# SALAHADDIN UNIVERSITY- ARBIL 

## A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF AGREEMENT IN STANDARD ENGLISH AND STANDARD KURDISH

A THESIS<br>SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL OF THE<br>COLLEGE OF ARTS-SALAHADDIN UNIVERSITY-ARBIL<br>IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS

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208. [1]

## Dedicated to:

# The honorable soul of my late father, <br> My honorable mother, and My dear sisters and brothers 

I certify that this thesis was prepared under my supervision at the University of Salahaddin as a partial requirement for the degree of Master of Arts in English Language and Linguistics.

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## ABSTARCT

Undoubtedly, English is gaining more grounds in Kurdistan, and more students are learning it than at any time ago. Thus, the teaching of English to speakers of Kurdish poses problems that are inherent in the nature of both languages. Many problematic areas arise in the process of teaching this language. One of the most notable, in our opinion and estimation, is the problem of agreement. Therefore, the present researcher has chosen this area of study.

This thesis comprises four chapters:
Chapter one includes the introduction where the title, the problem, the purpose, the delimitation of the topic, and the theoretical framework, are dealt with.

Chapter two is devoted to Agreement in Standard English. It includes these subheads: an introduction, the definition of agreement, types of agreement, agreement hierarchy, rules of agreement, areas of agreement, and agreement and schools of grammar.

Chapter three involves Agreement in Standard Kurdish. The chapter includes these subheads: an introduction, the definition of agreement, types of agreement, agreement hierarchy, rules of agreement and areas of agreement.

Chapter four deals with a contrastive analysis of agreement in both Standard English and Standard Kurdish, it includes some introductory notes concerning contrastive analysis, its definition, types, tenets and limitations, as well as points of similarity and difference of agreement, they include types of agreement, rules of agreement, and areas of agreement and disagreement.

The thesis ends with a summary, some conclusions, and a list of references.

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## Key to Kurdish Phonemic Symbols

## 1-Consonants:

/ p/ is a voiceless bilabial stop as in pi:r 'old'
/b/ is a voiced bilabial stop as in ba:wik 'father'
/t/ is a voiceless dental stop as in ta:wa:n 'crime'
/d/ is a voiced dental stop as in da:n 'teeth'
$/ \mathrm{k} / \mathrm{is}$ a voiceless velar stop as in kič 'girl'
/g/ is a voiced velar stop as in gu:rg 'wolf'
/ f/ is a voiceless labio-dental fricative as in bafir 'snow'
/v/ is a voiced labio-dental fricative as in mirov 'human'
/s / is a voiceless alveo-dental fricative as in ma:si 'fish'
/ z / is a voiced alveo-dental fricative as in zima:n 'tongue'
/ š/ is a voiceless alveo-palatal fricative as in ša:no 'stage'
/ ž/ is a voiced alveo-palatal fricative as in ža:n 'pain'
/č/ is a voiceless alveo- palatal affricate as in čiya: 'mountain'
/ $\mathrm{j} / \mathrm{is} \mathrm{a} \mathrm{voiced} \mathrm{alveo-} \mathrm{palatal} \mathrm{affricate} \mathrm{as} \mathrm{in} \mathrm{jwa:n} \mathrm{'beauty'}$
/m / is a voiced bilabial nasal as in mař 'sheep'
/n / is a voiced dental nasal as in nawa 'generation'
$/ \eta /$ is a voiced velar nasal as in han 'bee'
/ h / is a voiceless glottal fricative as in hawir 'cloud'
/h/ is a voiceless pharyngeal fricative as in ȟawt 'seven'
/ / / is a voiceless velarized lateral as in la:wa:z 'weak'
/ $1 /$ is a voiced dental lateral as in sa:1 'year'
/r / is a voiced alveolar flap as in ta:rik 'dark'
/ $\check{\mathrm{r}}$ / is a voiced alveolar trill as in řa:w 'hunting'
/ x / is a voiceless velar fricative as in xor 'sun'
/ $\check{\mathrm{x}} / \mathrm{is}$ a voiced velar fricative as in x̌amba:r 'sad'
/ q / is a voiceless uvular stop as in $\underline{\text { qua:wa }}$ 'coffee'
/?/ is a voiceless pharyngeal fricative as in sa'a:t 'hour'
/y/ voiced palato-alveolar glide as in ya:ri 'game'
/w/ voiced labiovelar rounded glide as in ča:w 'eye'

## 2- Vowels

/ a / low central unrounded, short vowel as in sar 'head'
/ a: / low central unrounded, long vowel as in ša: 'king'
/ é / mid very close front unrounded long vowel as in éš 'pain'
/ i / high close front unrounded short vowel as in pišt 'back'
/ i:/ high close front unrounded long vowel as in hi:č 'nothing'
/ u / high open back rounded short vowel as in kuř 'boy'
/ u: / high close back rounded long vowel as in du:r 'far'
/ o / mid open back rounded short vowel as in košik 'palace'

## Key to Abbreviations and Notations

| AGR | agreement |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A $\overline{\mathrm{GR}}$ | agreement bar |  |  |
| AGRP | agreement phrase |  |  |
| art | article |  |  |
| asp | aspect |  |  |
| aux | auxiliary |  |  |
| c | complement |  |  |
| C | complementizer |  |  |
| CA | contrastive analysis |  |  |
| con | conditional |  |  |
| CP | complementizer phrase |  |  |
| Det | determiner |  |  |
| Def | definite |  |  |
| Dem | demonstrative |  |  |
| DO | direct object |  |  |
| GM | gender marker |  |  |
|  |  | immediate constituent | IC |
| Imp | imperative |  |  |
| Indef | indefinite |  |  |
| IO | indirect object |  |  |
| iz | izafe |  |  |
| MT | mother tongue |  |  |
| N | noun |  |  |
| neg | negative |  |  |
| NP | noun phrase |  |  |


| O | object |
| :---: | :---: |
| P | past tense |
| pass | passive |
| Pers | person / personal |
| pl | plural |
| PM | phrase marker |
| poss | possessive |
| PP | prepositional phrase |
| Pr | present |
| Pref | prefix |
| Prep | preposition |
| Pron | pronoun |
| PS-rules | phrase structure rules |
| r | voice marker in Kurdish |
| Reflex | reflexive |
| rel | relative |
| S | subject |
| SA | structural Analysis |
| SC | structural change |
| SE | Standard English |
| S-structure | Surface structure |
| sing | Singular |
| SK | Standard Kurdish |
| SM | subject marker |
| sub | subjunctive |
| Suf | suffix |
| T | tense |
| T.G.G | Transformation Generative Grammar |
| TL | target language |


| TP | tense phrase |
| :---: | :---: |
| T. rule | Transformational rule |
| VP | verb phrase |
| VS | verb stem |
| 1st | first |
| 1 ps | first person singular |
| 2nd | second |
| 2ps | second person singular |
| 3rd | third |
| 3ps | third person singular |
| ( ) | optionally chosen constituents |
| * | ill-formed sentences |
| $1 /$ | phonemic transcription |
| : | indicates opposition |
| \{ \} | alternatively chosen constituents |
| $>$ | becomes |
|  | hyphen indicates position of phonetic item in |
| word |  |
| $\Longrightarrow$ | is transformed to |
| $\longrightarrow$ | may be rewritten as |
| $\emptyset$ | zero indicates the absence of the element on the surface |
| [ ] | phonetic transcription |

## CHAPTER ONE <br> INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 The Title:

As the title "A Contrastive Analysis of Agreement in Standard English and Standard Kurdish" implies, this is a syntactic study of all the aspects of agreement in both languages.

### 1.1 The Problem:

It is supposed that the problem spots in learning English are due to the discrepancy in the way agreement is patterned in the two varieties. Kurdish learners of English often face problems related to the aspects of agreement in the source language. When the Kurdish learners of Engilsh construct sentences in English, they may face interference with the structure of the mother tongue . Among the areas that pose difficulties are:

1- In the numeral- noun agreement: the learner may say *two book instead of two books, this is because in his native language the head noun always remains singular.

2- Words such as mathematics, phonetics often pose a different problem since their endings are taken to be plural markers; but these words are invariably singular and take singular verbs.

3- Expressions of time, money,...etc. still cause further problems.

### 1.2 The Purpose of the Study:

The purpose of the study is to give an account and to study agreement in Standard English and Standard Kurdish, respectively, in search of relevant similarities and dissimilarities. The importance of the
study lies in clarifying the syntactic aspects of agreement and its manifestation in both languages. The findings and conclusions arrived at in this study are expected to be worthy to syllabus designers, pedagogical planners and planning, and for other academic purposes.

### 1.3 Delimitation of the topic:

The study is restricted to the study of agreement in Standard English (British English i.e, RP) and Standard Kurdish, (the variety of Slemany dialect that has become the standard language). It will focus on the description and the analysis of agreement as well as its types, rules and areas.

### 1.4 Theoretical Framework

The study is conducted within the framework of the Aspects' (1965) model of the generative transformational grammar and conforms to its later developments, the main tenet of which is that agreement, particularly subject-verb agreement, is a surface phenomenon, in which the verb copies a feature of the subject.

The model maintains that the grammatical distinction between girl and girls correspond to the distinction between walk and walks. This accounts for the grammaticality and the ungrammaticality of the sentences below:

The girl walks. *The girl walk.
The girls walk. *The girls walks.
This relationship is, of course, shared by other sentences:
The horse kicks. The girl gets merit.
The horses kick. The girls get merit.
The selection of the appropriate verb form depends on the number of the subject NP: if the subject is singular, then the verb too has to be singular, and this is marked by the -s suffix; if the subject is plural, then the
verb too has to be plural, though this is not overtly marked. This suggests that we should characterize the distinction in verb forms too as one of number.

Note here that criteria for setting up these morphemes of number in the verb involve syntactic considerations that go beyond a strict analysis into morphs. We are able now to postulate that morphemes realized by the forms walks and walk :
walks: $($ walk + present + sing. $)$
walk: (walk + present + pl.)
This morphemic analysis can be represented in a tree-diagram of the form below:
verb

walk pr. sing. (walks)
verb


walk pr.
(walk)

Note that in the plural form neither pr. nor pl. has a realization.
Correlating to the verb, the noun is assumed to have the following structure:


Thus, a transformation rule which has the effect of copying the morpheme of number from the NP subject on to the verb can account for agreement. This means that in the constituent structure we only need to develop number as a category of the noun. The transformational rule then copies it on to the verb, as in the rule below:

the girl
SD
( 1
NP
sing
walk pr.

1
2
$\emptyset$
4
$5+3$
The girl walks.
In the latest models of the generative - transformational grammar, agreement, tense, etc. are assumed to be phrases, i.e. functional phrases in their own right just as NP, VP, etc. are lexical phrases. The agreement rule occurs when in the $S$-structure, the subject NP is moved by the NP movement rule to become the specifier of the agreement phrase as illustrated below:


Subject- movement is a parameter of variation between languages. In Kurdish, both the subject and the stem move out of the VP, the stem rising to incorporate Aspect, Tense, Negation and Agreement Markers (Fattah 1997: 215f) as in:


The children came.


The derivation of the $S$ - structure depends on the number of the slots the AGRP has. Where there is only the verb stem, the tense and the agreement marker (as in the example sentence above), the stem moves to join the tense, and then the agreement marker (clitic). (Fattah 1997:215) Finally, the subject NP assumes the position of C, the specifier of the complementizer phrase, here the sentence.

Notice that we assume that the approach delineated above applies to agreement throughout this work. Therefore, we have not found it necessary to apply it to every single sentence in English or Kurdish, and we do not touch upon the framework any further.

### 1.5 The Outline

The whole thesis comprises four chapters including an introduction, where the title, the problem, the purpose, the delimitation of the topic, and the theoretical framework, are dealt with.

Chapter two presents a brief discussion of the grammatical concept of Agreement in general terms. Then, the role of Agreement in Standard English is tackled by defining its syntactic manifestation and scope. The chapter includes these subheads: an introduction, the definition of agreement, types of agreement, agreement hierarchy, rules of agreement, and areas of agreement, agreement and schools of grammar.

Chapter three is devoted to the study of Agreement in Standard Kurdish as described by many Kurdish grammarians. It also deals with the phenomenon of agreement within the structure of Kurdish sentence. The chapter includes these subheads: an introduction, the definition of agreement, types of agreement, agreement hierarchy, rules of agreement and areas of agreement.

Chapter four deals with a contrastive analysis of agreement in both Standard English and Standard Kurdish. It includes some introductory notes concerning contrastive analysis, its definition, types, tenets, and limitations, as well as points of similarity and difference of agreement; they include types of agreement, rules of agreement, areas of agreement and disagreement.

The thesis ends with a summary, some conclusions, and a list of references.

## CHAPTER TWO

## AGREEMENT IN STANDARD ENGLISH

### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter begins with a brief discussion of the grammatical concept of agreement (hence AGR) in general terms. Then, the role of AGR in Standard English(SE) is tackled by defining its syntactic manifestation and scope. Though the model of analysis adopted for the purpose of this study heavily draws on the Transformational School of Grammar, the standpoints of other schools of grammar, both traditional and modern are also discussed and elaborated on. The aim, here, is to get at a broader overview of this important grammatical phenomenon. The chapter then rounds off with certain conclusions about the criterial syntactic features of AGR in SE considered to be beneficial for the purposes of the Contrastive Analysis carried out in chapter four.

## 2-1 Definition of Agreement

AGR, as a general grammatical term, is defined as that "grammatical phenomenon by which the appearance of one item in a sentence termed 'the controller', in a particular form requires a second item termed 'the agreeing element or the controllee ${ }^{1}$, which is grammatically linked with it to appear in a particular form" (Trask 1993:12). It occurs within the choices of one or more grammatical categories (such as number, person, gender, case, or tense) which are morphologically marked on certain form classes (such as nouns, verbs, adjectives...etc). Thus, concord is AGR in gender, case, number and person between different words that share the same reference.

Therefore, AGR refers to "a syntactic process whereby one constituent must have the same value for certain grammatical features
(such as person, number, and gender) as another constituent that it bears a particular grammatical relation to." (Fromkin et al 2000: 684), i.e. it is a formal relationship between sentence elements (constituents) whereby 'the form of one item requires a certain corresponding form of another' (Crystal 1991:13). Many other terms have also been used for the same phenomenon, such as "concord, congruence and correspondence" (Hartmann and Stork 1972: 8). AGR plays a great part in many languages (Bloomfield 1933:191). Actually Mallinson and Blake(1981:184) state that "it is found in three quarters of the world's languages" (Quoted by Asher and Simpson (1994:54)For example, the adjectives in most Indo-European languages are required to inflect in congruence with various grammatical categories of the noun. Noun-Adjective gender AGR is not restricted to the IndoEuropean languages. In fact it is found in many other languages of the world. All AGR falls within the general notion of 'context sensitivity' (Lyons 1968:239-40).

## 2-2 Types of Agreement

Generally speaking, there are three types of AGR on the basis of the way it operates (Quirk et al 1972: 360).

## 1-Grammatical Agreement:

The first type is grammatical (syntactic) AGR which occurs when sentence elements formally agree with each other, for example, in SE complement noun formally agrees with its corresponding subject or object in number (Crystal 1988: 50).

1. a- That is an apple.
2. a- I thought him a fool.
b- Those are apples.
b-I thought them fools.

In (1b) above, both the controlling element 'those' and the agreeing element 'apples' are formally (morphologically) marked for number AGR.

2-Notional (semantic) Agreement: (Corbett 1979:203).
Here, AGR occurs according to the notion of number rather than the presence of the grammatical marker for that notion (Quirk et al 1985:757), the number in controller is determined by the speaker's viewpoint. For example, the verb in SE agrees with the singular or plural meaning of the subject regardless of any grammatical markers.
3. Two miles is a long way.

There is a plural subject in (3), yet a singular verb since 'two miles' is viewed as a single entity by the speaker (Crystal 1988:51).

## 3- Agreement of Proximity:

The third type is brought about by Agreement of proximity ${ }^{2}$ which requires the verb to agree with whatever noun or pronoun closely preceding it (Gramley and Pätzold 1992: 102).
4. No one except his friends agree with him.

In (4) the verb agrees with the number of the nearby noun phrase hence (NP) rather than the real subject 'no one' (Crystal 1988:51)

### 2.3 Agreement Hierarchy

The question which arises here: which is the more prominent principle in the hierarchy of AGR, the grammatical or the notional (semantic) parameter? One attempt to investigate this issue has been made by Corbett (1979) who notices that certain sentence elements permit alternative AGR form, but not in all syntactic positions.
5.a- The committee has decided.
b- The committee have decided.
c- This committee sat late.
d-* These committee sat late.
The subject-verb number AGR in (5.a) is syntactically motivated in that both 'the committee' and the auxiliary verb 'has' are singular; while in (5.b) it is semantically motivated; however, the ungrammaticality of
(5.d) shows that the semantic principle is restricted by the syntactic environment. The problem is why example (5.d) should be ungrammatical, given that committee can take semantic (plural) AGR. Corbett's answer is that AGR is controlled by the elements' position in the sentence. He postulates that AGR positions can be ranged in the following hierarchy (Corbett 1979:204).

## Attributive- Predicative- Relative pronoun- Personal pronoun

This hierarchy is descending i.e., it is a downward hierarchy.
Corbett (1983:260) states that the attributive modifiers are more likely to show syntactic AGR than are personal pronouns (pers. pron.) or even predicates. The predicate hierarchy (which covers the verb- participle-adjective- noun) says that adjectives are more likely to show semantic AGR than are verbs (Quoted by Comrie 1984:413-15)

Generally speaking, the further left an element is on the hierarchy, the more syntactic AGR is to occur; the further right, the more likely semantic AGR. Thus, with the sentence element 'committee' in (5.d) only syntactic AGR is possible in the attributive position, while either AGR is possible in the remaining positions. Moreover, if there are two possibilities of AGR in two contiguous positions, the likelihood of semantic AGR in the position to the right will be as great as or greater than it is in the position to the left .

However, the AGR position hierarchy above is certainly not the only factor which determines AGR; word order, for example, can specify AGR in the case of English conjoined animate nouns:
6. There was (?were) a witch and wizard who were(*was) living in the moat.(Corbett 1979:207)
Nixon (1972:152) states that another important factor is the actual distance between the agreeing element and the controller. Semantic AGR is
favoured for elements further removed from the controller (Quoted by Corbett (1979:220), as seen in e.g. (4).

Greenberg (1963:94) states that when animacy affects AGR, it is always the case that animate controllers favour semantic, not (syntactic), AGR (Quoted by Corbett (1979:219) as in:
7.a- The girls who sing the song feel shy.
b- The girl who sings the song feels shy.
c- The book which she reads is useful.
Semantic considerations are also called into play when the subject though plural in form, is really singular in meaning.
8. Nine years is a long time.

The conclusion drawn from the preceding discussion is that many factors can be interacted with the position hierarchy proposed by Corbett. However, one generalization that can be arrived at is that AGR is not a discrete phenomenon. It is rather a gradable one in the sense that 'some items agree more than others' (Corbett 1979:223).

### 2.4 Rules of Agreement

## Rule 1: A General Rule

A straightforward general rule is that " if the subject (NP) is singular, the verb must also be singular. Conversely, if the head of the subject (NP) is plural, then the verb must be plural" (Katamba 1993: 237). This is the factor of grammatical concord.
9.a- The girl walks.
b- The girls walk.
The rule for subject-verb $A G R$ is that in the present tense, a verb with a third person singular (3ps) subject must always have the AGR inflection-s, while with other pers.prons., there is no visible AGR morpheme (Cook and Newson 1996:52).

## Rule 2: Coordination

When two or more subjects are joined by and, they usually take plural verbs unless the coordinated elements constitute a single entity. (Quirk et al 1985:761)
10. a- The boy and his dog are here.
b- Apple pie and ice cream is my favourite dessert.
c- Law and order has been established.
d- Law and order have been established.

## Rule 3: Correlatives

When two or more subjects are joined by or or nor, the verb form is usually determined by the subject that is closest to the verb. (Alexander 1988:9; Greenbaum and Quirk 1990: 218)
11. a- The boss but not his secretary is flying to Rome.
b- Either the boss or his secretary is flying to Rome.
c- Neither the boss nor his secretary is flying to Rome.
d- Either the strikers or the boss has misunderstood the claim.
e-Either the boss or the strikers have misunderstood the claim.

## Rule 4: Collective Nouns

When a collective noun is used to refer to a single unit, it takes a singular verb; but when it refers to certain members or parts of the group, it takes a plural verb. (Alexander 1988: 46)
12.a-Her offspring is like her in every respect.
b- Her offspring are like her in every respect.
In (12) above the collective offspring has no plural form, but can be followed by a singular verb to refer to one or a plural verb to refer to more than one. Here, the number choice depends on whether the collective
subject is thought of as a single entity or as a collection of individuals. (Brown and Miller 1980:244)

This will pose difficulty in the realization of subject-verb AGR which arises from the fact that the notional category of number 'oneness vs. more than oneness' overlaps with the formal one. To account for such overlap, Jespersen (1929:46) states that language has three inter-related levels of description: a level of form (morphological markings); a level of grammar (grammatical categories of number); and a level of meaning (with notional categories such as individuated: non individuated; oneness: more than oneness... etc.( Quoted by Brown Miller 1980: 244f)

The grammatical level faces both ways as in table $\left(1^{3}\right)$


Table (1) three interrelated levels of language description.
This approach helps us to understand how the formal system of grammar is related and manipulated by semantics.

## Rule 5: Indefinite Pronouns

The following indefinite pronouns indicate singularity and require singular verbs (anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, neither, nobody, one, somebody, something, someone). (Alexander 1988: 102)
13.a- Everyone on the team was excited about the game.
b- Either of the parents is going to see a film in the movie.
c- Neither of my friends has come yet.
d- Every child enjoys Christmas.
e- Someone was waiting.
f - Each/every ticket has a number.
Each and every cause subject-verb AGR confusion when they are separated from their verbs by the phrase (of them) or by two nouns joined by 'and'
14.a- Each of them seems to be happy in their life.
b- Each of their parents has a repressed personality.
c- Every father and mother has to be patient.
The indefinite pronouns 'many, few, both and several' always take plural verbs. (Alexander 1988: 99)
15. Both girls are ready.

The indefinite pronouns 'all, any, none, more, most and some' may be either singular or plural depending upon the words that follow them. For instance, some can mean ' more than one', here the subject should be plural, or it can mean ' a part of one' here the subject should be singular. (Alexander 1988: 105; Eastwood 1994: 193; 219-23)
16.a- Some of the families commit emotional abuse.
b- Some of the problems are still unsolved.
c- Most of the people here are strangers to me.
d- Most crime remains unsolved.
e- All of the pie was eaten.
f- None of my friends has/have been invited to the party.

## Rule 6: Quantifiers

1- With fractions, percentages, the verb agrees with the preceding noun or clause, with singular non-count nouns or clauses, use a singular verb, with plural nouns, use plural verbs. (Eastwood 1994: 297)
17.a- Two third of the field was under water.
b- One third of the students have succeeded.
c-* One third of the dog is barking.
d- One third of the dogs are barking.
e- $50 \%$ of the students pass in the exam.
2-Denominators of time, money and distance usually take singular verbs.
18. a- Six weeks is not long enough.
b- $\$ 100$ is a great deal of money to a child.
c- Ten kilometers is too far to walk.
Difficulty arises from the fact that in quantified expressions there is often a competition between the quantifier and the quantified noun for the role of controller (Asher and Simpson 1994:56). For instance,
19. A variety of analytic methods have been used.
' $\mathbf{A}$ ' proves that the subject is singular, since it is an indefinite singular pronoun. But the predicate is plural because of proximity to the word (methods) that is plural by form. Therefore, we could say that there is a competition between ' $\mathbf{A}$ ' and 'methods' for subject control in the sentence. It is a competition between notional and grammatical considerations.

## Rule 7: Numerals

The AGR occurs within the NP which is realized by the numeral and the enumerated or head nouns. If the numeral is singular, 'one' the head should also be singular; if it is plural from 'two' upwards, the head should also be plural (Zandvoort 1972:263)
20.a- One passenger arrives at the hotel.
b- Ten passengers arrive at the hotel.
c- He is a good six days overdue.

## Rule 8: Demonstratives (this/that- these/those)

In SE demonstratives (Dem.) could be pronouns (pron.) or adjectives (adj.).

1-Dem prons. (this/that-these/those) in English NP agree with the noun they modify in number (Huddleston 1984: 82; Fromkin et al. 2000: 237). 21.a- This/That is an apple.
b- These/Those are apples.
This implies that the AGR occurs between the Dem. and the referent. 2-Dem. adjs.(this/that-these/those) agree with head noun that follows them. (Robins 1971: 232)
22. a-This/That shirt is new.
b- These/Those shirts are new.
This shows that the Dem. whether it is a pronoun or an adjective should agree with the referent that follows it.

## Rule 9: Cleft Sentences

In relative clause and cleft sentence, a relative pronoun subject is usually followed by a verb in AGR with its antecedents (Greenbaum and Quirk 1990: 220).
23.a- It is $\underline{I}$ who am to blame.
b- It is Peter who is to blame.
c- It is they who are to blame.
However, cleft sentences in SE always occur in the singular.

## Other Rules:

## Rule 1:

The grammatical category of number is not always regularly realized in morphological terms: for instance:

1- Some nouns have invariable singular forms, these include:
a-non-count concrete nouns (e.g. gold, furniture, money...)
b-abstract nouns (e.g. music, homework, love... )
c-proper nouns (e.g. the Thames, Henry, Africa...)
d-nouns always ending in -s, these include ${ }^{4}$ :
i-The names of school subjects- mathematics, linguistics, physics...
ii-The names of some diseases- measles, mumps, herpes...
iii-Miscellaneous words like politics and news...
24.a- No news is good news.
b- Herpes is now impossible to cure.
e-abstract adjectival heads e.g. the beautiful, the loyal ... (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973: 81; Quirk et al 1985: 295,314; Miller and Brantley 1993: 81; Eastwood 1994: 380;Abdullah 1980: 25-8).

2- Other nouns have only invariable plural forms, these include:
a-summation plurals e.g. scissors, pants, pliers, etc.
b-pluralia tantum e.g. thanks, means, clothes, etc.
c-plural proper nouns e.g. The Netherlands, Algiers, Flanders..
d-zero plurals e.g. cattle, police, vermin, sheep
e-Mutation e.g. foot $\sim$ feet, man $\sim$ men, etc.
$\mathrm{f}-\mathrm{Voicing}$ e.g. calf $\sim$ calves, etc.
g-personal adjectival heads e.g. the rich, the poor, the young, etc.
h-en-plural e.g. ox $\sim$ oxen, child $\sim$ children, etc.
25.a- The rich get richer.
b- The poor have many troubles.
c- The police are questioning a man.
d- Several people were waiting for the lift.
4-Variable plurals include foreign nouns formed with such suffixes:
a- us
b- a
c- um
d- ex, ix
e- is
f- on
g- eau
h- o - i (e.g. $\longrightarrow$ tempo-tempi)...;
i- base - im (e.g. cherub - cherubim)...

## Rule 2:

The number of a subject is not changed by a prepositional phrase and expressions like, 'as well as', 'together with', 'in addition to'.
26. The silence (in the halls) is unusual.
27. The captain as well as the players was tired.

## Rule 3:

When the subject is a verbal phrase: sometimes an - ing or to + infinitive verb is used as a noun. A phrase containing one of these forms may appear as the subject of a sentence. In these cases, the verb is always singular (Fogiel 1998: 85-6; Eastwood 1994: 193)
28. a- Opening present was exciting .
$b-$ To run every day requires diligence.
c- To see is to believe.

## Rule 4:

When the subject is a title, the verb always occurs in the singular (Eastwood 1994: 192)
29.a- 'Star Wars’ was a very successful film.
b- The Rose and Crown is that old pub by the river.

### 2.5.0 Areas of Agreement

SE manifests the following areas of AGR: (Greenbaum and Quirk 1990: 214-22)

1- subject(s)- verb(v) AGR.
2- subject - complement (sc) AGR
3- object- complement (oc) AGR
4- subject - reflexive (reflex) object AGR
5- pers. pron. and their antecedents.
6- relative pronouns (rel. pron.) and their antecedents.

Viewed cross-sectionally, AGR in SE is manifested in the following three grammatical categories: number, person, and gender as shown in the following table:


Table (2) Areas of Agreement in English Functional Classes.
In the following section, each of the aforementioned areas will be discussed.

### 2.5.1 Subject -Verb Agreement

The subject must agree with its verb in number (singular vs. plural) and person ( $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{vs} .2^{\text {nd }}$ vs. $3^{\text {rd }}$ ). This is the most important area of concord in SE (Fogiel 1998: 88). Subjects are realized by NPs, the NPs should be nouns or pronouns. Singular subjects are formally marked by the absence of the plural ending:- (e)s. Plurals are marked by zero morphemes.
30.a- The boy comes.
b- The boys come.
Thus, (boy) in (30.a) refers to a single boy, while (boys) in (30.b) refer to more than one boy. Subject-verb AGR refers to a change in the form of a verb depending on its subject. In SE a verb changes form only when its subject is 3 ps (he/she/it) and only in the present tense. The following table illustrates the point made above.

| Person | Number | Personal <br> Pronouns | Present | Past |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |


| $1^{\text {st }}$ | sing. <br> pl. | I <br> we | walk <br> walk | walked <br> walked |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | pl. | you <br> you | walk <br> walk | walked <br> walked |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | sing. <br> pl. | walks <br> they | walked <br> walk | walked |

Table (3) Main verbs in both present and past in Standard English.
In this respect the main verbs have only two forms in the present and one form in the past, there is no concord variation in the past tense and modal verbs (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 260)

Verb to be has the following forms in both present and past

| Person | Number | Present | Past |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | sing. <br> pl | I am <br> we are | I was <br> we were |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | pl <br> sing. <br> pl | you are <br> you are | you were <br> you were |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | he/she/it is <br> they are | he/she/it was <br> they were |  |

Table (4) verb to be in Standard English
31.a- You are luckier than I am.
b- We are just good friends.
c- I was your friend.
d-You are my friend.
e- I will play the piano.
f- They will play the piano.
(Greenbaum and Quirk 1990:219;Chalker 1984:65)

Verb to have has these forms in both present and past tense.

| Person | Number | Present | Past |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | sing <br> pl | I have <br> we have | I <br> we | had |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | sing <br> pl <br> pl | you have <br> you have | you <br> you |  |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | he/she/it has <br> they have | he/she/it <br> they | had |  |

Table (5) Verb to have in English

### 2.5.2 Subject- Complement Agreement

There is usually concord of number between subject and subject complement (Greenbaum and Quirk 1990:220)

Subject complements often express a quality or an attribute of the subject and are realized as NPs, adjectives or nominal clauses.

> 32.a- Diana is a capable girl. (NP)
b- Diana is capable. (adj.)
c- The trouble with Diana is that she never does any
homework. (nominal clause)
Subject complement number AGR takes place in clauses of the type SVC (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973: 181).
33.a- The child was an angel.
a`-* The child was angeles. b- The children were angeles. b`-* The children were an angel.
However, there are certain exceptions
34. a- Good manners are a rarity these days. b- What we need most is books.

### 2.5.3 Object-Complement Agreement

Here, AGR occurs between direct object and object complement (Huddleston 1984:195; Quirk and Greenbaum 1973:181)
35.a- He considered Liz a genius.
b- He considered them geniuses.

### 2.5.4 Subject- Reflexive Object Agreement

Subject-object concord of number, person and gender is necessary where the second item is a reflex. pron. and are always corefrential with a noun or another pronoun (the antecedent).(See Quirk and Greenbaum 1973: 181; Greenbaum and Quirk 1990:116; Fogiel 1998:57)
36.a- She cut herself.
b- You are just not yourself.
c- We should give ourselves another chance.
d- The dog was scratching itself.
e- Danny and Sandy poured themselves a drink.
In British English collective noun subjects permit plural agreement.
37. The navy congratulated themselves on the victory.

### 2.5.5 Agreement in Gender

It has been noticed that English does not have a system of grammatical gender-adjectives and articles do not have separate forms depending on the gender of the noun they modify. However, it is possible to indicate the sex and animacy (or gender) of some entity by referring back to by using a pronoun.
38. The girl helped her mother.

According to a sentence like this we might argue that the girl is in the feminine gender and the mother is neuter. Gender marking is generally
not overt, rather the categories appear subtly in the way we use pronouns and other gender specific terms.

Table (6) summarizes gender in English pronouns.

| Gender | Subject | Reflexive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| masculine | he | himself |
| feminine | she | herself |
| neuter | it | itself |
| neuter | they | themselves |
| neuter | one | oneself |

Table (6) Gender in Pronoun (Chalker 1984: 85with modification).

### 2.5.5.1 Personal Pronouns and their Antecedents

Pers.pron. In the $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{p}$ (he, she, it, they) agree in number, person and gender with their antecedents (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973:181-2)

> 39.a- John hurt his foot.
> b- John and Jane hurt their feet.

However, the plural pronoun 'they' is often used informally as a neutral pronoun to refer back to the indefinite pronouns e.g. (everyone, everybody, someone, somebody, anyone, anybody, no one, nobody) in defiance of number AGR.
40.a- Everyone think they have the answer. (informal)
a- Everyone thinks he has the answer. (formal)
b- Has anybody brought their camera? (informal)
b- Has ánybody brought his camera? (formal)

The following table shows the classifications of English personal pronouns and reflexive pronouns in terms of person, number and gender. (Akmajian et al 1995: 155)

Number

|  |  | Singular | Plural | Reflexive pronoun |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Person | $1^{\text {st }}$ person | I | we | myself |
|  | $2^{\text {nd }}$ person | you | you | yourself <br> yourselves |
|  | $3^{\text {rd }}$ person | masculine | he |  |
|  | feminine | she | himself |  |
|  | neuter | it | herself |  |
|  |  | itself <br> themselves |  |  |

Table (7) illustrates classification of English personal pronouns and reflexive pronouns.

### 2.5.5.2 Relative Pronouns Gender Agreement

The rel.pron. who, whom and which agree with their antecedents according to a two-term gender system: personal vs. non-personal (Greenbaum and Quirk 1990 : 221)

## 41.a-Here's the hammer which I borrowed yesterday. (non-personal)

b-That's the man who(m) I saw talking to your parents.
(personal)

### 2.6.0 Agreement and Schools of Grammar:

The previous survey of aspects of AGR has been conducted in a straightforward 'traditional' manner. In this section various grammatical approaches to the issue of AGR are surveyed, but the concentration will be on generative grammar.

### 2.6.1 Immediate Constituent Analysis

This approach of the structural school considers sentences to be structured into successive components: groups of words, single words, and morphemes. These are called immediate constituents (ICs) analyzed as successive pairs. For example, the sentence:
42.Old father Thames keeps rolling along. has the following IC structure:


Accordingly, this approach can tackle AGR as long as it is morphologically marked.

(Figure 2 ) IC analysis (Hockett 1958:152 with modification)
However, this type of analysis cannot account for the zero morpheme of person, number and gender since these are not morphologically realized.

### 2.6.2 Transformational Generative Grammar Analysis

Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) has developed a great deal since it was first presented by Chomsky in his syntactic structures (1957). In fact, there are now many generative grammars. In addition to the Standard Theory (ST) of 1965, there appeared the Extended Standard Theory (EST), the Revised Extended Standard Theory (REST), Government and Binding Theory (GB) (Trask 1993: 283)

## As far as the realization of the aspects of AGR is concerned, all the above mentioned approaches (except GB) share the basic principles within the following components.

(a) The base


As seen in figure (3), the syntactic component consists of two main sub-components: the base and the transformational ones. The base component consists of two subcategories: the categorial and the lexicon. The categorial component represents PS rules (or rewrite rules) which generate phrase markers (PMs) for the indefinite number of sentences of the language. PMs represent the structure of the sentence in that each sentence will have one or more PMs depending on the various structural changes it undergoes in its derivational history (Baqir 1987:63). The lexicon accounts for the items which replace categorial symbols. The transformational component provides rules which map PMs on to other PMs till the surface structure is arrived at. The T rules have very powerful abilities: They take as their input a particular deep structure and by adding, deleting, or moving constituents, can change it into another structure (surface structure). The surface structure is still abstract, i.e., has no phonetic shape. It is passed to the phonological and the semantic components to be given a phonological and semantic representation respectively.

### 2.6.2.1 Agreement in Transformational Generative Grammar

Number AGR is handled in phrase structure rules (PSR) through the incorporation of such number (Num.) features as singular (sing.) and plural(pl.) in the branching of the noun( N ) and $\operatorname{verb}(\mathrm{V})$ nodes. Moreover article-noun concord is tackled by such daughters as definite (Def.) and indefinite (Indef.) as shown in the following PSR. (Brown and Miller 1980:201-3)
PSR


Num $\longrightarrow$| sing |
| :--- |
| pl. |

Det $\longrightarrow$| Def |
| :--- |
| Indef. |

$\mathrm{V} \longrightarrow$ Tense + Num
Tense
Num
Nast

The rules above produce trees like the following. (Brown and Miller 1980: 203)
44.a- Some men yawned.

D.44.a

## b- The boy walks.



Num
boy
boy $\mid \quad \emptyset$

walk
$\emptyset$
S

A basically similar approach supplies a separate Aux or (T) node as daughter of the mother VP node to account for number verb AGR as seen in the following example (Brown and Miller 1980: 212 with modification).
45. The dogs weren't bitten by the cat.

Det N Num
P

$\mid$
Tense
143
by

| np $/ \searrow$ |
| :---: |
| $1 / \downarrow$ |

dog pl. past neg pass Det N Num
bite cat sing
the
dog -s
past n't be
en
bite by the cat $\varnothing$
D. 45

According to Grinder and Elgin (1973: 58-9), the two sentences below can be illustrated in these tree diagrams.
46.a- The girls kiss the boy.

D. 46.a

b- The girl kisses the boys.




Notice that the AGR T-rule operates on the underlying structures of $44 . a$ and $b, 45,46 . a$ and $b$, to yield the derived sentences (47) a, b, c, d below:
47. a- some men yawned.
b- The boy walks.
c- The girls kiss the boy.
d- The girl kisses the boys.
The AGR T-rule takes the following format:

1. Subject-Verb AGR

SA: NP (Art $+\mathrm{N}+$ sing. $)-\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{V}+$ (non-past) $)$
SC: NP (Art $+\mathrm{N}+$ sing. $)-\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{V}+$ (non-past + sing. $))$
(On condition the V is not a modal)
2. Article.-Noun AGR

SA: NP (Art (indef.) - N - \{
SC: NP (Art (indef $+\quad$ ) - N $\underset{\mathrm{pl}}{\text { sing } . ~}$
Sing.
pl.
sing. pl.

Then morphological realization rules of the type

| man+ pl. <br> goose +pl . <br> boy + sing |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| pl. $\xrightarrow{-}$ |  |
| run + past | ran |
| walk + past | walked |
| sing $\xrightarrow{- \text { S }}$ |  |
| past $\xrightarrow{\text { ed }}$ |  |
| indef + sing | $\rightarrow$ |
| indef +pl . | some |

All these rules account for the following facts of AGR in SE:
(1) Num AGR only occurs on the first item of the (V) in VP.
(2) Verb also shows Tense, therefore, Tense and Num are cumulated (i.e., realized together).
(3) Modal verbs (will, shall, can...etc.) never show Num AGR.
(4) With non-past verb forms, when the subject is singular, Have, Be and the main verb show Num AGR.In the plural, only Be show Num AGR.
(5) With past verb forms, only Be shows Num AGR in both singular and plural ( Brown and Miller 1980:219-20)
These facts Brown and Miller summarize in these rules:

1. Verb Number Agreement (obligatory)
a- SA: X - N - sing- non- past- V- Y
SC: X-N - sing Tense (non- past + sing) - V-Y
(on condition the V is not a modal)
b- SA: X - N - pl.- non- past- Be- Y
SC: X - N - pl. - Tense - (non-past +pl.) -Be - Y

SC: $\mathrm{X}-\mathrm{N}-\{\quad\}$ - Tesiagpast $+\{\quad\})-\mathrm{Be}-\mathrm{Y}$
sing
To illustrate the PS -, the lexical, ${ }^{\mathrm{p}}$ the T and morphological rulesplostulated so far to account for AGR in SE within the framework of TGG, let's consider the derivation of (48) below:
2. Some boys like apples.

D. 48





Oversimplifying the Subject-Verb AGR, T- rule can be formulated as follows:


Condition: N contains the feature +3 P
i.e. the formative present is replaced by - s if it follows a singular 3P noun, otherwise by Ø (Jacobsen 1977: 270).

Consider the derivation of 49 below
49. The maiden serves coffee.
D. 49


| the | maiden | $\emptyset$ | s | serve | coffee |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 |  | 2 | 3 | 4 |  |
|  | 1 | $\emptyset$ | $3+4$ | 5 | 5 |  |
| Affix hoping /AGR | 1 | $\emptyset$ | $4+s$ | 5 |  |  |
| The |  | maiden | serves | coffee |  |  |

### 2.6 Notes to Chapter Two

1- Control- controller: the term 'control' and 'controller' are useful in some contexts. Where there is agreement the word that provides the source may be referred to as the controllee (Blake 1994:199).

2- The Agreement of proximity is also called attraction because the last noun attracts a certain form of the verb and upsets the rule of grammatical concord (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 262).

3- - Non-individuated refers to mass nouns

- Individuated refers to count nouns
- Oneness refers to singular
- More than oneness refers to plural.

4- Some of these nouns can have normal singular and plural forms when they mean physical things (Eastwood 1994:193)

- Tom laid a domino on the table.
- These statistics are rather complicated (= these figures).

The word politics takes a plural verb when it means someone's views. e.g.: His politics are very left wing. (his political opinions). (Eastwood 1994:195)

## CHAPTER THREE

## AGREEMENT IN STANDARD KURDISH

### 3.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to get acquainted with the grammatical phenomenon of AGR in Standard Kurdish(SK) as described by Kurdish grammarians.

### 3.1 Definition of Agreement

Similar to the grammarians of English, Kurdish grammarians have dealt with AGR 'Rekawtin' as an important grammatical concept where certain parts of a sentence are made to match each other in one or more aspects of the grammar such as person, number, gender and case (Amin 1982:16). In its broadest sense the term AGR covers all types of covariance or matching of features between two separate linguistic elements in every natural language. In this sense, AGR is certainly a feature of universal grammar. As such, Katamba (1993:225) states that "In many languages the verb has AGR markers which are determined by the characteristics of some other words, in the same construction, such markers may indicate properties such as person, gender and number." SK is among the languages which has AGR markers ${ }^{1}$ that are attached to the verb stem.


The child slept.
Notice: SM indicates AGR marker.


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### 3.2 Three Types of Agreement

## Like English (see 2.3), there are three general types of AGR in SK:

## 1- Grammatical Agreement:

Here, the subject normally determines concord according to its own grammatical number. This necessitates that certain grammatical elements agree with each other.
2.a-čolaka -aka fr -i: Ø b- čolaka -aka--a:n fr- i: -n
sparrow the fly -p -SM sparrow-the -pl. fly-p-SM


The sparrow flew.


The sparrows flew.

It can be noticed that fri: 'flew' in (2.a) has a singular form because its controller čolakaka 'the sparrow' denotes a singular entity. Conversely, fri:n 'flew' in (2.b) has a plural form because the subject čolakaka:n 'the sparrows' is plural.

## 2- Notional Agreement:

Here, AGR occurs between the subject and the verb without a parallel morphological change. The verb agrees with the subject (NP), regardless of the subject's being singular or plural. This sort of AGR is obviously found with collective nouns ${ }^{2}$ which are singular in form but plural in meaning, e.g. gal 'nation'; millat ' people'...etc.


Thousand dollars is a great amount of money.
Here, the verb phrase (VP) is singular because haza:r dola:r 'thousand dollars' is viewed as a single entity from the semantic and logical point of view.

## 3- Agreement of Proximity:

Here, the verb agrees with whatever noun or pronoun that closely precedes it.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 5. na min ha: }-\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{-im} \text { na } \begin{array}{l}
\text { to } \\
\\
\text { neither } \quad \text { I } \\
\text { come -p-SM }
\end{array} \text { nor } \quad \text { you }
\end{aligned}
$$



Neither I came nor you.

### 3.3 Agreement Hierarchy:

A crucial question which imposes itself here is which has the upper hand, the syntactic or semantic parameter? In SE as shown in the examples coming from Corbett (1979) quoted earlier in (2.3), certain sentences give more room to alternative AGR forms. Below is a number of sentences which illustrate this phenomenon in SK as juxtaposed in SE their counterparts. Corbett cites the following four examples to explain the applicability of his hierarchy.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 6.a-Ližnaka birya:ri da:wa } & \text { ' the committee has decided' } \\
\text { b- Ližnaka bria:rya:n da:wa } & \text { 'the committee have decided' } \\
\text { c- am ližnaya drang daništ } & \text { 'this committee sat late' } \\
\text { d* - am ližna:n-a drang daništ 'these committee sat late' }
\end{array}
$$

Subject-verb AGR in (6.a) is motivated by syntactic considerations in that the surface form of the subject Ližnaka 'the committee' is not morphologically marked as plural since it has no formal plural ending.

Subject-verb AGR in (6.b) is motivated by semantic considerations in that the use of birya:rya:n dawa 'have decided' is not determined by the morphological form of the subject Ližnaka 'the committee' since the latter noun lacks plural ending, so in (6.b) only semantic AGR is possible . The determiner-noun AGR in (6.c) is syntactically motivated and it is grammatically correct, while in (6.d) determiner- noun AGR is not affected by semantic considerations. The question is: Why semantic AGR is inapplicable to the determiner - noun AGR in (6.d) while it is applicable to subject-verb AGR in (6.b) in the predicate position? The answer is that the semantic AGR between determiner - noun in (6.d) does not work because it clashes with the syntactic AGR which has a priority over the semantic AGR when it is concerned with the leftmost element of the sentence (here the determinative). This confirms that Corbett's hierarchy works even in SK. Thus, the hierarchy which Corbett postulates for SE is also applicable here.

## Attributive - Predicate - Relative pronoun - Personal pronoun

The attributive modifiers are more flexible in that they permit more syntactic AGR choices than are the personal pronouns or even predicates as in (6.c,d) i.e., the attributive modifiers in (6.c) am ližnaya 'this committee' agree in number with the noun follows it since both elements have singular forms but in (6.d) am ližna:na ' these committee' there is no obvious indication of AGR markers between the two elements in the attributive modifier, thus am 'this' is singular while ližna:na 'committee' is plural.

### 3.4 Rules of Agreement:

## Rule 1: A General Rule

Similar to SE, in SK the straightforward general rule is that a singular subject requires a singular verb and a plural subject takes the
plural morpheme [a:n] for a plural verb (Mackenzie 1961:129, Amin 1960: 41).


The mirror broke. b-a:wena -aka -a:n šik -a: -n mirror the -pl break-p- SM


The mirrors broke.

## Rule 2: Coordination

When two or more subjects are joined with the coordinating conjunction u: 'and' a plural verb is required, but the coordinated elements are treated as a single entity when the singular verb follows (Mackenzie 1961:130, Amin 1960: 41-2).


Snow and rain falls in winter.


Snow and rain fall in winter.

## Rule 3: Correlatives

When two or more subject (NPs) are joined by correlatives ya......ya:(n) 'either... or', na.....na 'neither... nor', the verb agrees with the nearest subject depending on the occurrence of the verb. If the verb comes immediately after the first subject it agrees with it, and it is also possible to repeat the verb after the second subject, therefore, it agrees with it.

$$
\text { 9.a- ya min d- e } \quad-\mathrm{m} \quad \text { ya:(n) to }
$$

either I


Either I come or you.


Either I go or you.


Neither the boy came nor the girl.


Neither I will go nor you go.

But if the verb comes last, there are two possibilities: with na.....na 'neither... nor' the verb is always plural, but with ya.....ya:(n) 'either...or' the verb may have either the plural form or the singular form depending on the intending referent. It is possible to notice that the verb form occurs also in the negative when we want to refer to the emphatic negation (Muhammad 1993: 8)


Neither I nor you slept.


AGR

Neither the boy nor the girl came.
c- na kuř -aka -a:n na kič -aka -a:n na ha: -t -in neither boy -the -pl nor girl -the -pl not come -p-SM

Neither the boys nor the girls came.


Either you or I go.
b- ya kuř -aka ya(n) kič -aka da- č -e(t)
either boy -the or girl -the asp- go -SM


Either the boy or the girl goes.
c- ya kuř -aka ya kič -aka-a:n da- č -in either boy -the or girl -the -pl asp- go -SM


Either the boy or the girls go.
d- ya kuř -aka -a:n ya(n) kič -aka -a:n da- č -in either boy -the -pl or girl -the -pl asp- go -SM


Either the boys or the girls go.

## Rule 4: Collective Nouns:

Collective nouns require singular verbs when the group acts as one unit. When the group is treated as a group of individuals a plural verb is used.


The people rose against oppression.
b- xalk -aka diži: zorda:r -i: rapar -i: -n


The people rose against oppression.
In (12.a) above the AGR is grammatical, while in (12.b) it is notional. Thus, the collective subject can be singular or plural depending on the speaker's viewpoint.

## Rule 5: Indefinite Pronouns

The following indefinite pronouns have singular forms and as such require singular verbs: hi:čkas 'no one'; harči:yak 'anyone'; har 'each'; harkase(k) 'everybody, somebody'; kase(k) 'someone'; kas 'nobody'; yak 'one'. (Kurdish Academy 1976:72)


No one came to the party.
b- kase(k) xwen -d -i
someone study -p -SM

AGR


Some one studied.
(Mukriya:ni 2000:23)

There are other indefinite pronouns which have an invariable plural forms and require plural verbs: (hamu:, tekra:, sarjam, gišt) 'all'. (Abdullah 1998:65)
14.a- hamu:/ gišt ba:linda -aka -a:n fir-i:-n (Kurdoev 1984:159)


AGR
All the birds flew.
b- hamu: fir -i: -n
all fly -p -SM


AGR
All flew.
c- hamu: ya:n fir -i: -n
all of them fly -p -SM


All of them flew.

Still other indefinite pronouns require both singular and plural verbs: $\underline{\text { čand }}$ ' 'how many'; $\boldsymbol{b i r e ( k )}$ 'some'; $\underline{\text { zor }}$ ' many, much'; $\underline{\mathbf{k a m e}(\mathbf{k})}$ 'a bit'; $\underline{\text { naxte( } \mathbf{k})}$ ' a little'; gale(k) ' most'.


How many men came?
b- čand pya:w ha: -t -in?
how many man come -p -SM


How many men came?
c-* čand pya:w -a:n ha: -t -in?
how many man -pl come -p -SM


How many men came?
d-hande(k) kas tirsinok - $\varnothing$-a
some people coward -be -SM


Some people is coward.


Some people are coward.
It is to be noticed that in the presence of the partitive suffix ya:n 'some of them' the indefinite pronouns indicate plurality as well as singularity (in case the noun is absent as it is illustrated in 16.b hereunder).


## Rule 6: Quantifiers

With fractions and percentages, the verb may or may not agree with its preceding noun: if the noun is regarded as one whole unit, the verb assumes singular, if considered as many units, then it requires a plural verb.


One third of the book is incorrect.


One third of the books are incorrect.

However, when unitary entities are indivisible, the singular verb AGR generates ill-formed sentences as in (18.a).


One third of the dog is barking.
b- se yak -i sag -aka -a:n da- wari: -n third one -iz dog -the -pl asp- bark -SM

AGR
One third of the dogs are barking.
2- Denominators of time, money and distance always require singular verbs.


90 dinars is much for the boy.


AGR
Twenty kilometers is a long distance to walk on foot.

## Rule 7: Numerals

The singular numeral yak 'one' agrees with the singular enumerated noun.; while the plural numerals du: 'two', se 'three' onwards do not agree with the enumerated noun and thus the noun always remains singular.


One man came.


Two men came.
The examples above show that the singular/plural markers are indicated by numerals. In olden times AGR between the numeral and the enumerated noun used to take this form:


One hundred people died.

But recently the enumerated noun that follows the numeral has always singular form where the quantified noun assumes the plural form (Fattah 1990:122).
22. sad kas -Ø mird hundred people -SM died No AGR

One hundred people died.

## Rule 8: Demonstratives

Demonstratives are either pronouns or adjectives. In SK demonstrative pronouns include two classes according to number and distance (Fattah 1997:181; Ahmed 1976:73). In demonstrative pronoun, i.e., the reference agrees with the referent in number.

|  | Singular |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Table (1) Demonstrative Pronouns in Kurdish (Amin 1976:7)
The following examples illustrate the point made above:


This is a pomegranate.


These are pomegranates.

2- Demonstrative adjectives include am 'this' and aw 'that'


This pomegranate is sour.


These pomegranates are sour.
This implies that in the presence of the head nouns the suffix (-a) of the demonstrative pronouns is attached to the referent rather than to the pronouns itself. Thus in (24.a) the AGR marker is overt because the referent is singular, while in (24.b) the AGR marker is not overt.

## Rule 9: Cleft Sentences

In cleft sentences, the verb bu:n 'be' has two forms: either singular or plural.


It was the child who did not sleep.


It was the children who did not sleep.

### 3.5 Areas of Agreement

SK manifests the following areas of AGR

### 3.5.1 Subject-Verb Agreement:

The most significant area of concord in SK is AGR in number and person between the subject 'the controller' and the verb 'the agreeing element'. Generally speaking, number is primarily a category associated with nouns, and only secondarily with the verb (Brown and Miller 1980:195). Along with the category of number, there is a category of person that is overtly marked in relation to the notion of participant roles. The first person refers to the speaker himself; the second person refers to the hearer or the person(s) spoken to; and the third person refers to the person(s) other than the speaker and the hearer. SK has only two terms in its number system: singular which is formally marked by the absence of the plural morpheme [a:n], and plural marked by suffixation of [a:n].


The leaf fell. b- gala: -aka -a:n halwar -i: -n


The leaves fell.
Thus gala:ka 'the leaf' in (26.a) refers to an individual leaf, while gala:ka:n 'the leaves' refers to more than one leaf.

In SK AGR applies regardless of whether the verb is transitive vs. intransitive; past vs. non-past, or whether the sentence is declarative, subjunctive or imperative. Given that sentence elements in SK incorporate
two phrases: NP and VP (Amin 1986 ${ }^{\text {A }}$ : 184), the verb stems can not stand alone, they have to be accompanied by other elements like subject /AGR marker, aspect marker, perfect marker and so on.

Fattah (1997:284) states that "It is these AGR markers that move and attach themselves in the surface structure to any of the various constituents of the VP."

## Declarative

## Past



Amanj studied in the university.

## Present



Abbas goes today.
2. Imperative mood $\left(\begin{array}{|l|l|}\hline \text { to 'you' } & \text { a } \\ \hline \text { ewa 'you' } & \mathbf{n} \\ \hline\end{array}\right)$ (Baban 1999:102)

(you)Write the lesson.

(you)Write the lessons.
c- to
bi- xaw -a
you(sing.) imp- sleep -SM


AGR
(you) Sleep.
d- ewa bi- xaw -in


AGR
(you) Sleep.

## Subjunctive (sub.)

## Past

| Transitive | Intransitive |
| :---: | :--- |
| 30.a- ranga min nu:s -i -ba: -m | b- ranga min bi- č -u: -ba: -m |
| Maybe I write -p -con-SM | Maybe I sub- go -p -con-SM |

## Present

| Transitive | Intransitive |
| :---: | :---: |
| c-ranga min bi- nu:s - im | b-ranga min bi- č -im |
| Maybe I sub-write - SM | Maybe I sub- go -SM |
| AGR <br> Maybe I write. |  |
| $\begin{array}{ccc} \text { e- agar min } & \text { bi- } & \text { kaw -im } \\ \text { if } & \text { I } & \text { sub- fall } \end{array} \text {-SM }$ |  |

## AGR

If I fall. (Baban 1999:66)
The following examples illustrate declarative past transitive and its types:

1. Immediate Past (preterite past)
past stem +clitics


I wrote.
2. Imperfect Past

|  | da+ clitics + past stem |
| :--- | :--- |
| 32. min | da+ $\mathrm{m}+\quad$ nus $-\mathrm{i}:$ |



I was writing.
3. Relative Past (present perfect)

Past stem $+\mathrm{u}: / \mathrm{w}+\mathrm{clitics}$
33. min nu:s- i u: -ma

I write-p- perf -SM


I have written.
4. Past Perfect

Past stem + past stem- bu: + clitics


Subjects can be realized by NPs. NPs can be realized by nouns and pronouns. Nouns may be proper, common or collective. Nouns agree in number and person in the third person (McCarus 1958:51)


Zino went to the party.


Zino and Zamwa went to the party.
36.a- kič -aka dwene gayš -t - $\varnothing$
girl -the yesterday arrive -p -SM


The girl arrived yesterday.
b- kič -aka -a:n u: kuř -aka-a:n dwene gayš -t -in
girl -the -pl. and boy -the-pl yesterday arrive -p-SM

The girls and the boys arrived yesterday.
For collective nouns see rule 4
Pronouns can be free or bound, pronouns show two numbers: the plurals in the first and second person are suppletive, i.e., they are phonetically unrelated to the first and second person singular and plural. Only in the third person the plural is derived from the singular pronoun plus the plural morpheme [a:n]. Pronouns occur in AGR with the verbs in the first, second and third person (McCarus 1958:51). In Kurdish a set of
six independent personal pronouns is recognized; they show two numbers (singular vs. plural) and three persons ( $1^{\text {st }}$ vs. $2^{\text {nd }}$ vs. $\left.3^{\text {rd }}\right)$ (Amin 1976:2).

The following table illustrates the independent (free) pronouns in SK.

| Person | Number | Independent Pronoun | Their Equivalence In <br> English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| first | sing <br> pl. | min <br> ema | I <br> we |
| second | sing <br> pl. | to <br> ewa | you <br> you |
| third | sing <br> pl. | aw <br> awa:n | he, she, it <br> they |

Table 2 Independent Personal Pronouns in SK(Amin 1987:193)
Amin $\left(1986^{\text {B }}: 7\right.$ ) states that in SK the subject (NP) and the verb agree in number and person, accordingly, the verb takes pronominal clitics which show the AGR markers with the subject (NP). These pronominal clitics could be chosen according to the nature of the verb stem (transitive vs. intransitive) and the tense (past vs. non-past).

The following table illustrates three sets of pronominal clitics with reference to transitive vs. intransitive verb stem and past vs. non-past.

| Person | Number | Free <br> pronoun | 1 <br> past <br> transitive | 2 <br> past intransitive | present transitive and <br> intransitive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| First | sing <br> pl. | min <br> ema | (i)m <br> ma:n | (i)m <br> -i:n | (i)m <br> -i:n |
| Second | sing <br> pl. | to <br> ewa | ta:n <br> third | sing <br> pl. | aw <br> awa:n |

Table 3 Pronominal Clitics in SK (Fattah 1997:164)
The difference between set (2) and (3) appears only in the third person singular. However, exact description here requires their separation in the manner above: this is because there is only one set of free pronouns which play the role of subject, object (i.e., D vs. IO) and possessive, and three sets of pronominal clitics that are classified according to their occurrences and roles in the structure of the verb stem and its tense, each set requires a set of pronominal clitics to express the AGR of the verb with subject (NP) in number and person (Amin 1979:62). Notice that the second and third person plural are identical in both past and present tenses (Fattah 1997:291)

The first set (m~ ma:n; $\mathbf{t \sim} \mathbf{t a}: \mathbf{n} ; \mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{y a}: \mathbf{n}$ ) is called pronoun suffixes. It is composed of:


This set has some role to play, the most significant of which is that it participates with the stem of the transitive verb in the past to show AGR with the subject (NP) in case if the object is implicit (nonovert). Here, AGR markers are attached to the verb stem.


AGR
AGR

I wrote.
We wrote.

But when the object is explicit (overt), the AGR markers are attached to the object itself.
38.a-min na:ma nu:si-m b-ema na:ma nu:s-i-ma:n
 I letter -SM write-p we letter -SM write -p


I wrote a letter.

AGR
We wrote a letter.

This implies that the occurrence of DO with the transitive is also obligatory in the sentence
39. min bi:n -i -m


I saw him.
Thus, the sentence is derived from the deep structure:


I saw him.
One of the characteristics of this set (m~ma:n; t $\sim \mathbf{t a}: \mathbf{n} ; \mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{y a}: \mathbf{n}$ ) is that they can change their positions in a sentence

When the sentence has a DO, the pronominal clitic is attached to it.

| 40.a- ema na:ma -ma:n | bo baya:n da- nu:s -i |
| ---: | :--- |
| we letter -SM | to Bayan asp- write -p |

We were writing a letter to Bayan.
When there is no DO, it is attached to the IO.
b- ema bo baya:n -ma:n da- nu:s -i


We were writing to Bayan
When there is no IO, either, it is attached to the preposition.


We were writing to her.
When the preposition is removed, it is attached to the prefix, e.g.

| d- ema da- ma:n | nu:s -i <br> we |
| ---: | :--- |
| we asp- SM | -p |

AGR
We used to write in the past.
When there is a verb stem only, it is then attached to it.


We wrote.
From the above discussion, it can be concluded that the suffixes of this set will be suffixed to the first constituent in the hierarchy (Amin 1979:69; 1983:261-65; 1986 ${ }^{\mathrm{B}}: 12$ ).
D O I O
Prep Pref
VS

The second set ( $\mathbf{m} \sim \mathbf{i n} ; \mathbf{i t} \sim \mathbf{n} ; \boldsymbol{\emptyset} \mathbf{n}$ ) associates with the past intransitive verb to express AGR with the subject (NP). The symbol ( $\emptyset$ ) indicates that the slot of the verbal suffixes is empty i.e. a zero morpheme.

| 41.a- min nu:s -t -im | b- ema nu:s -t -i:n |
| :---: | :---: |
| I sleep -p-SM | we sleep -p -SM |



We slept.
I slept.

$$
\begin{array}{lccc}
\text { c- to } & \text { nu:s } & \text {-t -(i)t } & \text { d- ewa nu:s -t -in } \\
\text { you(sing.) } & \text { sleep -p -SM } & \text { you(pl) } & \text { sleep -p -SM }
\end{array}
$$



You slept.


You slept.
e-
aw

he/she sleep -p -SM they sleep -p -SM

$\mathrm{He} /$ she slept.


They slept.


The third set ( $\mathbf{m} \sim \mathbf{i n}$; it $\sim \mathbf{n}$; at-et $\sim \mathbf{n}$ ) associates with the present tense, (i.e., transitive and intransitive) to express AGR with the subject (NP).
42.a- min da- xwen -im b-ema da- xwen -in
 tense marker -e.

The following examples illustrate the point made above:


The soldier was killed.
b- sarba:z -aka -a:n ku:ž -r -a: -n
soldier -the -pl kill -pass -p -SM


The soldiers were killed.
c- sarba:z -aka da- ku:ž-r -e -Ø
soldier -the asp- kill -pass -pr -SM


The soldier is killed.
d- sarba:z -aka -a:n da- ku:ž -r -e -n
soldier -the -pl asp- kill -pass -pr -SM


The soldiers are killed.
The last two sets have fixed positions within the structure of the (VP). McCarus (1958:52) calls these two sets verbal suffixes.
$* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *$
Fattah (1997:285-291)states that "in cases where the verb of the sentence is the copular bu:n ${ }^{3}$ 'be' or contains a non-past stem, the subject clitic leans on the element of the verbal complex assuming that in the present tense of be, the stem ha has been deleted obligatorily" (for further information see Fathulla 1988: 54-69).

Copular verb bu:n 'be' has two forms (Baban 1997' 4 49).
1- Verb ha-bu:n 'be' in the present:

| Person | Number | ha-bu:n 'be' |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | sing <br> pl. | ha | m <br> yn | I am <br> we are |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | sing <br> pl. | ha | yt <br> n | you are <br> you are |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | sing <br> pl. | ha | ya <br> n | he, she, it /is <br> they are |

Table (3) Copular Verb habu:n 'be' in the present tense.
45. a:wa:z kurd (ha)ya

Awaz kurd be-SM


## Awaz is a kurd.

2- Verb bu:n 'be' in the past:

| Person | Number | ha-bu:n 'be' |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | sing <br> pl. | bu: | m <br> yn | I was <br> we were |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | sing <br> pl. | bu: | yt <br> n | you were <br> you were |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | sing <br> pl. | bu: | Ø <br> ne, she, it /was <br> they were |  |

Table (4) Copular Verb bu:n 'be' in the Past. 46.a- aw ju:tya:r b -u: - $\quad$ b- awa:n ju:t-ya:r b -u: -n
he farmer be -p -SM they farmer be -p -SM


He was a farmer.


They were farmers.

In SK the verb to have has the following forms:
ha...a 'have' in the present; ha...bu: 'had' in the past; dabet 'will have' in the future.

| Person | Number | ha...a 'have' |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { sing } \\ & \text { pl. } \end{aligned}$ | ha | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{m} \\ & \mathrm{ma}: \mathrm{n} \end{aligned}$ |  | I have we have |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { sing } \\ & \text { pl. } \end{aligned}$ | ha |  |  | you have you have |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { sing } \\ & \text { pl. } \end{aligned}$ | ha | $\begin{aligned} & \text { y } \\ & \text { ya:n } \end{aligned}$ | $\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{ti}$ | he, she, it /has they have |

Table (5) Verb to have ha....a in SK (Baban $1997^{\text {B }}: 64$ with modification)

| Person | Number | ha...a <br> 'had' |  |  | da-bet 'will <br> have' |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | sing <br> pl. | ha | m <br> ma:n | bu: 'had' <br> bu: 'had' |  | m <br> ma:n |  |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | sing <br> pl. | ha | t <br> ta:n | bu: 'had' <br> bu: 'had' | da | t <br> ta:n | bet |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | sing <br> pl. | ha | y <br> ya:n | bu: 'had' <br> bu: 'had' |  | y <br> ya:n |  |

Table (6) Verb to have ha...bu: 'had' in the past and da-bet 'will have' in the future (Baban 1999: 53)

SK is a pro-drop language, i.e., SK has the capacity to drop or omit its subject in that "the number and person marking is attached to the appropriate constituent of the VP" (Fattah 1997:299). In pro-drop languages, the overt subject(pronoun) is chosen only if the subject is focused upon or contrasted (Haegeman and Gueron 1999: 610)

```
47.a- min ha: -t -im
    I come -p -SM
        b- (pro) ha: -t -im
            come -p -SM
c- min ha: -t-im bala:m to na- ha: -t -i(t)
    I come -p -SM but you not- come -p -SM
```

In the surface structure, the pronoun $\mathbf{m i n}$ ' $I$ ' is implicit while in the deep structure it is explicit.

### 3.5.2 Subject-Complement Agreement:

In SK there is AGR in number and person between subject and
subject complement.


### 3.5.3 Object-Complement Agreement:

 In SK, the object can or cannot agree with the object complement.> 50.a- min aw ba bira: da- za:n -im

I he/she as brother-sing asp- consider-SM


I consider him a brother.
b- min awa:n ba bira: da- za:n -im
I they as brother asp- consider -SM
No AGR
I consider them brothers.
c-* min awa:n ba bra:ya:n da- za:n

I | (Fattah 1997: 243) |
| :--- |
| I they as brothers asp- consider -SM |

## No AGR

In (50.a) above, both aw 'he' and bira: 'brother' have singular forms, therefore, there is a match between the two elements. While in (50.b) awa:n 'them' and bira: 'brother' mismatch because they do not have the same form of singularity and plurality. We conclude that the form of the object complement in such constructions is invariably singular.

### 3.5.4 Subject-Reflexive Object Agreement:

The reflexive pronouns are formed from the lexeme xo 'self' plus the subject clitics (Fattah 1997:168).

The following table illustrates the types of reflexive pronouns in Kurdish.

| Person | Number | Reflexive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | sing. <br> pl. | xo-m 'myself <br> xo-ma:n 'ourselves' |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | sing. <br> pl. | xo-t 'yourself' <br> xo-ta:n 'yourselves' |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | sing. <br> pl. | xo-y 'himself, herself, itself' <br> xo-ya:n 'themselves' |

Table (7) Reflexive Pronouns in Kurdish

When the reflexive pronouns function as subject (NP)s, they agree with the verb in number.


Myself took it.
Reflexive pronouns can be used freely after pro(nouns) for emphasis to mean 'that person/thing and only that person/thing' min xom 'I myself', ema xoma:n 'we ourselves' (Kurdish Academy 1976:28)

$$
\text { 52.a- min xo -m č } \quad \text {-u: }-\mathrm{m}
$$



I myself go.
When the reflexives function as an object,(i.e., direct or indirect) they can stand apart from their referents with which they must agree in number and person (Fattah 1997:163)


I washed myself.
b- ema xo -ma:n šit we self -SM wash

AGR


We washed ourselves.

### 3.5.5 Relative Pronouns Agreement:

The main function of the relative pronoun is to modify noun phrase as shown hereunder:


Those books which are on the table are mine.


Those books which are on the table are mine.

It is to be noticed that in SK there is no AGR between the relative pronoun ka 'which' and its antecedents, since ka functions here as a conjunction, while the subject of the main clause may or may not agree with the main verb as shown above.

### 3.5.6 Gender Agreement:

In the present day Slemany dialect, there is no particular marker to show gender AGR (Marif 1979: 167). However, there is gender AGR in vocatives as follows (Mackanzie 1961:59; McCarus 1958: 49; Mukriya:ni 1989: 75, 2000: 18; Kurdish Academy 1976: 430-32)
kur-a 'hey, boy’
kič-e 'hey, girl'
kur-i:na 'you, boys'
kič-i:na ' you, grils’
This implies that when the gender carrier in the vocatives is masculine, it takes the morpheme (-
a) as
xal-a 'you, maternal uncle'
mam-a 'you, uncle'
But if the gender carrier in the vocatives is feminine, it takes the morpheme (-e)
kiž-e 'you, girl'
nan-e 'you grandmother'
xušk-e 'you sister'
buk-e 'you sister in law'

In plurals, vocatives take (-i:na) and, therefore, no gender AGR appears.
kuack

Types of gender AGR are illustrated in the following table:

| Gender | Suffix | Examples |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Masculine | -a | kur -a 'boy' |
| Feminine | -e | kič $-\mathrm{e} \quad$ 'girl' |
| Neutral | -i:na | kur-i:na 'boys' <br> kič-i:na 'girls' |

Table (8) Gender Agreement in Kurdish
The following examples further illustrate the aforementioned point:


Hey, boy study.
$b-k u:$ ř -i:na bixwen -in
boy -pl -GM study -SM

AGR
Hey, boys study.
(Mukriya:ni 2000: 19)
However, it seems that even in vocatives, gender distinctions are not consistent as shown hereunder:
ba:wik 'father'
ba:wik-a 'you, father'
da:yk 'mother'
da:yk-a 'you, mother'
In addition, most nouns in summons do not add any suffix (Nabaz 1976: 28)
bira: 'brother'
bira: 'you, brother'
ka:ka 'brother'
ka:ka 'you, brother'
a:xa: 'lord'
a:xa: 'lord'
mirza: 'mayor'
mirza: 'mayor'
da:ra: 'Da:ra:' a proper name
da:ra: 'you, Da:ra:'
ma:mosta: 'teacher'
ma:mosta: 'you, teacher’

### 3.6 Notes to Chapter Three:

1. The Subject markers (SMs) constitute agreement clitics and their presence is compulsory, for when they are omitted, the resulting sentences are ruled out (Fattah 1997: 290).

Many other terms have also been used for the same markers:
Pronominal, personal suffixes /endings/clitics, agreement markers/ clitics and so on.
2. Collective nouns in SK refer to nouns, which denote a group of entities or individuals. They are characterized by their being singular by form and plural in meaning, since there are no morphological markers on the nouns. The collective nouns in SK are:
hoz 'tribe', komal 'community’ ,pol 'class’, laškir 'troop', dasta 'group’, xalk 'people', ližna 'committee’, supa: ‘army'.(McCarus 1967)
3. habu:n in SK can have these identifications (Fathulla 1988 ;77-78)

1-habu:n identifies possessives e.g. min xa:nu:m ha bu:

2- habu:n expresses existence

3-habu:n used as 'verb to be'

I had a house
I house have-p
.g. min hab u: m
I exist-p SM
I existed
e.g. min kurd ha-Ø(m)

I kurd be-SM


I am a Kurd.

## CHAPTER FOUR

## A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

### 4.0 Introduction

### 4.1 Some Introductory Notes Concerning Contrastive Analysis

The purpose of this chapter is to seek similarities and differences between SE and SK. This will give rise to pedagogical implications for the teaching of English to Kurdish learners.

CA may roughly be defined as a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the comparison of either two or more languages, looking for differences and similarities between them, with the aim of finding principles that can be applied to practical problems in language teaching with a special focus on transfer, interference and equivalence (Fisiak and Mickiewicz 1981: 1; Hartmann and Stork 1972:240). Transfer is the process of carrying over grammatical forms from one language to another. Mother tongue (MT) may interfere with the acquisition of those patterns of the source language. James adds that the term 'contrastive' implies, more interest in differences between languages than in their likeliness (1980: 2). The notion of 'Contrast' may be confused with 'Comparative'. However, they are different and not altogether the same thing. Comparative linguistics is related to establishing a relationship between two or more related languages. The aim is usually to reconstruct a common ancestor (Hartmann and Stork 1972: 43,52-3). This implies that comparative linguistics involves only closely related languages that belong to the same family like English and Dutch. Comparative historical linguistics is usually diachronic concentrating on the forms of the languages of different period development, while CA is synchronic in that it involves only the contemporary forms of two or more languages with implications for teaching in mind.

The method adopted in this study is theoretical. The theoretical CA explains the following points (Fisiak and Mickiewicz 1981; 2f)

1- It gives an exhaustive account for the differences and similarities between two or more languages.

2- It provides an adequate model for their comparisons.
3- It determines how and which elements are comparable.
4- It defines notions of congruence, equivalence and contrast...etc.
5- It is interested in how a universal category such as $X$ is realised in languages $A$ and $B$
6- It identifies the probable areas of difficulty in the target language (TL) where it is likely that interference may occur.

7- It also points out the importance of similarities as well as differences.

It has long been held that the cause of errors originates from MT interference with the new foreign or TL. In the late 1940 's and early 50 's, CA was regarded as the major contribution to language teaching. CA set out to overcome MT interference, but its failure to predict the errors made limited its success and led to the emergence of Error Analysis (EA), which studies the pupil's errors and then tries to find out their causes.

There is a pessimistic belief that contrastive studies have nothing to offer to language teaching methodology. They may be regarded as valuable only to theoretical linguistics. The response to this belief should be in negative. There is also a fear that to found the teaching materials on the CA, will acquaint the learners with only fragments of the system in the TLs rather than the entire system. This may be detrimental to the process of learning. Another misunderstanding is that current CA is so complex and full of technical details that it cannot be useful or meaningful to the average learner. This misunderstanding can be overcome by recalling the difference between theoretical grammars and pedagogical grammars. It is hard to establish a hierarchy of difficulties in CA because it is difficult to know which areas in the TL presents more problems: phonology or syntactic structure? Or what? (Fisiak and Mickiewicz 1981: 160-3). While CA can not explain all types of errors, it can account for MT errors or the interlingual causes of error, i.e., language transfer. This is the most straightforward cause of errors and it was this type of error that gave rise to CA. It seems plausible to suppose that the greater the difference in the structure of source language, the greater the difficulty that occurs in performance. CA fails to predict all types of errors but it can explain the errors related to the interlingual causes of errors or MT errors. This helps to alert us to the areas where trouble spots occur. But one should always remember that there are errors other than MT errors.

Studies show that there are similar errors made by a large number of speakers from different languages. They do not reflect the MT structure but reflect faulty generalizations concerning the TL rules; these include:

1- Cross-association, i.e., the faulty association of words like 'very' and 'so' instead of 'too' in sentence like:

This tea is too hot to drink.
2- Wrong analogy and over-generalization:
Here, the learners look for regularity in the TL to reduce their learning loads, by devising rules. But they fail to account for exceptions to the rule.

* She explained me how to mend it.

This may be based on sentence like ( She showed me how to mend it)
Overgeneralization is responsible also for ungrammatical words like '*goed, *foots, *mans...etc.'
3- Other causes include 'carelessness' such as lapses, or the failure to follow a rule known only partly by the learner, hyper-correction is another probable cause, teachers emphasize $3^{\text {rd }}$ person singular (-s) so that learners believe $(-s)$ to be everywhere necessary and essential.

> a-* I lives in a small village.
> b-* She cans sings.
(Abbot etal.1981: 232)
Still other errors given by the teacher is the faulty rules like the following rule:
'If the action is in the past, the verb must be in the past tense', for instance:

* I saw him opened the window.
(Abbot etal 1981: 229-33)


### 4.2 Points of Similarity and Difference:

This section identifies points of similarity and difference between SE and SK in the area of AGR; these points involve the following:

1. Types of agreement.
2. Rules of agreement.
3. Areas of agreement and disagreement.

### 4.2.1 Types of Agreement

## Similarities:

## 1-Grammatical Agreement

Both languages apply grammatical AGR since certain sentence elements formally agree with each other. (see 2.2, type 1, e.g. 1, 2; 3.2, type 1, e.g. 2)
a- This dictionary is expensive.

b- These dictionaries are expensive.

c- aw pya:w -a haža:r -Ø -a this man -Dem poor -be -SM


## AGR

This man is poor.

```
d- aw pya:w -a:n -a
    this man -pl -Dem
```

    haža:r -Ø -in
    Those men are poor.

Grammatical concord is applied to coordinated subjects 'and' and 'u:' when they are seen as a separate entity, hence plural concord obtains. (see 2.4 , rule 2 , e.g. (10) a, b; 3.4, rule 2, e.g. 8 b)
a- Their fathers and mothers are complaining.


Woman and man rose.
Singular collective nouns in both languages agree with their verbs in number when the group acts as one unit. (see 2.4 , rule 4 , e.g. 12 a; 3.4, rule 4, e.g. 12 a)
a- The family is watching TV. at the drawing room.


The army won.
With some indefinite pronouns like 'none' and 'kas' when used as singular grammatical concord applies. (see 2.4 , rule 5 , e.g. 16 f; 3.4, rule 5, e.g. 16 a)
a- None of us is perfect.
b- Kas na č -u: -Ø bo a:hang -aka one not go -p -SM to party -the


## AGR

None went to the party.

## 2- Notional Agreement

## Similarities:

In both languages, notional concord applies where the verb agrees with the notion of number rather than the actual presence of the grammatical markers on the nouns. (see 2.2, type 2, e.g. 3; 3.2, type 2, e.g. $3,4)$
a-
Two hours is not enough to read this novel.
b- The army win the battle.
c- du: mi:l regayak-i dur - $\emptyset$-a
two mile way -iz long -be -SM


Two miles is a long way.


Again, notional concord is applicable to coordinated subjects 'and' and $\underline{\mathbf{u}:}$, when these subjects are conceived as a single unit, hence singular concord obtains. (see 2.4 , rule 2 , e.g. (10)b,c; 3.4, rule 2 , e.g. 8 a)


Watermelon and melon is summer fruit.

## 3- Agreement of Proximity

## Similarities:

In some cases, both languages allow the number of the verb to be determined by the number of the NP nearest to it. This type can be obviously applied to correlatives or and nor as well as na.....na and ya.....ya:n (see 2.2, type 3, e.g. 4; 3.2, type 3, e.g. 5; 2.4, rule 3, e.g. 11; 3.4, rule 3, e.g. 9)
a-Neither his mother nor his father is going to leave this country.
b- na žin -aka da- rwa:(t) na pya:w-aka neither woman -the asp- go -SM nor man -the


Neither the woman nor the man goes.

### 4.2.2 Rules of Agreement

## Rule 1: A General Rule

## Similarities:

A singular subject requires a singular verb, while a plural subject requires a plural verb. This rule is applied in both languages in the same way. (see 2.4 , rule 1 , e.g. 9 b ; 3.4 , rule 1 , e.g. 7 b)
a- The boy plays the piano.
b- The boys play the piano.
c- miwa:n -aka gayš -t - $\emptyset$


The visitor arrived.


The visitors arrived.

## Differences:

The difference lies only in the formation of the verb: in SE the plural verb takes a zero morpheme $\boldsymbol{\varnothing}$ while in SK the plural verb takes a plural morpheme [a:n]. (see 2.4 , rule 1 , e.g. 9 b; 3.4 , rule 1 , e.g. 7 b)

## Rule 2: Coordination:

## Similarities:

In both languages, the same rule applies to subjects coordinated with 'and' and $\underline{\mathbf{u}}:$ whether they are seen as a separate entity or as a single entity. (see 2.4 , rule 2 , e.g. 10; 3.4, rule 2, e.g. 8)
a- Strawberries and cream is the favourite dessert.
b- Spaghetti and sea-food are the usual menu in Italy.
c- ši:r u: qawa baštri:n xwardinawa -Ø -ya
milk and coffee best drink -be -SM


Milk and coffee is the best drink.
d- šir u: qawa $\sim$ ba:štri:n xwardinawa -Ø -n
milk and coffee best drink -be -SM


Milk and coffee are the best drink.

## Rule 3: Correlatives

## Similarities:

## SE and SK share the same AGR rule in that the verb agrees with

 the nearest subject. (see 2.4, rule 3, e.g. 11; 3.4, rule 3, e.g. 9)a- Neither you nor he is absent.


Neither you went nor they .

## Differences:

The difference lies in word order:
There is one possibility in SE: the verb always comes last and agrees with the nearest subject. (see 2.4, rule 3, e.g. 11)

SK has more than one possibilities depending on the occurrence of the verb:
1- If the verb comes immediately after the first part, i.e, between the two parts of the correlatives, the verb agrees with the preceding subject.(see 3.4, rule 3, e.g. (9)a,c )

It is possible to repeat the verb twice in the same construction and, therefore, the verb can agree with the preceding subject.(see 3.4 , rule 3 , e.g. (9)b,d)
2- If the verb comes last, there are two possibilities:
a- In most cases the verb occurs in the plural regardless of the preceding subject whether singular or plural. (see 3.4 , rule 3 , e.g. 10)
b- The verb is only in the singular form in a few cases with ya..... ya:(n) either- or. (see 3.4 , rule 3 , e.g. 11b)

## Rule 4: Collective Nouns

## Similarities:

The application of the notional concord in both languages obtains for collective nouns whether the subject is thought of as a single body or as a group of individuals. (see 2-4, rule4, e.g. 12; 3-4, rule4, e.g. 12)

## a- The family is going on vacation this year.

b-The family are going to enjoy their vacation.


The army won.
d- supa -aka sarkaw -t -in
army the win -p -SM


The army won.

## Rule 5: Indefinite Pronouns

## Similarities:

In both languages, indefinite pronouns may require a singular verb or a plural verb or both singular and plural verbs. (see 2.4, rule 5, e.g. 13-16; 3.4, rule 5, e.g. 13-16)
a- Somebody plays the piano.
b- Both boys are clever.
c- None of my brothers is here.
d- None of my brothers are here.


No one came to the meeting.
f- gišt pya:w -aka -a:n rošinbi:r Ø -in
all man -the -pl intellect be SM


All the men are intellects.
g- čand kič ha: -t -Ø ?
how many girl come -p -SM


How many girls came.
h- čand ku:r ha: -t -in?
how many boy come -p -SM


How many boys came.

## Rule 6: Quantifiers

## Similarities:

With fractions and percentages, the verb agrees with the preceding noun in both languages. (see 2.4 , rule 6 , e.g. $17,18 \mathrm{~b}$; 3.4 , rule 6 , e.g. 17 a , b)
a- One-third of the page is incorrect.
b- One-third of the pages are incorrect.
c- se yaki para -aka hala -Ø -ya
third one page -the incorrect -be -SM

AGR
One third of the page is incorrect.
d- se yaki para -aka -a:n hala -Ø -n
third one page -the -pl incorrect -be -SM

AGR
One third of the pages are incorrect.

But when the entity is indivisible, the singular verb AGR generates ill-formed sentences in both languages. (see 2.4 , rule 6 , e.g. 17 c; 3.4 , rule 6 , e.g. 18 a)
With denominators of time, money and distance, both languages use a singular verb. (see 2.4 , rule5, e.g. 18; 3.4, rule5, e.g. 19)
a-
Six weeks is not enough for the vacation
b-
$1000 \$$ is a great sum of money
c- $\quad$ Ten kilometers is too long to walk
d-


Six days is much for the election.
e-


Ten kilometers is a long distance to walk on foot.

## Rule 7: Numerals

## Similarities:

SE and SK are similar in their own numeral system. In that the numerals precede the enumerated nouns. (see 2.4, rule 7, e.g. 20; 3.4, rule7, e.g. 20 )

## One source is available.

Ten sources are available.
yak mamosta: la pol -aka -Ø -ya
one teacher in room -the -be -SM


One teacher is in the room.
da mamosta: la pol -aka - $\varnothing$-n ten teacher in room the -be -SM


Ten teachers are in the room.

## Differences:

Differences occur when the numeral has a plural form. In SE the enumerated nouns should always occur in the plural, if the numeral is more than one. (see 2.4 , rule 7 , e.g. $20 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{c} ; 3.4$, rule 7 , e.g. 20b)
e.g. I saw four boys in the opera.


In SK, the enumerated nouns occur always in the singular.
čwa:r žin -im bi:n-i:
four woman -SM see -p
pl sing.
No AGR
I saw four women.

## Rule 8: Demonstratives

## Similarities:

Both languages share the same AGR rule for the demonstrative pronouns: (see 2.4, rule 8, e.g. 21; 3.4, rule 8 , e.g. 23)


This is a book.
d-
am -a:n -a kiteb - $\varnothing$-in this -pl Dem book -be -SM


These are books.

SE and SK are also similar when the demonstrative adjectives indicate singularity. (see 2.4,rule 7, e.g. 22a; 3.4, rule 7, e.g. 24a)

This/That colour is nice.
b-


This colour is nice.

## Differences:

## Differences occur with plural demonstrative adjectives:

1- SE has four terms for demonstrative adjectives: this/that/these/those.
SK has only two terms: $\underline{\mathbf{a m}}$ 'this'/ aw 'that'
In SE all forms of demonstratives indicate AGR. (see 2.4,rule 8, e.g. 22b; 3.4, rule 8, e.g. 24b)


In SK, when the headnoun indicates plurality with am 'this' and aw 'that', there is no formal AGR markers on the demonstrative adjective (see 2.4, rule 8 e.g. 22 b; 3.4 , rule 8 e.g. 24b).


## Rule 9: Cleft Sentences

## Similarities:

The SE cleft sentence is similar to SK only when the verb of the cleft sentence occurs in the singular. (see 2.4 ,rule 9 , e.g. $23 ; 3.4$, rule 9 , e.g. 25a)
a-
It was Betty who wore her blue shirt last
night.
b-
awa:z b -u: - $\varnothing$ ka xa:nu -aka -y kir -i
Awaz be -p -SM who house -the -iz buy -p


AGR
It was Awaz who bought the house.

## Differences:

Differences only occur in the plural.
1-In SE, the first verb never occurs in the plural.
It was the girl /girls who was/were in the bank
2-In SK the verb can be singular or plural. (see 3.4, rule 9, e.g. 25b)
a:waz u: ka:rwa:n b -u: -n ka xa:nw -aka -ya:n kir -i:
Awaz and Karwan be -p -SM who house -the -iz -pl buy -p


### 4.2.3.0 Areas of Agreement and Disagreement

### 4.2.3.1 Subject-Verb Agreement

## Similarities:

This area is considered to be the most significant area in both SE and SK, both languages have two terms in their number system: singular vs. plural as well as three terms for persons ( $\left.1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{vs} .2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{vs} .3^{\text {rd }}\right)$. This implies that they share the same procedure for number and person classifications.(see 2.5 .1 , area 1 , e.g. 30; 3.5.1, area 1 , e.g. 26)

## Differences:

The following differences occur:
1-a- SE has no clitics. It has only a bound morpheme -s that is considered as an inflectional marker attached to the verb stem 3ps to show the AGR. This morpheme is immovable, at the same time there are no formal AGR markers for other persons. (see 2.5.1, area 1, e.g. 30)
b- SK has three sets of pronominal clitics that function as AGR markers and are attached to the verb stem. These AGR clitics are movable. It is these clitics that attach to the verb stem in both past vs. nonpast and transitive vs. non-transitive verbs, to indicate AGR in number and person.
(see 3.5.1, area 1 , table 3, e.g. (27-43))
2-In SE only 3ps subject operates in this area. (see 2.5.1, area 1, table 3, e.g. 30b)
In SK all types and tenses of the verb apply in this area.(see 3.5.1, area 1 , table 3, e.g.(27-44) )
3-a-Verb to be in SE can be represented by free forms. It has three forms in the present and two forms in the past.(see 2.5 .1 , area 1 , table 4 , e.g. 31)
b- Verb bu:n 'be' in SK can be represented by zero morpheme in present and the verb bu: in the past. (see 3.5.1, area 1, table 4,5, e.g.45-6)

4-a- In SE verb to have has only two forms 'have' and 'has' in the present, and one form 'had' in the past. (see 2.5.1, area 1 , table 5 )
b-verb to have in SK has three forms: (see 3.5.1, area 1, table 6-7)
ha __ a 'have, has' in the present
ha bu: 'had' in the past
da bet 'will have' in the future


### 4.2.3.2 Subject-Complement Agreement

Both SE and SK follow the same AGR-rules for subject and subject complement. (see 2.5.2, area 2, e.g. 32; 3.5.2, area 2, e.g. 48-9)


### 4.2.3.3 Object-Complement Agreement

## Difference:

In SE the complement can be either singular or plural agreeing in number with the object: (see 2.5.3, area 3, e.g. 35-36)

I consider John a friend.


I consider them to be friends.
c-* I consider them a friend.
No A\&R $\qquad$
In SK the complement is always singular: (see 3.5.3, area 3, e.g. 50)
min aw ba bira: daza:nim
I he brother consider
sing. sing.


I consider him a brother
min awa:n ba bira: daza:nim
I they brother consider
pl. sing.


No AGR<br>*I consider them a brother.<br>* min awa:n ba bira:-yan daza:nim<br>I they brothers consider<br>pl. pl.<br><br>I consider them brothers.

### 4.2.3.4 Subject-Reflexive-Object Agreement

## Similarities:

In both SE and SK , reflexives form an area where AGR between the reflexives and their antecedents applies, and in both the AGR markers lie in the personal pronouns, to which the 'self' ' $\mathbf{x 0}$ ' is added.

## Differences:

The only difference between the two lies in the position of the personal pronouns: In SE they precede the morpheme 'self'. While in SK they follow xo 'self'(see 2.5.4, area 4, table(6,7), e.g. 37; 3.5.4, area 4 , table 7 , e.g. (51-3)

### 4.2.3.5 Relative Pronoun Agreement

## Differences:

SE adopts a procedure for the formation of relative pronouns which is completely different from that of SK. In SE, the relative pronouns agree in person and gender with their antecedents. In SK, there is no AGR between the relative ka 'which, who, that' and its antecedents, since kanctions as a conjunction. (see 2.5.5.2, e.g. 42; 3.5.5., e.g. 54)

### 4.3 Conclusion

The conclusions that can be arrived at in this thesis are:
1- Both languages have two terms for number (sing. vs. pl.) and three terms for persons (1st vs. 2nd vs. 3rd).

2- In both SE and SK, AGR occurs between the subject (NP) and the verb (VP). in that:
a- Both languages share the same general rule i.e. singular subjects require singular verbs while plural subjects require plural verbs.
b- The rule of coordination applies in both SE and SK i.e. the coordinated is treated as a single unit or as a separate unit.
c- In SE, there is only one possibility for the correlatives in that the verb always occurs finally and agrees with the preceding conjunct. But in SK, there are more than one possibilities:
i- the verb may occur between the two parts of the correlatives. ii- it is possible for the verb to follow each conjunct within one sentence and each agrees with the preceding conjunct.
iii-the verb can also occur in the final position as in SE and agrees with the preceding subject.
d- The rule of collective nouns has the same application in both SE and SK depending on the viewpoint of the speakers.
e- Rules of indefinite pronouns, quantifiers, denominators of time, money and distance apply in the same way in both languages.
f- Cleft sentences in SE occur always in the singular, but in SK they may occur with singular as well as plural.

3- Agreement in SE and SK also occurs within elements of a NP as shown in the following points:
a- In SE the numerals always indicate agreement with the enumerated nouns whether the
numeral is singular or plural. But in SK the enumerated noun always remains singular.
b- SE and SK have the same realisations for the demonstrative pronouns. The only difference is that SE has four terms this/ that vs. these/ those but SK has two terms am 'this' and aw 'that' for the singular and the same demonstrative could be replaced for the plural plus the plural morpheme [a:n].

4- The verb to be in SE is a free morpheme, whereas in SK it is bound morphemes (as in bu: the past) and ( $\mathbf{a}$ or $\boldsymbol{\emptyset}$ ) in the present.

5- In SE, only verbs in the present tense with 3ps subjects are explicitly inflected for agreement. In SK almost all tenses with all persons are inflected for agreement.
6- Object - Complement AGR in SE has two forms: singular and plural while in SK the complement always occurs in the singular regardless of whether the object is being singular or plural.
7- Gender in SE appears only with 3rd person pronouns (he, she, it) while in SK it appears irregularly in vocatives.

### 4.4 Further Suggestions

This study is not intended to be comprehensive. We suggest that contrastive studies in the field of grammar and semantics are to be conducted in the future. Besides, we further suggest that the findings of this thesis should be taken into account in the actual process of teaching English to Kurdish learners, as well as in the processes of syllabus design for this Kurdish-speaking region; because, so far, the syllabi have been designed for Arabic-speaking learners, on the basis that it is the language of the majority in the country. Therefore, the new proposed syllabi must take
into consideration agreement and disagreement within the sentence structure of the two languages. This is an urgent necessity, because till now the syllabus takes so much for granted the similarity between Arabic and English, but not Kurdish. Thus, this thesis is probably a step towards the unification of the pedagogic procedures in teaching both Standard Kurdish and Standard English.

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## دراسة نحوية تقابلية حول التطابق في اللغتين الإنكليزية الفصحى و الكردية الفصحى

تشهد اللغة الإنكليزية، دون ريب، توسعا ملحوظا في كردستان، ويزداد عدد دارسيها اكثر

 إحدى اكثر المعضلات الملفتة للنظر في رأينـا و تقديرنا هي مشكلة التطـابق. لذا فـان الباحث قد اختار در اسة هذا المجال لتكون ذات فائدة في المجال المذكور .

تتضمن هذه الرسالة أربعـة فصـول ـ يشمل الفصـل الأول المقدمـة و نتنــاول فيهـا العو امـل التي حفزتنـا علـى اختيـار موضوع الرسـالة ، و عنوانـه ، و طبيعتـه ، و مجالاتـه ،و وضـع إطــار نظري لـه.
أما الفصل الثاني فيتعلق بالتطابق في الإنكليزية الفصحى و يشتمل على العنـاوين التاليـة: مقدمـة ،و تعريف التطـابق ،و أنواع التطـابق ،و الهرم التطـابقي ،و قوانين التطـابق ،و مسـاحات التطابق ،و التطابق و المدارس النحوية.
اختص الفصل الثالث بدر اسـة التطـابق في الكرديـة الفصـىى ويتضـمن العنــاوين الفرعيـة الآتيـة: مقدمـة ،و تعريـف التطـابق ،و أنـواع التطـابق ،و الهـرم التطـابقي ،و قوانين التطـابق ،و مساحات التطابق.

أما الفصل الرابع و الأخير فقد خصص للتحليل التقابلي بين اللغتين المدروستين ويتضـمن بعض الملاحظــات التمهيديـة حـول التحليـل النتقـابلي و تعريفهـا ، و انواعهـا ، و مبادئهـا ، و عبوبهـا ، بالإضافة إلى نوضيح اوجه التشــابه و الاختلاف في اللغتين المذكورتين في مسـاحات النطـابق و عدم النطابق و ذلك بالاستناد ألي نتائج الفصلين المذكورين.

## وتنتهي الرسالة بخلاصة و بعض الاستنتاجات مع قائمة بالمصادر و المراجع.

راجين من المولى عزوجل أن يوفقتا جميعا في خدمة العلم و المعرفة.


[^0]:    $(1997)^{B}$ Rezmany Kurdi: mika:nizma binaratyaka:ni
    ristasazi, rezmani bu:n u: habu:n \{Kurdish grammar: the fundamental

