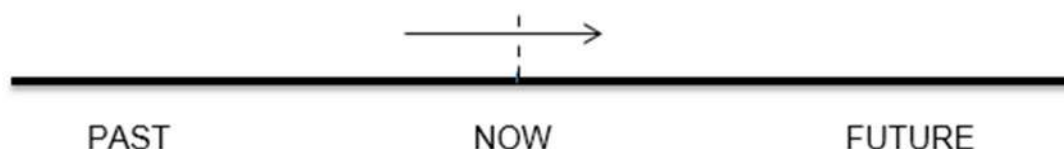
2) 'Is Lisa working today?' 'Yes, she is.'

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:



**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.

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.

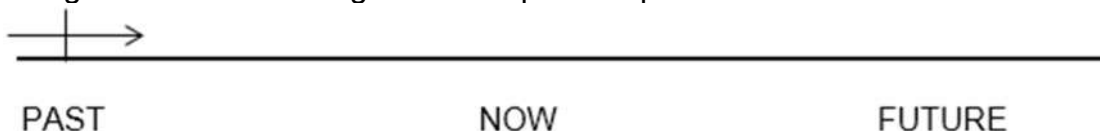
24) Dinosaurs lived on the earth.

**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:



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

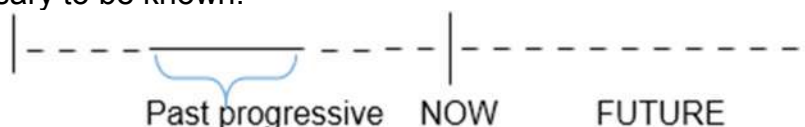


They (ibid) illustrate the time line for the situation (D):



### 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.



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:

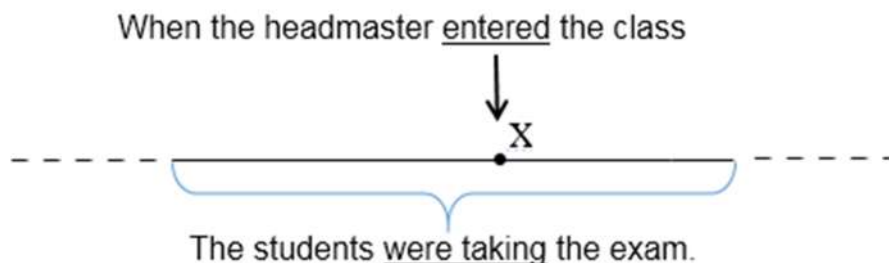
26) The situation was getting worse and worse.

**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:



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

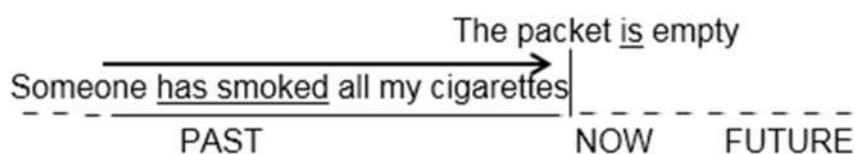
28) I was walking in the forest. The bees were humming and buzzing. The butterflies were fluttering by and alighting on the flowers. I was enjoying looking at these views when suddenly a bear appeared.

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.



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.

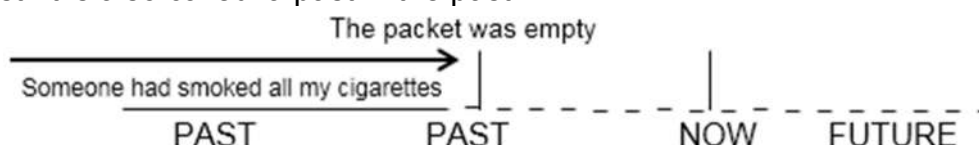
### 1.7.1 Present Perfect Simple or Progressive

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

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

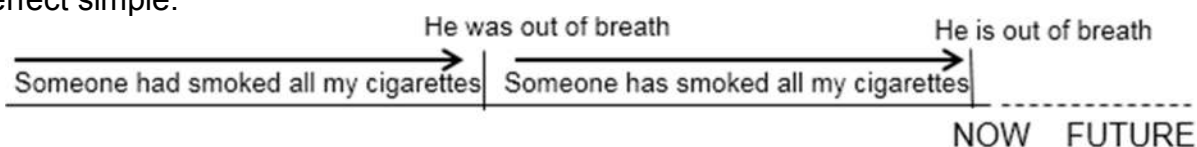
### 1.8 Past Perfect Simple

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:



### 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)

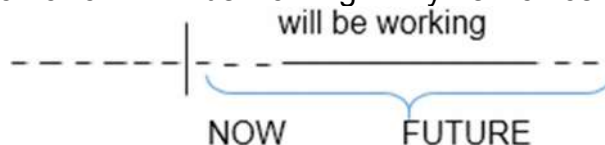
When something is predicted to happen in the future, (be going to + infinitive) is used based on an evidence that exists now. Quirk et al (1985: 214) name this situation "FUTURE RESULT OF PRESENT CAUSE."

- 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.

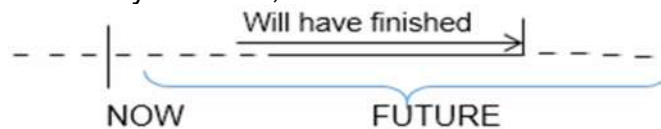
- 44) This time tomorrow I will be working in my new office.



#### 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.



## 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)
  - Ême** (We)
  - **To** (*You* for second singular person) **Êwe** (*You* for second plural person)
  - **Ew** (He/she/it) **Ewan**  
(They)
- (Emîn, 2014: 97-98; Dzey, 2014:201 & Xoşnaw, 2015: 38-39)

#### b. Bound personal pronouns<sup>1</sup>:

##### 1. Possessive pronouns

These pronouns are attached to the end of nouns.

1. **-im** (My)/**-man** (Our) → bawik**im** (my father) bawik**man**  
(our father)
2. **-it** (Your)/**-tan** (Your) → bawik**it** (you father) bawik**tan** (your father)
3. **-î** (His/hers/its)/ **-îan** (Their) → bawik**î** (his/her father) bawik**îan** (their father)

(Baban, 2012: 13-14; Şehîmî, 2013: 28-29& Dzey, 2014: 201)

##### 2. Personal pronouns for present verbs:

<sup>1</sup>. 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. <b>-im</b> (for first singular person)               | → <b>-in</b> (for first plural person)  |
| – (Min) Deh□nim...(I (will) bring...)                   | (□me) deh□n□n... (We (will) bring...)   |
| 2. <b>-it</b> (for second singular person)              | → <b>-in</b> (for second plural person) |
| – (To) Deh□n□t ... (you (will) bring...)                | (□we) Deh□nin... (You (will) bring...)  |
| 3. <b>-êt</b> or <b>-at</b> (for third singular person) | → <b>-in</b> (for third plural person)  |
| – (Ew) Deh□n□t ... (he (will) bring(s)...) bring...)    | (Ewan) Deh□nin (They (will) bring...)   |

If the root verb ends with the vowel 'e' and 'o', **-êt** for the third singular person will change to **-at**:

- (Ew)<sup>2</sup>s□w dex**wat** (he/she (will) eat(s) apples)

In the above example, the root verb of 'xiwardin' is 'xo'(Berzncy et al, 2011: 9, 22-23; Rêhî 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; Em□n' 2014: 100; Dzey, 2014: 201 & Xo□naw, 2015: 40):

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| a. <b>-m</b> (for I)                            | →h□ <b>nam</b> (I brought...)                    |
| <b>-man</b> (for we)                            | →h□ <b>naman</b> (we brought...)                 |
| b. <b>-t</b> (for you (second singular person)) | → h□ <b>nat</b> (you brought...)                 |
| <b>-tan</b> (for you (second plural person))    | → h□ <b>natan</b> (you brought...)               |
| c. <b>-î</b> (for He/ she/ it)                  | → h□ <b>nay<sup>3</sup></b> (he/she brought ...) |
| <b>-ian</b> (for They)                          | →h□ <b>nayan</b> (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; Emî n, 2014: 101; Dzey, 2014: 201 & Xoş naw, 2015: 41):

- |                      |                         |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| a. <b>-m</b> (for I) | →çû <b>m</b> (I left)   |
| <b>-in</b> (for we)  | →çû <b>yn</b> (we left) |

<sup>2</sup>. Kurdish language is a pro-drop language (null-subject language), so it is possible to say: sêw *dexwat* (literal translation. *eats apple*).

<sup>3</sup>. Whenever [î] is preceded by a vowel, [î] is changed to [y].

- b. **-ît** (for *you* (second singular person)) → çû**yt** (you left)  
**-n** (for *you* (second plural person)) → çû**n** (you left)  
c. **-Θ** (for *he/ she/it*) → çû (he/she went)  
**-n** (for *they*) → çû**n** (they went)

## 2.2 Infinitive

Infinitive<sup>4</sup>, 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) (Emî n, 2014: 150). For example, *kêlan* (ploughing), *pîjmîn* (sneezing), *nustîn* (sleeping), *birdîn* (taking), and *ciwîn* (chewing). From the example (1), *firoştin* (selling) is a noun, because it is a subject in the sentence. Also it is a verb, because it performs an 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. Firoştin le xiwastin baştira. (selling is better than borrowing)

To Emî n (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 *kîşan* (weighing)
  - b. -în, for example in *kişîn* (buying) and in *fîrîn* (flying)
  - c. -tin, for example in *girtin* (holding) and in *kuştin* (killing)
  - d. -din, for example in *çaqandin* (sticking) and in *mirdin* (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:

### Infinitive

Xistin (extinguishing)  
 Xistin (erasing)  
 (Dara erased the board)

### verb

xist (extinguished). E.g. Farhad çrakai xist (Farhad extinguished the lantern)  
 siî (erased). E.g. Dara taxtakai siî.

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 **û, î, 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** + n = çû**n** (leaving)

<sup>4</sup>. Infinitive, in Kurdish, is equivalent to those English nouns formed by -ing form verbs (gerund). For example, *nusîn* (writing) from *nusî* (to write).

- kirî + n = kirîn(buying)
- bird + n = birdin (taking)
- suta + n sutan (burning)
- nust + n = nustin (sleeping)

Emî n (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 *tê + kirdin + ewe*= tîkirdinewe (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 *rêga + girtin* = rêgagirtin (holding road)

## 2.3 Verb stem

Emî n (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

### Infinitive

Hînan (bringing)  
Xiwardin (eating)  
Rîjan (spilling)  
Dizîn (stealing)  
Şuştin (washing)

rîja (spilt)

### Verb stem (past simple/ past root)

hîna (brought)  
xiward (ate)  
dizî (stole)  
şuşt (washed)

## 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 Emî n (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:

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
H $\square$ nan (bringing)	h $\square$ n
K $\square$ lan (ploughing)	k $\square$ l

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

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Şikan (breaking)	şik $\square$
Xinkan (choking)	xink $\square$

2. Removing the infinitive **-n** and the suffix **-î** from the infinitive:

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Bi $\hat{r}$ $\square$ n (cutting)	bi $\hat{r}$
Fi $\hat{r}$ $\square$ n (flying)	fi $\hat{r}$

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

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Bûn (borning)	b
Çûn (going)	ç

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

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Dirûn (sewing)	dirû
Girûn (skinning)	girû

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

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Firoştin (selling)	firoş
Girtin (holding)	gir

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:

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
B $\square$ stin (hearing)	b $\square$ st
Bestin (tying)	best
Peristin (worshipping)	perist

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):

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Palawtin (filtering)	pal $\square$ w

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 / $\square$ / the suffixes of (t+in) are removed and /s/ is changed to /z/ and / $\square$ / is changed to /j/:

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Xiwastin (borrowing)	xiwaz
Geştin (biting)	gez
Kuştin (killing)	kuj
Ç $\square$ ştin (tasting)	ç $\square$ j

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

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Āroyiştin (leaving)	îo
Şuştin (washing)	şo
Nustin (sleeping)	nu

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

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Xiwandin (studying)	xiwandin
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**):

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
Çandin (planting)	çandin
Nardin (sending)	nandin
Birjandin (roasting)	birjandin

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

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>verb root</u>
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 weak<sup>5</sup>.

#### 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 endaziyare. (Dara is an engineer)

47) Mindalekan zêrekin. (the boys are clever)

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

<sup>5</sup>. 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 dictor**im**. (I am a doctor)

49) Ema dictor**în**. (we are doctor)

50) To dictor**ît**. (You are a doctor)

51) Êwa dictor**n**. (You are doctor)

52) Ew dictore**ê**. (he/sh is a doctor)

53) Ewan dictor**in**. (They are doctor)

In negative, **nî-** (not) is positioned before the personal pronoun (ibid). For example:

54) Min dictor**nîm** (I am not a doctor)

## 2. Present sentences with weak verb for future

✓ Subject+ complement+ **debêt**.

55) Mindaleke z**î**rak **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 z**î**rak **nabî**t. (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)
- Derdeç**î**t (to succeed)
- Desut**î**n**î**t (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; Rêhî 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) der**wat**. (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) (Kîçeke) pencereke **deşkenêt**. (the girl breaks the window)

In negative case, the prefix **de-** is replaced by **na-** (not). For example:

60) Kîçeke gîtar **najenêt**. (the girl doesn't play guitar) (Berzncy et al, 2011: 9;

Emî n, 2014: 184 & Xoş naw, 2015: 110)

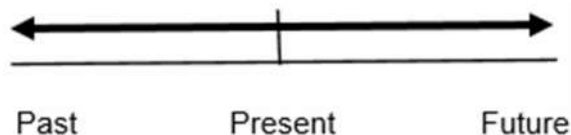


## 2. The use of present (simple) tense in Kurdish language:

1. Present simple is used to describe things that are always true:

61) Zewi bedewry xorda desurît. (the earth goes round the sun)

62) Aw le 100 °c dekulît. (water boils at 100 °c)

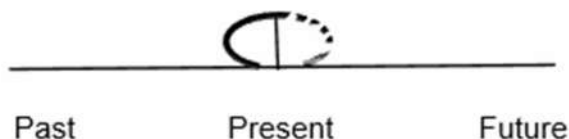


2. Present simple is used for situations that exist now:

63) Kuîeke yarîbaş dazanît. (the boy plays the game well)

64) Guleke ciwane. (the flower is beautiful)

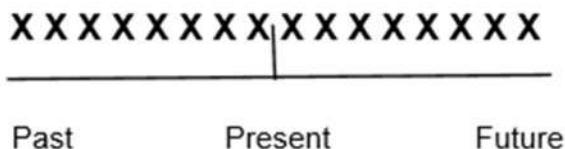
65) Piyaweke mamostaye. (the man is a teacher)



3. The present simple is used to talk about habits or things that happen on a regular basis:

66) Hamû şawek sa'at 10 pm dexewim. (I sleep every night at 10 pm)

67) Min 'adatan beyanyan zû lexew heldestim. (I usually get up soon in the morning)

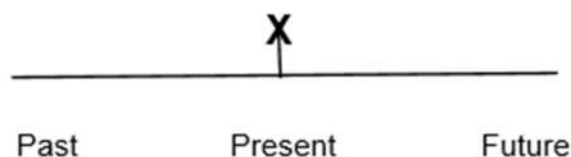


4. Present simple is used for talking about an event at the time of speaking(now):

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 *êsta* (now):

68) Wa baran debarît. (It is just raining)

69) îsta deîom bo zanko. (I am going to university now) (Emîn, 2014: 181& (Xoînew, 2015: 87)

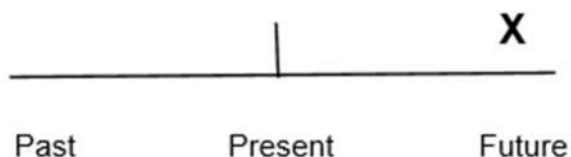


### 5. Present simple for an event in the future

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) Salî kîtir deçim bo zanko. (I will go to university next year)

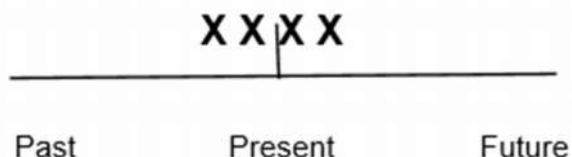
71) Em hefteye deçim bo Hewlêr. (I will go to Hewlêr this week)



### 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 kî qîsa dekey? (Who are you talking to?)



## 2.5.2 Past declarative tenses

To Emî n (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 'debêt', 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) Piyaweke 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 desuîamewe. (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) Piyaweke 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 (Emî n, 1960: 202).

#### 1.1 Formulas of the past simple tense:

##### a. For intransitive verbs:

✓ (Subject) + verb stem + personal pronoun (-m, -î n, -ît - n, -Û, -n)

78) (Min) nustim. (I slept)

79) (me) serkawtîn. (we succeeded)

The personal pronouns are attached to the end of the intransitive verb stem (Baban, 2012: 105; Rehî mî , 2013: 51-56; Emî n, 2014: 167& Dzey, 2014: 201).

##### b. For transitive verbs:

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

80) Awan genmekeyan hari. (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 (Emî n, 2014:167-168).

81) Min kîlam {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 (Emî n, 2014:167, 184):

82) (Min) nenustim. (I didn't sleep)

83) Ewan genmekeyan nehari. (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) me sernekawtîn. (we didn't succeed)

#### 1.2 The uses of past simple:

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

1. For a specific event in the past:

86) 'Elî pîrî çû bo Hewlîr. (Ali went to Hewler yesterday)

2. For an event that happens at the time of speaking:

87) Ewa segeke kerwîşkekay faw 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 çûyît bo bazaî, tozîk xoxim bo bikîe. (If you went to bazar, buy me some peaches)

4. For two events happening one after one:

89) Katîk dermanekanim xiward, xewim lî 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 (Emî n, 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, -î, -ît - n, -Û, -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, -î, - 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 (Emî n, 2014:173-175).

95) (Min) **demnûs**î {(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 (Emî n, 2014:174, 184):

96) (Min) **nedechûm**. (I was not leaving)

97) (Min) goşteke**m nedexward**. (I was not eating the meat)

98) (Min) **nem denûs** □ {(subject) + ne+ personal pronoun+de+verb stem}. (I wasn't writing).

## 2.2 The uses of past progressive:

To Emî n (2014: 175), past progressive tense can be used for:

1. A continuous event in past:

99) Kat□k ke min hatim, kayeke desuta. (When I came, the hay was burning)

2. A habit used in past:

100) Heta mali le Koye bû, hemû haw□n□k, dehat bo Hawl□r. (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 derbazdebû. (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) (Emî n, 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, - î n, -î t - 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, -□, - □an)+verb stem+ ûwe

104) Min wane**kem** xiw□ndû**we**. (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 (Em□n, 2014:169-170).

105) (we) **ki** **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 (Emî n, 2014:170, 184& Xoş naw, 2015: 86, 110):

106) (Min) **nekewtûme**. (I have not failed)

107) Min wanekem **nexiwîndûwe**. (I have not studied the lesson)

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

### 3.2 The uses of the tense:

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

1. An action happened in past completely:

109) **Sêwekem çandûwe**. (I have planted the apple)

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

110) **Hêştâ bexdam nedîwe**. (still I have not seen Baghdad)

3. For a particular action happened in past:

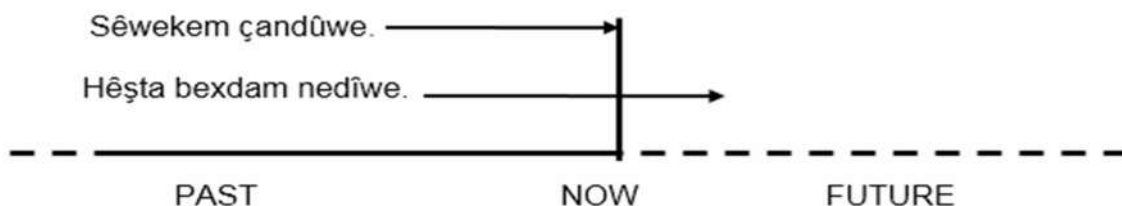
111) **Xanûwekeman le parewe firoştûwe**. (We have sold our house from last year)

4. For happening an action doubtfully:

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

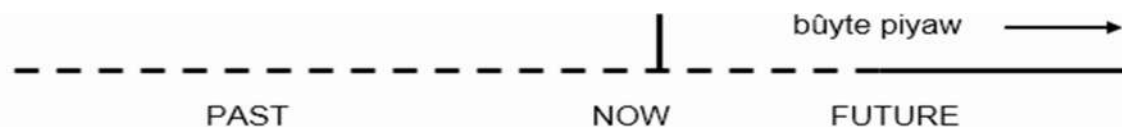
5. For happening an action that is expected that action has happened:

113) **Wabizanim Dana le ristesazi dernaçûwe**. (I think Dana has not succeeded in syntax)



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

114) **Rojî le rojan detbînim ke bûyte piyaw**. (One day I will see you that you will have become a man)



#### 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) katîk ke wê hatin bo malim, min nanî nîwefom 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, -î, -ît - n, -Û, -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, -î, -an)+verb stem+ bû

118) me qayşekeman 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 & Emî n, 2014:169-172-173)

119) (we) birjandibûtan {(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 (Emî n, 2014:172, 184):

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

121) me qayşekeman 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 □sta). 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

/p/	p□r	/pi: r/	'old'
/b/	bîr	/bir/	'well'
/t/	to□	/t□R/	'net'
/d/	dest	/dæst/	'hand'
/k/	kûf	/ku: R/	'hunched'
/g/	go□	/g□ : R/	'grave'
/q/	qu□	/q□R/	'mud'
/□/	ew	/□æw/	'he, she, or it'
/f/	befir	/bæfr /	'snow'
/v/	mirov	/mr□v/	'human'
/s/	sed	/sæd/	'hundred'
/z/	ze□	/zeR/	'gold'
/□ /	şew	/□æw/	'night'
/□/	jûr	/ʒ u: r/	'room'
/x/	xiwê	/xwe/	'salt'
/□/	ḫem	/□æm/	'grief'
/ħ/	heb	/ħæb/	'pill'
/□/	'ereb	/□æræb/	'Arab'
/h/	hest	/hæst/	'feeling'
/tʃ/	Çep	/□æp/	'left'
/l/	lêw	/lew/	'lip'
/dʒ/	cor	/c□r/	'type'
/□/	hêl	/he□/	'line'
/m/	mirid	/m□rd/	'died'
/n/	nêr	/ner/	'male'
/r/	pêrê	/pere/	'the day before yesterday'
/R/	kuf	/k□R/	'boy'
/w/	wêne	/wenæ/	'picture'
/j/	yek	/j□k/	'one'

### 2- Kurdish Vowels

/i: /	sîr	/si: r/	'garlic'
/i/	xiwardî	/xwɑ : rdi/	'(s)he ate'
/□/	mirdin	/m□rd□n /	'death'
/e/	mê	/me/	'female'
/ə/	de	/dæ/	'ten'
/ɑ : /	dar	/dɑ : r/	'wood'
/□/	gund	/g□nd/	'village'
/u: /	dûr	/du: r/	'far'
/□/	bon	/b□n/	'perfume'

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### پوخته

ئەم تووژینەوه لیکۆلینەوهیکی بەراوردکاریه، کهوا له رسته ههوائیهکانی ئینگلیزی و کوردی دهکۆلێتهوه. ئامانجی تووژینەوهکه بەراوردکردنی پیکهاته و بهکارهینانی شیوهی رسته ههوائیه بکهردیارهکانه بهپیی کاتی روودانی رووداوێک له ههردووک زماندا بۆ نیشاناندانی لهیهکهچوون و جیاوازی له نیوانیاندا. تووژینەوهکه له دوو تهوهری سههرکی پیکدیته. تهوهری یهکهم جۆرهکانی رستهی ههوائی لهگهڵ پیکهاته و بهکارهینانهکانیان له زمانی ئینگلیزی لهخۆ دهگریت. تهوهری دووهم ههندیك چهمکی پهیوهست به رسته ههوائیهکانی زمانی کوردی لهخۆ دهگریت. ههروهها رسته ههوائیهکان و پیکهاته و بهکارهینانه جیاوازهکانیان له زمانی کوردی لهخۆ دهگریت. تووژینەوهکه کۆتایی دیت بهچهند ئهجامیکی گرنگ، که ههئینجراون له لیکۆلینەوهکه، لیستیك له هیما دهنگیه کوردیهکان لهگهڵ لیستیکی سههرچاوهکانی زمانی ئینگلیزی و کوردی.

### الخلاصة

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