Preface

There is a continuous interest in the study of various linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of Kashmiri. The tradition of presenting grammatical sketches and descriptions began in the mid of nineteenth century. Modern works on the subject commenced in the sixties and continue till date following different linguistic models. Besides linguistic studies, pedagogical materials have been prepared for learning Kashmiri as a second/foreign language. Kachru (1969, 1973) provides a grammatical description of Kashmiri, and instructional materials with notes. In his papers, he has also described certain grammatical and sociolinguistic aspects of the Kashmiri language.

Koul (1977) deals with some grammatical, sociolinguistic, and lexical aspects. Hook and Koul have jointly worked on various grammatical aspects like word-order, pronominal suffixes, ergativity, transitivity, causatives, modal verbs, etc. at length. Koul and Hook (eds.1984) presents papers dealing with grammar contributed by various scholars. Hook and Koul (forthcoming) deal with the grammatical structure of Kashmiri in detail. Koul (1985,1987,1994) provides notes on grammar and culture in the instructional materials for learning Kashmiri as a second/foreign language.

Wali and Koul (1997) provide a detailed description of Kashmiri grammar covering phonology, morphology and syntax. In recent years, quite a few doctoral dissertations, and papers Kashmiri contributed by various scholars have appeared in journals in India and abroad. Most of these are listed in Koul (2000, revised 2004).

Koul and Wali (eds.2002) include papers devoted to various syntactic aspects of Kashmiri. The topics covered are related to some important linguistic characteristics of Kashmiri such as word-order, wh-questions, clitics or pronominal suffixes, significance of topic in a V2 language, case marking, ergativity, transitives and causatives, semantico-syntactic aspects of certain verbs etc. These papers are contributed by Kashi Wali, Peter Edwin Hook, Ashok K Koul, Achla Misri Raina, Estella Del Bon, and Omkar N Koul. Koul and Wali (2005) have described phonology, morphology and syntax of Kashmiri from pedagogical point of view. In a chapter on lexicon, they provide classified vocabulary of Kashmiri.

The present volume includes some of my revised and new papers related to the topics of linguistic structure and sociolinguistic aspects of Kashmiri. The topics deal with the structure of the Kashmiri language, language and society, personal names, kinship terms, modes of greetings, modes of address, lexical borrowings, and standardization of script.

I hope that these papers will stimulate further research interest in Kashmiri language and linguistics. Linguists, language teachers of Kashmiri, and researchers in South Asian languages particularly in Kashmiri will find this book useful.

Omkar N Koul
## Transcription

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Front Unrounded</th>
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<th>Back Rounded</th>
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**Consonants**

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</table>

Nasalization of vowels is indicated by the nasal sign “/GF2” over the vowels. The palatalization of consonants is indicated by an apostrophe sign after the consonantal letter: p’, b’, etc.
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The Kashmiri Language

1. Introduction

1.1. Area and Speakers

The Kashmiri language is called कोशिर or कोशिर zaba:n by its native speakers. It is primarily spoken in the Kashmir Valley of the state of Jammu and Kashmir in India. According to the 1981 census there were 30,76,398 speakers of the language. The census was not conducted in the year 1991 and 2001. Keeping in view the rise of the population over last many years, the current number of its speakers will be around four million. Kashmiri is also spoken by Kashmiris settled in other parts of India, and other countries. The language spoken in and around Srinagar is regarded as the standard variety. It is used in literature, mass media and education.

1.2. Classification and Dialects

There is a general consensus amongst historical linguists that Kashmiri belongs to the Dardic branch of the Indo-Aryan family. Grierson (1919), Morgenstierne (1961), and Fussman (1972) classify Kashmiri under Dardic group of Indo-Aryan languages. The term Dardic is stated to be only a geographical convention and not a linguistic expression. The classification of Kashmiri and other Dardic languages, has been reviewed in some works (Kachru 1969, Strand 1973, Koul and Schmidt 1984), with different purposes in mind. Kachru points out linguistic characteristics of Kashmiri. Strand presents his observations on Kafir languages. Koul and Schmidt have reviewed the literature on the classification of Dardic languages and have investigated the linguistic characteristics or features of these languages with special reference of Kashmiri and Shina.

Kashmiri is closely related to Shina and some other languages of the North-West frontier. It also shares some morphological features such as pronominal suffixes with Sindhi and Lahanda. However, Kashmiri is different from all other Indo-Aryan languages in certain phonological, morphological, and syntactic features. For example, Kashmiri has a set of central vowels /i, i, a, a/ which are not found in other Indo-Aryan languages. In a similar way, in Kashmiri the finite verb always occurs in the second position with the exception in relative clause constructions. The word order in Kashmiri, thus, resembles the one in German, Dutch, Icelandic, Yiddish and a few other languages. These languages form a distinct set and are currently known as Verb Second (V-2) languages. Note that the word order generated by V-2 languages is quite different from Verb middle languages, such as English. In a V-2 language, any constituent of a sentence can precede the verb. It is worth mentioning here that Kashmiri shows several unique features which are different from the above mentioned other V-2 languages.

Kashmiri has two types of dialects: (a) Regional dialects and (b) Social dialects. Regional dialects are further of two types: (i) those regional dialects or variations which are spoken in the regions inside the valley of Kashmir and (ii) those which are spoken in the regions outside the valley of Kashmir. The Kashmiri speaking area in the valley is ethno-semantically divided into three regions: (1) Maraz (southern and south-eastern region), (2) Kamraz (northern and north-western region) and (3) Srinagar and its neighbouring areas. There are some minor linguistic variations mainly at the phonological and lexical levels. Kashmiri spoken in the three regions is not only mutually intelligible but quite homogeneous. These dialectical variations can be termed as different styles of the same speech. Since Kashmiri, spoken in and around Srinagar has gained some social prestige, very frequent ‘style switching’ takes places from Marazi or Kamrazi styles to that of the style of speech spoken in Srinagar and its neighbouring areas. This phenomena of style switching is very common among the educated speakers of Kashmiri. Kashmiri spoken in Srinagar and surrounding areas continues to hold the prestige of being the standard variety which is used in mass media and literature.

There are two main regional dialects, namely Poguli and Kashtawari spoken outside the valley of Kashmiri (Koul and Schmidt 1984). Poguli is spoken in the Pogul and Paristan valleys bordered on the east by Rambani and Siraji, and on the west by mixed dialects of Lahanda and Pahari. The speakers of Poguli are found mainly to the south, south-east and south-west of Banihal. Poguli shares many linguistic features including 70% vocabulary with Kashmiri (Koul and Schmidt 1984). Literate Poguli speakers of Pogul and Pakistan valleys speak standard Kashmiri as well. Kashtawari is spoken in the Kashtawar valley, lying to the south-east of Kashmir. It is bordered on the south by Bhadarwahi, on the west by Chibbali and Punchi, and on the east by Tibetan speaking region of Zanskar. Kashtawari shares most of the linguistic features of standard Kashmiri, but retains some archaic features which have disappeared from...
the latter. It shares about 80% vocabulary with Kashmiri (Koul and Schmidt 1984).

No detailed sociolinguistic research work has been conducted to study different speech variations of Kashmiri spoken by different communities and speakers who belong to different areas, professions and occupations. In some earlier works beginning with Grierson (1919: 234) distinction has been pointed out in two speech variations of Hindus and Muslims, two major communities who speak Kashmiri natively. Kachru (1969) has used the terms Sanskritized Kashmiri and Persianized Kashmiri to denote the two style differences on the grounds of some variations in pronunciation, morphology and vocabulary common among Hindus and Muslims. It is true that most of the distinct vocabulary used by Hindus is derived from Sanskrit and that used by Muslims is derived from Perso-Arabic sources. On considering the phonological and morphological variations (besides vocabulary) between these two dialects, the terms used by Kachru do not appear to be appropriate or adequate enough to represent the two socio-dialectical variations of styles of speech. The dichotomy of these social dialects is not always clear-cut. One can notice a process of style switching between the speakers of these two dialects in terms of different situations and participants. The frequency of this ‘style switching’ process between the speakers of these two communities mainly depends on different situations and periods of contact between the participants of the two communities at various social, educational and professional levels. Koul (1986) and Dhar (1984) have presented co-relation between certain linguistic and social variations of Kashmiri at different social and regional levels. The sociolinguistic variations of the language deserve a detailed study.

1.3. Script
Various scripts have been used for Kashmiri. The main scripts are: Sharda, Devanagari, Roman and Perso-Arabic. The Sharda script, developed around the 10th century, is the oldest script used for Kashmiri. The script was used for writing Sanskrit by the local scholars at that time. The does not represent all the phonetic characteristics of the Kashmiri language. It is now being used for very restricted purposes (for writing horoscopes) by the priestly class of the Kashmiri Pandit community. The Devanagari script with additional diacritical marks has also been used for Kashmiri and continues to be used by writers and researchers in representing the data from Kashmiri texts in their writings in Hindi related to language, literature and culture. It is being used by a few journals namely Kashur Samachar, Aalav and Kshir Bhawani Times on regular basis. Certain amount of inconsistency prevails in the use of diacritic signs. This script has recently been standardised and now widely used in publications. The Roman script has also been used for Kashmiri but could not become popular.

The Perso-Arabic script with additional diacritical marks now known as Kashmiri script has been recognized as the official script for Kashmiri by the Jammu and Kashmir Government and is now widely used in publications in the language. It still lacks standardization (Koul 1996).

2. Phonology
2.1. Segmentals
The inventory of the distinctive segments of Kashmiri is given under Vowels and Consonants below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
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<td>iː</td>
<td>u</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
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<td>əː</td>
<td>oː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>aː</td>
<td>ə</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notice that Kashmiri has two short and two long central vowels (/iː/, /eː/, /aː/ and /oː/) which are not found in other South Asian languages.

2.1.1. Oral vowels
There is a contrast of the position of tongue, height of the tongue and the rounding of lips in the articulation of vowels:

/ɪ/ (high front unrounded short vowel): (y)ɪmɪːθaːn ‘examination,’ sɪr ‘secret,’ bɛni ‘sister.’
/iː/ (high front unrounded long vowel): (y)ɪːd ‘Eid’ (A Muslim festival), sɪːr ‘brick,’ jɑːlːɪː ‘quickly.’
/e/ (mid front unrounded short vowel): rɛh ‘flame,’ tɾeː ‘three’
/eː/ (mid front unrounded long vowel): tʃɛːr ‘late’
/ɪ/ (high central unrounded short vowel): aɡɑː ‘wisdom,’ ɡɑːndiː ‘dirty’
/iː/ (high central unrounded long vowel): ɪʃɪːm ‘eighth,’ tʃɪr ‘cold’
/o/ (mid central unrounded short vowel): ɑːtʃ ‘eye,’ ɡoːr ‘watch’
/ɔ:/ (mid central unrounded long vowel):
ɔː ‘mouth,’ phɔ:yd ‘profit’
/ə/ (low central unrounded short vowel):
ɑː ‘today,’ pɑː ‘read,’ nɑː ‘no’
/aː/ (low central unrounded long vowel):
aːr ‘pity,’ gɑːm ‘village,’ sɑphːaː ‘clean’
/ɑ/ (high back rounded short vowel):
ɑː ‘pity,’ gɑːm ‘village,’ sɑphːaː ‘clean’
/aː/ (high back rounded long vowel):
aː ‘that/he’
/u/ (high back rounded short vowel):
ʊː ‘day before yesterday,’ suː:d ‘interest’
/o/ (mid back rounded short vowel):
oːn ‘blind,’ soːn ‘our,
/oː/ (mid back rounded long vowel):
oːl ‘nest,’ soːn ‘our,
/aː/ (low central unrounded long vowel):
aːr ‘pity,’ gɑːm ‘village,’ sɑphːaː ‘clean’
/æ/ (low central unrounded short vowel):
æː ‘mouth,’ phɔ:yd ‘profit’
/ɜː/ (mid central unrounded short vowel):
ɜː ‘mouth,’ phɔ:yd ‘profit’
/uː/ (high back rounded long vowel):
uːtː ‘day before yesterday,’ suː:d ‘interest’
/oː/ (mid back rounded long vowel):
oːl ‘nest,’ soːn ‘our,
/aː/ (low central unrounded long vowel):
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oːl ‘nest,’ soːn ‘our,
/æ/ (low central unrounded long vowel):
æː ‘mouth,’ phɔ:yd ‘profit’
/ɜː/ (mid central unrounded short vowel):
ɜː ‘mouth,’ phɔ:yd ‘profit’
/uː/ (high back rounded long vowel):

2.1.1.2. Nasal vowels

Nasalization is phonemic in Kashmiri. All the vowels can be nasalized.

/aː/ piː:tʃ ‘a little (f.s.)’
/eː/ kːʔ ‘some’
/eː/ šeː:kʰ ‘conch’
/iː/ kːː:tʃ ‘youngest (f.s)
/oː/ âz ‘goose’
/oː/ âː ‘stone of a fruit’
/ɑː/ âːɡreːz ‘an English man’
/ɑː/ âːɡun ‘compound’
/ʊː/ kːuːz ‘key’
/ʊː/ vʊː:θ ‘camel’
/ʊː/ göd ‘bouquet’
/ʊː/ göːd ‘gum’
/ʊː/ sʃzal ‘rainbow’
/ʊː/ yiraːd ‘determination’

2.1.1.3. Distribution of vowels

The vowels /aː/, /oː/, /ɔː/ do not occur in the word final position. The short vowels /ɪ, /ɛ, /ʌ, and /ɔ/ do not occur in the word-initial position. Usually the semi-vowel /y/ is added in the initial position of the words beginning with /ɪ, /ɛ, /ʌ, and /ɔ/. Similarly, the semi-vowel /ə/ is added to the words beginning with /aː, and /ʊː/. The following pairs of words are in free variation:

iraːd /yiraːd ‘determination’

2.1.1.4. Sequences of (syllabic) vowels

Sequences of vowels do not occur in Kashmiri. The combinations of some vowel sequences like /uː/ /uː:/ and /oː/ can be treated as diphthongs. Their occurrence is restricted to the word initial and medial positions only.

ʃuːr ‘child’ (f.s)
guːr ‘milkmaid’
oːl ‘nest’
goːl ‘round’

2.1.2. Consonants

Consonants are classified into different groups on the basis of their manner and place of articulation.

2.1.2.1. Inventory of Consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stops</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Retroflex</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
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<tr>
<td>Semi-vowels</td>
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</table>

Only some educated persons who are conscious about the original pronunciation of the Hindi-Urdu borrowed words, make efforts to pronounce some of such words without the semi-vowel in the word initial position.
Examples are given below:

**Stops**

- /p/ (voiceless unaspirated bilabial stop):
  - pakh ‘walk,’ kapur ‘cloth,’ pop ‘ripe.’

- /ph/ (voiceless aspirated bilabial stop):
  - phal ‘fruit,’ saphe:d ‘white,’ pa:ph ‘sin’

- /b/ (voiced unaspirated bilabial stop):
  - bar ‘door,’ akkh:a:r ‘newspaper,’ nab ‘sky’

- /t/ (voiceless unaspirated dental stop):
  - tarun ‘to cross,’ katun ‘to spin,’ tot ‘hot’

- /th/ (voiceless aspirated dental stop):
  - thod ‘tall,’ mathun ‘to rub,’ sa:th ‘close’

- /d/ (voiced unaspirated dental stop):
  - dr: ‘window,’ l’odur ‘yellow,’ band ‘close’

- /t/GE0 (voiceless unaspirated retroflex stop):
  - tu:k ‘basket,’ ratun ‘to catch,’ ho:t ‘throat.’

- /h/ (voiceless aspirated retroflex stop):
  - tshor ‘empty,’ gatshun ‘to go,’ latsh ‘dust’

**Fricatives**

- /s/ (voiceless alveolar fricative):
  - sath ‘seven’ sasti ‘cheap,’ nas ‘nose’

- /z/ (voiceless alveolar fricative):
  - za:lun ‘to burn,’ pazar ‘truth,’ az ‘today’

- /ʃ/ (voiceless palato-alveolar fricative):
  - šak ‘suspicion,’ kaši:r ‘Kashmir,’ paš ‘roof’

- /h/ (voiceless glottal fricative):
  - hos ‘elephant,’ baha:r ‘spring,’ reh ‘flame’

**Nasals**

- /m/ (voiced bilabial nasal):
  - mas ‘hair,’ ts:a:man ‘cheese,’ kam ‘less’

- /n/ (voiced alveolar nasal):
  - nam ‘nail’ anun ‘to bring,’ son ‘deep’

- /ø/ (voiced velar nasal):
  - ra:nun ‘to dye,’ za:n ‘leg.’

**Trill**

- /r/ (voiceless alveolar trill):
  - raz ‘rope,’ narim ‘soft,’ ta:r ‘wire’

**Lateral**

- /l/ (voiceless alveolar lateral):
  - lu:kh ‘people,’ kalam ‘pen,’ za:l ‘net’

**Semi-vowels**

- /v/ (voiceless bilabial semi-vowel):
  - van ‘forest,’ davun ‘to run,’ na:c ‘boat/name’

- /y/ (voiceless palatal semi-vowel):
  - yad ‘belly,’ yakhtiya:r ‘right,’ ja:y ‘place’

### 2.1.2.2. Palatalization

Palatalization is phonemic in Kashmiri. All the non-palatal consonants in Kashmiri can be palatalized.

- pan ‘thread’ p’an ‘(they) will fall’
- phal ‘fruit’ ph’al ‘boil’
- bon ‘heap’ b’on ‘separate’
Phonological changes in loanwords

The voiced aspirated consonant phonemes like /bh/, /dh/, /d\h/, and /gh/ are deaspirated as /b/, /d/, /d\/ and /g/ respectively in Kashmiri in the Perso-Arabic and Hindi-Urdu borrowed words. Similarly, the Perso-Arabic uvular stop /q/ is replaced by /k/, and fricatives /f/, /\/, and /g/ are replaced by /ph/, /kh/, and /g/ respectively.

The voiceless unaspirated stops /p/, /t/, /t\/, and /k/ in the borrowed words are aspirated in the word final position in Kashmiri:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindi-Urdu</th>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>/pr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>/tr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>/t\r/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>/kr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>/nd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>/sr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>//</td>
<td>/sh/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/\r/</td>
<td>/sr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/m/</td>
<td>/mr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>/lr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/j/</td>
<td>/jr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/y/</td>
<td>/yr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/w/</td>
<td>/wr/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consonant Clusters

2.1.2.4. Word-initial Consonant Cluster

2.1.2.4.1. Word-initial consonant clusters are not as frequent as the word medial consonant clusters. The second member of a consonant cluster which occur in the initial position is always /t/. The first consonant is a stop, affricate or a fricative.

| /pt/ | prasun | 'to give birth' |
| /phr/| phras  | 'poplar tree'   |
| /br/ | bram   | 'ilusion'       |
| /tr/ | tre    | 'three'         |
| /dr/ | drog   | 'expensive'     |
| /\tr/| trak   | 'truck'         |
| /\d/ | dram   | 'drum'          |
| /\k/ | krakh  | 'cry'           |
| /\kh/| khrakh | 'a wooden footwear' |
| /\g/ | grahkh | 'a customer'   |
| /\sr/| srod   | 'joint,' 'common' |
| /\st/| \srh  | 'bath'          |

2.1.2.4.2. Word-medial consonant cluster

There is a very frequent occurrence of consonant clusters in the medial position. Most of these clusters are formed across syllable or morpheme boundaries. Some of them are broken optionally by the insertion of the vowel /\/. There are some restrictions in the formation of consonant clusters as follows: (i) two aspirated consonants do not combine to form a consonant cluster, (ii) /ch/ is not combined to form a consonant cluster, (iii) /\/ does not occur as the second member of a consonant cluster. Examples of the consonant clusters are given below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindi-Urdu</th>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/pt/</td>
<td>kapta:n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/bn/</td>
<td>sbnam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/th/</td>
<td>kithkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/dph/</td>
<td>adphar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/dp/</td>
<td>tadpun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kt/</td>
<td>maktab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/gr/</td>
<td>rangre:z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ck/</td>
<td>ackan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/jl/</td>
<td>kha:lji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/mnt/</td>
<td>tsamthun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/nt/</td>
<td>zanti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/\m/</td>
<td>du\sman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/lb/</td>
<td>alba:n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/rb/</td>
<td>gurbath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/zm/</td>
<td>azma:vun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/hb/</td>
<td>r\hbar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are only a limited number of consonant clusters of three consonants possible in Kashmiri. In all such instances the first consonant is nasal /n/.

- ndr əndrim ‘internal’
- ndk andka:r ‘darkness’
- ndg bandgi: ‘worship’
- nzr go:nzrun ‘to count’

2.1.2.4.3. Word-final consonant cluster

There is a less frequency of the occurrence of the consonant clusters in the word final position. The first member of the consonant cluster is any of the two nasal consonants /m, n/, or fricatives /s, š/. The second consonant is any of the stops.

- /mp/ lamp ‘lamp’
- /mb/ amb ‘mango’
- /nd/ dand ‘teeth’
- /nd/ khand ‘sugar’
- /nk/ bank ‘bank’
- /nš/ šankh ‘conch’
- /ng/ rang ‘colour’
- /st/ mast ‘carefree’
- /št/ gašt ‘round’
- /št? / kašt ‘trouble’

2.1.2.5. Syllable structure

Kashmiri has (C)(C)V(C)(C) syllable structure. Vowel initial syllables are found only in the initial position of the words. The first consonant of the medial cluster is assigned to the preceding syllable and the remaining elements of the unit to the following syllable. In the following examples the syllable boundary is marked with [+ ] sign.

- nak+ši ‘map’
- man+zil ‘destination’
- kis+mat ‘fate’

The assignment of the medial units to syllables does not depend on morphological structure.

2.2. Suprasegmentals

2.2.1. Length

There are seven pairs of short and long vowels: The following minimal pairs illustrate the contrast in the length of these vowels:

- sir ‘secret’  si:r ‘brick’
- zen ‘mud’  ze:n ‘win’
- tir ‘a piece of cloth’  ti:r ‘cold’
- lær ‘house’  lær ‘cucumber’
- nar ‘male’  na:r ‘fire’
- kun ‘alone’  ku:n ‘corner’
- son ‘deep’  so:n ‘our’

Consonants do not contrast in length.

2.2.2. Stress

Stress is not a distinctive feature of Kashmiri. It is not in phonemic contrast. Kashmiri being a syllable-timed language, sometimes individual words are stressed for emphasis.

2.2.3. Intonation

There are four major types of intonational patterns: (1) High - fall, (2) High - rise, (3) Rise & fall, (4) Mid - level. Intonations have syntactic rather than emotional content. Statements have ‘High - fall’ intonation pattern. Intonation peaks are generally positioned on the penultimate word or on the negative particle, if any.

1. su chu kita:b para:n
   ‘He is reading a book.’

2. palav chini me:zas pet
   ‘The books are not on the table.’

Yes-no questions and tag questions have a ‘High-rise’ intonation.

3. su a:va: ra:th
   ‘Did he come yesterday?’
4. sugav dili, gav na:
   he went Delhi-ab went neg-q
   ‘He went to Delhi. Didn’t he?’

   Information questions have ‘Rise and fall’ intonation. The rise in
   intonation is registered on the question word and fall is attained gradually.

5. toh’ kar gayi vi ha:zar
   you when went market
   ‘When did you go to the market?’

   Commands generally follow the mid-level intonational pattern.

6. darva:zi kar band
   door do close
   ‘Close the door.’

   The contrastive and emphatic intonations are same as they employ
   more than the average stress on the constituents of a sentence. The element
to be contrasted carries slightly higher stress than the emphasized segment.
   For example, any of the elements can be emphasized in the following
   sentence depending on the degree of emphasis. The emphasis is represented
   by the use of italic words, e.g.,

   7a. toh’ gatshiv dili
      you go-fu-2p Delhi
      ‘You will go to Delhi.’

   7b. toh’ gatshiv dili
   7c. toh’ gatshiv dili

2.3 Morphophonology

2.3.1. Alternations

There are two types of alternations: (1) Alternations between vowel
segments, and (2) Alternations between consonant segments.

In (1) the vowel of a monosyllabic stem and the second vowel of
disyllabic stem undergo changes when inflectional suffixes are added to
them. There are three types of vowel changes: (i) lowering of a vowel,
(ii) raising of a vowel, and (iii) centralization of a vowel.

2.3.1.1. Lowering of a vowel

The vowels /a/, /a:/ and /a/ of the monosyllabic stems change to /a/, /a:/
and /a/ respectively when the plural forming suffixes -i or -i are added
to them, e.g.,

   gor ‘watch’ + i gari ‘watches’
   nar ‘arm’ + i nari ‘arms’
   go:d ‘fish’ + i ga:dhi ‘fish’ (pl)
   ku:r ‘girl’ + i ko:ri ‘girls’

2.3.1.2. Raising of a vowel

The vowels /a/ and /a:/ in the CVC stems change to /a/ and /a:/ respectively
when a suffix beginning with -i is added to them.

   kar ‘do’ + iv kari + ‘do’ (imp. pl)
   na: gir ‘spring’ + in na: gin ‘small spring’

2.3.1.3. Centralization of a vowel

The back vowels /u/, /u:/, /a/, and /o/ of the monosyllabic or the second
vowel of the disyllabic stems change to /a/, /a/ and /a/ respectively
when suffixes beginning with -i, or -y are added to them.

   kru:r ‘well’ + y kri:r ‘wells’
   ru:n ‘husband’ + y ri:n ‘husbands’
   ko:t ‘boy’ + is koot ‘to the boy’
   on ‘blind’ + is onis ‘to the blind’
   mo:l ‘father’ + y mo:l ‘fathers’

The second vowel /a/ of the disyllabic words of the CVCVC structure
changes to the central vowel /a/ when the plural forming suffix -o is
added to them.

   batukh ‘duck’ + o batakh ‘ducks’
   gagur ‘rat’ + o gagar ‘rats’
   kskur ‘cock’ + o kskar ‘ducks’
   va:tu:l ‘cobbler’ + o va:tu ‘cobblers’

   In the alternation of consonant segments the different types of
   consonant changes as well as some vowel change take place as a result of
adding suffixes to stems. Notice that some vowel changes also take place in the stems.

The retroflex consonants /ṭ/, /ṭh/ and /ṭṭ/ occurring in the feminine singular stems change to affricates /c/, /ch/ and /j/ respectively, when the plural forming suffix is added to them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mot</td>
<td>mats ‘mad’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yuth</td>
<td>yitsh ‘this type’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thod</td>
<td>thaz ‘tall’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The velar stops /k/, /kh/, and /g/ change to affricates /c/, /ch/ and /j/ respectively when the feminine forming suffix -Ø is added to them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tsok</td>
<td>tsoc ‘sour’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hokh</td>
<td>hoch ‘dry’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lang</td>
<td>land ‘branch’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The lateral consonant /l/ in the final position changes to the affricate /j/ as a result of adding the feminine suffix -Ø to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kol</td>
<td>kaj ‘dumb’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hol</td>
<td>haj ‘twisted’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The stem final aspirated voiceless stops are deaspirated when the suffixes beginning with vowels are added to them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ta:ph</td>
<td>ta:pas ‘in the sun’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sath</td>
<td>sotim ‘seventh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rath</td>
<td>rətun ‘to hold’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3.2. Deletion and Insertion

2.3.2.1. Deletion

The CVCV stem final /i/ is deleted when a vowel initial suffix is added to it.

- kali ‘head’ + as kalas ‘to the head’
- ra:mi ‘Ram’ + un ra:mun ‘Ram’s’

The vowel /u/, or /i/ of the second syllable of the CVCVC stem is deleted when a vowel initial suffix is added to it.

- gobur ‘son’ + is gobris ‘to the son’
- gəgij ‘turnip’ + i gəgji ‘to the turnip’
- nəgir ‘town’ + as nagras ‘to the town’

2.3.2.2. Insertion

/y/ is inserted between the front vowel ending stem and the suffix beginning with /-i/.

- khe ‘eat’ + iv kheyiv ‘eat’ (imp. pl)
- di ‘give’ + iv diyiv ‘give’ (imp.pl)

/v/ is inserted between the back vowel ending stem and the suffix beginning with /a/.

- ce ‘drink’ + a:n cevə:n ‘drinking’
- di ‘give’ + a:n divə:n ‘giving’

/m/ is inserted between the front vowel ending verb stems and the suffixes /i/ or /a/ for deriving first person future forms.

- ni ‘take’ + i nimi ‘I’ll take’
- khe ‘eat’ + av khemav ‘we’ll eat’

/i/ is added as a linking morpheme between a consonant ending stem and a consonant beginning stem in the derivation of compounds.

- nu:n ‘salt’ də:n ‘pot’ nu:n də:n ‘salt pot’
- ca:y ‘tea’ də:n ‘pot’ ca:y də:n ‘tea pot’
3. Morphology

3.1. Nominal Morphology

Nouns in Kashmiri follow the traditional classification scheme of (i) Proper (human animate, non-human animate, and inanimate) nouns, and (ii) Common (count, mass) nouns. Nouns are not formally distinguished for being definite or indefinite. The demonstrative adjectives may optionally be used as a means to indicate the definiteness. The forms of vo:l and genitive phrases modifying a noun also express definiteness. Indefiniteness is expressed either by the use of indefinite numerals or qualifiers or markers. The marking of definiteness or indefiniteness in a noun phrase is not obligatory and can be inferred from the context also.

3.1.1. Noun Inflection

Nouns are inflected for gender, number and case.

3.1.1.1. Gender

Nouns are divided into two classes: Masculine and feminine. Animates follow the natural gender system. The gender of a large number of inanimate nouns can be predicted by their endings. Gender formation processes from masculine to feminine or vice versa are irregular. Main gender formation processes involve (i) suffixation, (ii) changes in vowels and consonants, and (iii) suppletion. Most of the phonological and morphological changes are regular.

Suffixation

The following suffixes added to nouns indicate their masculine formation: -da:r, -dar-vo:l, -ul, and -ur. As a result of adding of these suffixes certain morphophonemic changes take place.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine Form</th>
<th>Feminine Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dã:dur</td>
<td>dã:dren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>šur</td>
<td>šu:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gu:jr</td>
<td>gu:ir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gob</td>
<td>go:b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko:t</td>
<td>ko:tir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mo:l</td>
<td>mð:j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ga:jul</td>
<td>ga:ttj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsoc</td>
<td>tsoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoch</td>
<td>hoch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tot</td>
<td>tats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>land</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The feminine forms are derived by palatalization of the final consonant as well, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine Form</th>
<th>Feminine Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dã:ndar</td>
<td>dã:ndren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gu:ir</td>
<td>gu:ir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko:ttir</td>
<td>ko:ttir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mð:j</td>
<td>mð:j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ga:ttj</td>
<td>ga:ttj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsoc</td>
<td>tsoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoch</td>
<td>hoch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tot</td>
<td>tats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>land</td>
<td>land</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vowel and consonant changes

(i) The vowels /u, u:, o, o:/ in the CVC structure of masculine nouns are diphthongized or are replaced by the central vowels at the same height in their feminine forms, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine Form</th>
<th>Feminine Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>šu:r</td>
<td>šu:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gu:ir</td>
<td>gu:ir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gob</td>
<td>go:b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko:t</td>
<td>ko:tir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mð:j</td>
<td>mð:j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ga:ttj</td>
<td>ga:ttj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsoc</td>
<td>tsoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoch</td>
<td>hoch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tot</td>
<td>tats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>land</td>
<td>land</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) The penultimate vowel /u/ of the CVCVC structure masculine nouns is replaced by /i/, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine Form</th>
<th>Feminine Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ko:ttir</td>
<td>ko:ttir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mð:j</td>
<td>mð:j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ga:ttj</td>
<td>ga:ttj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsoc</td>
<td>tsoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoch</td>
<td>hoch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tot</td>
<td>tats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>land</td>
<td>land</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iii) The word final consonants /l, k, kh, t, and g/ are replaced by /j, c, ch, ts, and d/ respectively, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine Form</th>
<th>Feminine Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mo:l</td>
<td>mð:j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ga:jul</td>
<td>ga:ttj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsoc</td>
<td>tsoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoch</td>
<td>hoch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tot</td>
<td>tats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>land</td>
<td>land</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suppletion

Some feminine nouns present examples of suppletion as follows:
Masculine   Feminine

dä:d ‘bull’   ga:v ‘cow’
marid ‘man’   zana:n ‘woman’
neuv ‘son’   kuri ‘daughter’

Gender marking of foreign words

Kashmiri borrows words from Perso-Arabic, Sanskrit, Hindi-Urdu, and English. Nativized loans from these languages fall in two genders: masculine and feminine. It is interesting to note that a large number of words borrowed from Hindi-Urdu have different genders from their sources (see for details Koul 1983). A few examples are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindi-Urdu</th>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a:dat (f)</td>
<td>a:dath (m)</td>
<td>‘habit’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ki:mat (f)</td>
<td>ki:math (m)</td>
<td>‘price’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dava: (f)</td>
<td>dava: (m)</td>
<td>‘medicine’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kismat (f)</td>
<td>kismath (m)</td>
<td>‘luck’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tär (m)</td>
<td>tär (f)</td>
<td>‘telegram’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rupaya: (m)</td>
<td>rupay (f)</td>
<td>‘rupee’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ruma:l (m)</td>
<td>ruma:l (f)</td>
<td>‘handkerchief’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A number of other nouns also have different genders in Hindi-Urdu and Kashmiri. For example, days of a week (except juma:h ‘Friday’) are masculine in Hindi-Urdu, but they are feminine in Kashmiri.

3.1.1.2. Number

There are two numbers: singular and plural. Most count nouns form their plurals from singular form. Some count nouns have the same form for both numbers. Mass nouns do not show number distinction. Plurals are formed from singulars by suffixation, palatalization and vowel changes.

3.1.1.2.1. Masculine plural forms

Main rules for the formation of masculine plural forms are as follows:

(i) The mid back vowel /o/ of the CVC structure nouns changes to a central vowel and the final consonant is palatalized. The high back vowels /u/ and /u:/ remain unchanged.

(ii) The second vowel of the CVCVC structure nouns changes to a central vowel and the final consonant is palatalized.

(iii) The penultimate vowel /u/ of (C)VCVC structure nouns changes to /a/.

(iv) Masculine nouns ending in the vowel /i/ do not change in their plural form: gila:s ‘glass,’ maka:n ‘house,’ ba:n ‘utensil,’ nalk ‘tap,’ kamr ‘room,’ dar:va:z ‘door’ etc.

(v) The CVC structure nouns with a central vowel do not change in their plural form: khar ‘donkey,’ va:l ‘hair,’ ma:m ‘maternal uncle,’ s¹h ‘lion’ etc.

(vi) Consonant ending masculine nouns borrowed from Hindi-Urdu and English do not change in their plural form: bema:r ‘sick,’ gor:i ‘poor,’ mozu:r ‘labourer,’ ho:tal ‘hotel,’ saykal ‘cycle,’ etc. (They, however, undergo phonological changes.)

3.1.1.2.2. Feminine plural form

Main rules for the formation of feminine plural forms are as follows:

(i) The vowel of the CVC(C) structure nouns is lowered and /i/ is added at the end, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nør ‘arm’</td>
<td>nari ‘arms’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The retroflex consonants /tʃ, th/, /dʒ/ change into palatals /c/, /ch/ and /j/ respectively, e.g.,

- /tʃ/ becomes /c/ as in /laci/ 'tails'
- /th/ becomes /c/ as in /lanji/ 'branches'
- /dʒ/ becomes /j/ as in /kuchi/ 'grain stores'

The penultimate vowel /i/ of CVCVC structure is dropped, before the plural suffix /i/ is added, e.g.,

- /gagr/ 'rats'
- /gɔgji/ 'turnips'

(ii) The plural marker /i/ is added to the feminine nouns of CVC structure having a low vowel, e.g.,

- /kath/ 'stories'
- /na:v/ 'boats'
- /dɔs/ 'walls'

(iii) The final consonant /th/ changes to /ts/ and the vowel preceding to it is raised in height, e.g.,

- /raːths/ 'nights'
- /zaːth/ 'castes'

A few feminine nouns do not change in their plural form, e.g. /aːch/ 'eye.'

3.1.1.3. Case

Case suffixes added to nouns and noun phrases occur as bound morphemes. Following table gives the case suffixes added to the nouns agreeing in number and gender:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>- o</td>
<td>- o</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.1.4. Postpositions

There are two major types of postpositions: (a) those which govern the dative case, and (b) those which govern the ablative. There are a few postpositions which govern both. Examples of these postpositions are given below.
(a) Postpositions governing the dative case: peṭh ‘on, upon,’ andar ‘in/inside,’ manz ‘in,’ keth ‘in,’ k’uth ‘for,’ niši ‘near,’ hund/sund ‘of’ ‘sa:n,’ siṭh/, sī:tan ‘with, together with’

(b) Postpositions governing the ablative case: peṭh ‘from,’ andrī ‘from within, from among,’ kin ‘by, owing to’ niši ‘from near,’ uk ‘of,’ un ‘of’ sa:n ‘with,’ sī:th, sī:tin ‘with, by means of’ bā:path ‘for’

(c) The postpositions sa:n, niši, sī:th, sī:tin govern both cases. The meaning of the postposition sa:n in both cases remains unchanged, but the other postpositions change their meanings according to the case they govern.

The role of case suffixes and postpositions is explained in the paradigms of lad̲k̲i ‘boy’ and ku:r ‘girl’ given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun + Marker</th>
<th>Postposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom</td>
<td>lad̲k̲i</td>
<td>ku:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat</td>
<td>lad̲k̲as</td>
<td>ko:ri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erg</td>
<td>lad̲kan</td>
<td>ko:ri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loc</td>
<td>lad̲kan</td>
<td>ko:ri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl</td>
<td>lad̲k̲i</td>
<td>ko:ri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen</td>
<td>lad̲k̲an</td>
<td>ko:ri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hayo:</td>
<td>lad̲k̲av</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The genitive postpositions are like adjectives and they agree with the governing noun in gender, number and case. There are three types of these postpositions. The forms of all the three types of these postpositions are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type I</td>
<td>-uk</td>
<td>-ik’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type II</td>
<td>-un</td>
<td>-in’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type III</td>
<td>-und</td>
<td>-ind’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Type I and II postpositions are governed by ablative case, and the Type III by dative case.

Type I postpositions are used with inanimate nouns:

- duk:na:n duk:av:zi ‘the door of the shop’
- duk:na:n duk:av:zi ‘the owners of the shop’
- duk:na:n duk:av:zi ‘the window of the shop’

Type II postpositions are used with animate human proper nouns:

- mohun bo:yu ‘Mohan’s brother’
- mohin’ ba:y ‘Mohan’s brothers’
- mohin’ beni ‘Mohan’s sister’
- mohini beni ‘Mohan’s sisters’

Type III postpositions are used with the rest. Notice that /s/ or /h/ phonemes are added in the initial position of these postpositions depending on the structure of the subject nouns along with their case suffixes. /h/ is added to the postpositions of all the plurals and feminine singular subject nouns. /s/ is added to the postpositions following the singular masculine nouns ending with dative case suffixes. Adding of case suffixes result in certain morphophonemic changes in the stem nouns. The case relations are expressed by the use of the case suffixes as well as the postpositions which undergo certain changes. Examples of the use of these postpositions are given as follows:

- ku:r + i + und’/inz/inz = ko:ri hund/hind’hinz/hinzi
- lad̲k̲i +as + und’/inz/inz = lad̲k̲i sund/sind’/sinz/sinzi
- bo:yu +is + und’/inz/inz = bo:yu sund/sind’/sinz/sinzi
- ko:ri + an + und’/inz/inz = ko:ren hund/hind’hinz/hinzi
- lad̲k̲i +an + und’/inz/inz = lad̲k̲an hund/hind’hinz/hinzi

- ko:ri hund bo:yu ‘girl’s brother’
- ko:ri hind’ bo:yu ‘girl’s brothers’
- ko:ri hinz kita:b ‘girl’s book’
- ko:ri hinz kita:bi ‘girl’s books’
- lad̲k̲i sund kalam ‘boy’s pen’
- lad̲k̲i sind’ kalam ‘boy’s pens’
3.1.2 Pronouns

3.1.2.1 Personal Pronouns

Pronouns are inflected for gender, number and case. Pronominals in Kashmiri do not make a distinction between inclusion and exclusion. There is a three-term set of pronouns in Kashmiri. Third person pronouns exhibit a three-term distinction of the participants in speech acts: proximate, remote (within sight) and remote (out of sight).

Although the case system of pronouns is essentially the same as that of nouns, pronouns have more case forms than nouns. Notice that there is no gender distinction in the first and second person personal pronouns. Second and third person plural forms are used for honorific singulars as well.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Deixis</th>
<th>Gender and Number</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Sg. Pl. Sg. Pl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>as'</td>
<td>bi as'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>tsi</td>
<td>toh'</td>
<td>tsi toh'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>yim</td>
<td>yim</td>
<td>yim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. I (within sight)</td>
<td>hum</td>
<td>hum</td>
<td>humi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. II (out of sight)</td>
<td>tim</td>
<td>sim</td>
<td>timi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sg. Pl. Sg. Pl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>asi</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>tse</td>
<td>toh’</td>
<td>tse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>yim</td>
<td>yiman</td>
<td>yiman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. I</td>
<td>homis</td>
<td>human</td>
<td>homis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. II</td>
<td>tamis</td>
<td>timan</td>
<td>tamis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All pronouns are free. They occur in all positions. They can be dropped if they are recoverable from the verb or from the context. Kashmiri has a system of pronominal suffixes/clitics, which are added to the verbs to refer to the subject, object, and indirect object. (See Hook and Koul 1984: 123-135, Wali and Koul 1994, Wali and Koul 1997.) Status distinction is indicated by using the plural pronominal forms instead of singular forms. Occasionally, honorific titles māhrā:; hā: and jina:b ‘sir’ may also be used after the second person plural forms used for honorific singular
subjects. The honorific ma:hra: is used with Hindus, haz with Muslims, and jina:h is a neutral term used for any person. Emphatic forms of pronouns are formed by adding emphatic particle -h to the pronouns in all cases. When this particle is added as a suffix to the pronoun, certain phonological changes take place. The emphatic forms in nominative are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>biy</td>
<td>biy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>tsiy</td>
<td>tsiy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>yihoy</td>
<td>yihoy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.I</td>
<td>hohay</td>
<td>hohay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.II</td>
<td>suy</td>
<td>suy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>timay</td>
<td>timay</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.12.2. Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns have the same forms as the personal third person pronouns. There are, however, some additional demonstrative pronouns such as ti ‘that (out of sight)’ that is used with inanimate nouns. Its dative form is tath. The demonstrative pronouns are used as demonstrative adjectives also.

3.12.2.3. Indefinite pronoun

There are no special indefinite pronouns. The indefinite ness is expressed in different ways: (i) by using the second person pronoun; (ii) by omitting third person pronouns; (iii) by using generic nouns such as yinsa:n, manu:s ‘man/human’; and (iv) by using indefinite quantifiers such as kǎ:h ‘someone.’

3.12.2.4. Relative pronouns

The relative pronoun yus ‘who, which, that’ is inflected for number, gender and case. Forms are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom</td>
<td>yus</td>
<td>yim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat</td>
<td>yemis</td>
<td>yiman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl</td>
<td>yemi</td>
<td>yimav</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erg</td>
<td>yem’</td>
<td>yimav</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen</td>
<td>yem’sund</td>
<td>yihund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yem’sinz</td>
<td>yehnzi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.2.5. Reflexive pronouns

The main reflexive in Kashmiri is pa:n ‘self.’ The compound form paun pa:n ‘self’ compares with Hindi apne a:p. The case forms of pa:n are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>pa:n</td>
<td>panun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>panins</td>
<td>panini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>panini</td>
<td>panini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erg.</td>
<td>panin’</td>
<td>panini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>panin’sund</td>
<td>panin’sinz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The genitive forms are used in idiomatic contexts only. The emphatic forms are: pa:n pa:ni ‘only by self’ and pa:nay ‘self.’

The reciprocal form is akh ‘to one another.’ It is a compound of the cardinal akh ‘one’ and its dative case form. The distributive form is pa:nov ‘mutual.’ The case forms of reciprocal are as follows: dative akh akis; genitive akh ak sund (msg) akh ak sind’ (mpl) akh ak sinz (fpl). There is no nominative/absolutive form of the reciprocal and the dative form is used where nominative/absolutive is required.

3.1.2.6. Interrogative pronouns

There are two main interrogative forms: kus ‘who,’ and ki ‘what.’ The case forms of interrogatives kus ‘who’ and k’a: ‘what’ are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>kus</td>
<td>kam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>komis/kas</td>
<td>kiman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>komis/kas</td>
<td>kami</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.3 Adjectives

There are two types of adjectives: (i) Base adjectives and (ii) Derived adjectives. The base adjectives are inherent in nature and are not derived from any other grammatical category. The derived adjectives are those which are formed from nominal, verbal and other adjectival bases by adding certain suffixes. Examples are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Derived</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mal</td>
<td>‘dirt’</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gula:b</td>
<td>‘rose’</td>
<td>-C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da:r</td>
<td>‘beard’</td>
<td>-al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mazi</td>
<td>‘taste’</td>
<td>-da:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>madadga:r</td>
<td>‘help’</td>
<td>-ga:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ki:math</td>
<td>‘price’</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ki:nti:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjectives can be further divided into two classes (i) those which are inflected for number, gender and case of the noun they modify and (ii) those which are not. Examples of the first category of adjectives are given below along with their inflected forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n’u:l</th>
<th>‘blue’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ni:l’</td>
<td>ni:li</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

| n’u:l | ko:th | ‘blue coat’ | ni:l’ | ko:th | ‘blue coats’ |
|       | ni:j | komi:z | ni:ji | komi:zi | ‘blue shirts’ |

Other adjectives which fall under this category are: vɔzul ‘red,’ kruhun ‘black’ ga:zal ‘wise,’ ışhɔt ‘short/dwarf,’ z’u:th ‘tall’ etc.

Adjectives can either be qualitative or quantitative. The qualitative constitutes a large class. All the modifiers of quality like different colours (vzon 'red,' n'ut 'blue,' saphe:d 'white' etc.), personal qualities (ca:la:kh 'clever,' da:na: 'wise' buz:di:l 'coward' etc.), physical qualities (thod 'tall,' tshot 'short,' v'oh 'fat,' za:v'ul 'slim' etc.), qualities of taste (modur 'sweet,' tsok 'sour,' f'oh 'bitter' etc.) fall under this category.

The quantitative category includes the numerals (cardinals, ordinals, fractions, multiplicatives), intensifiers (k'h 'some,' s:ri: 'all,' se:ha: 'many/very,' kam 'little'), demonstrative adjectives (yu:t 'this much,' t'u:t 'that much'), etc.

### 3.2. Verb Morphology

Verbs are classified as intransitives, transitives, and causatives, with further sub classification such as statives and actives. There is also a special group of verbs that require their subject to be in the dative. Some of these dative verbs have a thematic argument, which is marked nominative.

#### 3.2.1. Intransitive verbs

Intransitive verbs, static or active, have only one argument, namely the subject. The subject of most intransitives is marked with the nominative case across all tenses. A few exceptional intransitives like natsun 'to dance,' vodon 'to cry': take ergative subjects in the past tense.

1. bi notsus/ me nots
   I-nom I-erg danced
   'I danced.'

2. tam' vod
   he-erg wept
   'He wept.'

#### 3.2.2. Transitive verbs

Transitive verbs may have two or three arguments. The arguments may be subject, direct object, and indirect object. In the past tense these verbs take ergative case invarially. The verbs which take only a direct object are known as monotransitives, and the verbs which take direct as well as indirect objects are called double or ditransitives. Examples are given below:

3. aslaman kh'av bati
   Aslam-erg ate food
   'Aslam ate food.'

4. aslaman d'ut mohnas akhba:r
   Aslam-erg gave Mohan-dat newspaper
   'Aslam gave a newspaper to Mohan.'

Certain transitive verbs may be derived from intransitive verbs by vowel changes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tar</td>
<td>ta:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mar</td>
<td>ma:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gal</td>
<td>ga:l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d'al</td>
<td>d'a:l</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 3.2.3. Dative verbs

Dative verbs form a special class, known as psychological predicates. The subject of these predicates is marked dative in all tenses and aspects. Some of these verbs may also take a second argument, and so called thematic object. This object is marked nominative. The class is mostly comprised of verbs of perception, knowledge, belief, mental and physical state, and verbs of desire etc.

#### 3.2.4. Causative verbs

Causative verbs are formed from intransitive, transitive and di-transitive verbs by a productive process of suffixation. Two causative suffixes (i) -a:v/-ma:a:v (called the first causative suffix) and (ii) -in'a:v (called second causative suffix) are added to first causal forms. All the vowel ending roots and a few consonant ending verb stems take -a:v as a first causal suffix, while all others take -ma:a:v. Some vowel ending stems take any of the two suffixes. The second causative suffix -in'a:v is added to all the consonant ending verb stems directly, it is added after the first causal suffixes in the vowel ending stems.
The process of causativization results in certain morphophonemic changes. There are some verbs which have dual valency. They can be used either transitively or in transitively. Sometimes, the direct object can be dropped to render their corresponding intransitive usage. These verbs are: parun ‘read, study (in school etc.),’ sõ:cun ‘to think,’ za:nun ‘to understand.’

### 3.2.5. Inflection of Verbs

Verbs are inflected for voice, tense, aspect, mood and person-number-gender. They are briefly discussed below.

#### 3.2.5.1. Voice

Traditionally there are two voices: Active and Passive. The passive formation involves changes not only in the verb form, but also changes in the subject case and addition of explicator/auxiliary verb. The passive involves following changes:

(i) the subject of the active sentence is followed by the compound postposition -ni/kdi zriyi ‘by’ (-ini/ndi are the forms of a genitive postposition followed by ablative case),

(ii) the auxiliary/explicator verb yun ‘come’ is employed, and the passive marker -ni is added to the main verb root. The explicator receives the tense aspectagreement endings. The former object is in the nominative and controls the agreement on yun.

Passive transitive sentences express both the personal passive as well as the capability meaning. The intransitive passive conveys only the capability meaning. Though agents can be dropped in both the constructions, it is more frequently done in the case of personal passive.

1. kita:b a:yi ni parn book came-fs neg read-pass ‘The book was not read.’
   (or ‘The book couldn’t be read.’)

2. to:r a:v n gatshn there came neg go-pass ‘No one could go there.’

Only the direct object is sensitive to passivization and indirect objects cannot be passivized.

#### 3.2.5.2. Tense

##### 3.2.5.2.1. Present Tense

The present indicative tense is formed by using the present form of the auxiliary verb ‘be’ and the imperfective aspectual marker -a:n, added to the main verb stem. The auxiliary is placed in the second position and is inflected for number, gender, person and case as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.case</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>chus</td>
<td>chi</td>
<td>chas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>chukh</td>
<td>chiv</td>
<td>chakh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>chu</td>
<td>chi</td>
<td>cha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Masculine plural forms of second and third person subjects are used for honorific singulars as well. In case the subject noun is in dative case, following forms of the auxiliary verb ‘be’ are used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dative case</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st/3rd</td>
<td>chu</td>
<td>chi</td>
<td>chas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd(sg.)</td>
<td>chuy</td>
<td>chiy</td>
<td>chay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd (pl/hon)</td>
<td>chuvi</td>
<td>chivi</td>
<td>chavi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that if the dative verb has a theme, then the verb shows agreement with the theme.
3.2.5.2.2. Past Tense

Morphologically past tense has three forms: proximate/simple, indefinite, and remote. The proximate past forms are derived by means of the infix -yv. The indefinite and remote past are formed by adding the suffixes to the verb stem, noted in the second and third line respectively. The addition incurs certain morphophonemic changes in the verb stem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st/3rd</td>
<td>-y</td>
<td>-y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>-yo:yi</td>
<td>-yi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>-e:yo:yi</td>
<td>-e:yi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd (sg)</td>
<td>-yo:yath</td>
<td>-e:yath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd (pl)</td>
<td>-yo:yi</td>
<td>-e:yi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The paradigms of intransitive and transitive verbs in the past are different. Note that in the past, the subject of transitive and a few exceptional intransitives is marked ergative and the direct object, which may be animate or inanimate, takes nominative case.

Transitive verbs agree with the absolutive object in gender and number. In case the subject is first or third person, forms of the verbs agreeing with the object in gender and number are given as per the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>par</td>
<td>‘read’</td>
<td>par</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chal</td>
<td>‘wash’</td>
<td>chal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an</td>
<td>‘bring’</td>
<td>an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khe</td>
<td>‘eat’</td>
<td>khey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ni</td>
<td>‘take’</td>
<td>niy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Kashmiri, the second person is a highly marked category. The verb obligatorily inflects for second person pronominal suffixes irrespective of the category of the second person. In the past tense the second person ergative subject marks the verb with -th/ov (sg/pl), in contrast to first and third person. These second person suffixes of the subject follow the gender number suffixes of the absolutive object. The following personal suffixes are added to the above given inflected forms (i.e. 1st/3rd person forms) for deriving the second person singular forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i)</td>
<td>-uth</td>
<td>-ith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii)</td>
<td>-o:th</td>
<td>-yath</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suffixes in (i) are added to the consonant ending verb forms and those in (ii) are added to the vowel ending verb forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poruth</td>
<td>poruth</td>
<td>porith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chaluth</td>
<td>chaliv</td>
<td>chajiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>onuth</td>
<td>oniv</td>
<td>oniv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kh’o:th</td>
<td>kheyiv</td>
<td>kheyiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n’u:th</td>
<td>niyiv</td>
<td>niyiv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suffix -v is added to the inflected forms given above for the 1st/3rd person forms to derive the second person plural subject forms. These forms are used for honorific singulars as well.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>porvi</td>
<td>porvi</td>
<td>porvi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cholvi</td>
<td>choliv</td>
<td>chajivi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>onvi</td>
<td>onivi</td>
<td>onivi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kh’o:vi</td>
<td>kheyvi</td>
<td>kheyiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n’uvi</td>
<td>niyivi</td>
<td>niyivi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most intransitive verbs, with few exceptions noted below, agree in person, gender and number with the subject, which is in the nominative case. Some intransitives undergo transitive type morphophonemic changes others do not change. The forms of the intransitive verbs used with the first person subject are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gatsh</td>
<td>‘go’</td>
<td>go:s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In case the subject is second person non-honorific singular, following suffixes are added to the verb stems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-kh -ivi</td>
<td>-akh -ivi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:
- go:kh gayivi gayakh gayivi
- a:kh a:yivi a:yakh a:yivi
- pokukh pakivi pocikkh pacivi
- vothukh vothivi vatshikh vatshivi
- khotukh khativi khatshikh khatshivi

Notice that Remote II forms are different for masculine singulars only in the case of certain verbs. The following suffixes are added to the intransitive verbs in the simple past for deriving their remote forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st/3rd</td>
<td>-yo:s</td>
<td>-e:yvi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>-yak'h</td>
<td>-e:yvi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>-yo:v</td>
<td>-e:yvi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.5.2.3. Future tense

The future tense is formed by adding two types of suffixes: (i) agreeing with the subject in person and number, and (ii) agreeing with the subject in person and number and with the object in number. The gender distinctions are absent in both types. The first type of future is formed by adding the following suffixes to consonant ending verb stems agreeing with the subject in number and person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>-akh</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-an</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following suffixes are added to the vowel ending verb stems:
The second type of suffixes indicate the person and number of the subject as well as the number of the object.

Person  
1st  
2nd  
3rd  

Singular  
-
m  
-kh  
-yi  

Plural  
-mav  
-yi  
-n  

The perfective aspect occurs in three tenses: present perfect, past perfect and future perfect, marked by present, past and future copular forms respectively. The present, past and future forms of the copular verb in the ergative case are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st/3rd</td>
<td>chu</td>
<td>chi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>chuth</td>
<td>chith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Pl.</td>
<td>chuvi</td>
<td>chivi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Past tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st/3rd</td>
<td>a:s</td>
<td>a:s’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>a:suth</td>
<td>a:snath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Pl.</td>
<td>a:sivi</td>
<td>a:sivav</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st/3rd</td>
<td>a:si</td>
<td>a:san</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>a:si</td>
<td>a:si</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Pl.</td>
<td>a:si</td>
<td>a:si</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subject noun/pronoun is used in ergative case. The perfective aspect can be used in the present, past and future reference. Perfective can be used to indicate the situation which has taken place previously leading to the present. Perfective can be used to indicate the result of a past situation.

3.2.5.3.2. Imperfective

The imperfective aspect marker -a:n is added to the main verb stems and the auxiliary verb is inflected for tense, gender, number, person and case. The imperfective aspect reflects progressive present, universal a habitual act. Stative verbs can also be used in the imperfective aspect.

3.2.5.3.3. Progressive

The progressive aspect is expressed by the aspect marker -a:n added to main verb stem. The auxiliary verb is inflected by the tense, gender,
number, person and case markers. Notice that the aspect markers for progressive and imperfect aspect are identical.

1. aslam chu kita:b para:n
   Aslam is book read-pr.
   ‘Aslam is reading a book.’

The progressive aspect is used with active verbs alone. Stative verbs are not used in the progressive aspect. Kashmiri makes a distinction between regular and intermittent habituality (frequentatives). Frequentatives are expressed by compound verb constructions involving perfective or imperfective aspect.

Main verb Explicator
stem + imperfect -a:n a:s ‘be’ + imperfect -a:n

2. sə cha asa:n asa:n
   she is laugh-imperfect be-pr.
   ‘She laugh frequently.’

There are no special aspect markers to express simultaneous aspect. It is expressed by using participial forms as adverbs of the matrix verb. The participial forms are duplicated.

3. aslam chu asa:n asa:n kath/kara:n
   Aslam is laugh-pr laugh-pr talk do-pr
   ‘Aslam talks smiling.’

The aspectual system is subject to certain formal and grammatical constraints. The aspectual imperfective/progressive markers are suffixed to the verb stems. The copular verb ‘be’ is inflected for tense, person, gender and number. The inflected forms of perfective are derived as a result of adding perfective -ə marker to the verb stems. Wherever main verbs and explicators are used, there are co-restrictions on their use. There are other restrictions on grammatical and semantic grounds on the combinations of various aspectual combinations. For example, the following combinations will result in ungrammatical sentences:

   Habitual + completive, Completive + iterative, Progressive + stative verbs, Durative + iterative etc.

3.2.5.4. Mood

Mood is associated with the manner of action indicated by the verb. Moods can be expressed by means of modal verbs and/or auxiliaries. There is no special marking for the indicative mood. It is obligatorily present in simple declarative sentences. It contrasts with other moods such as imperative, and conditional, which are overtly marked.

3.2.5.4.1. Conditional

The conditional markers are added to the auxiliary stem a:s ‘be.’ In the absence of the auxiliary they are added to the main verb. The markers are used along with the aspectual forms of main verbs. The conditional markers are as follows agreeing with the subject in person and number in case of subjectival constructions using intransitive verbs, and also with the object in objectival constructions using transitive verbs (Koul 1977:37):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Subjectival</th>
<th>Objectival</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>1st -iːhaː</td>
<td>1st -iːhaː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>2nd -iːhə:kh</td>
<td>2nd -iːhə:v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>3rd -iːhe:</td>
<td>3rd -iːhə:n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conditional with the auxiliary a:s ‘be’:

1. bi a:s:haː go:mut
   I be-cond. go-pastp.
   ‘I would have gone.’

Conditional without the auxiliary:

2. bi pariːhaː kita:b magar me miij ni read-cond. book but I-dat get-fs neg
   ‘I would have read the book but I couldn’t get it.’

Notice that conditional imperfect/perfect/progressive sentences can be formed without adding the conditional markers to the copular verb, but the sentences become ambiguous between the conditional and the future meaning.

3. su aːsi kita:b le:khaːn
   he be-cond. book write-pr.
   ‘He may be writing a book’ or
   ‘He will be writing a book.’

3.2.6. Non-finite verb forms

The non-finite verb forms are of two types: infinitives and participles. It should be noted here that the non-finite verbal forms are not sensitive to
tense, voice, aspect and mood. The past and present participles forms maintain their aspectual reference.

3.2.6.1. Infinitive

Infinitives are derived by means of the marker -UN added to the verb stem. The stems ending in vowels undergo certain morphophonemic changes. The infinitive marker agrees with the gender and number of intransitive subjects and transitive objects just in case they are in the nominative case. The infinitive does not agree with the oblique arguments. The forms of the marker are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-un</td>
<td>-in’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

| par-       | parun    | parin’    | parini |
| vuch-      | vuchun   | vuchin’   | vuchin |
| di-        | d’un     | din’      | dini   |
| pe-        | p’on     | pen’      | peni   |

3.2.6.2. Participles

3.2.6.2.1. Present Participle

The present participle is marked by the suffix -a:n added to the verb stem. The glide v is inserted if the stem ends in a vowel. The participle does not inflect for gender and number. These markers are carried by the auxiliary which always accompanies the participle in the root clause.

le:kh ‘write’ + a:n = le:kha:n
ce ‘drink’ + va:n = ceva:n

3.2.6.2.2. Perfect Participle

The perfect participle is marked by the suffix mut. It is used to form present, past and future perfect forms of the verb. The marker agrees with the intransitive nominative subject, and with the nominative transitive direct object. The forms of the market are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-mut</td>
<td>-mit’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

| pormut    | par’mit’ | parmit    | parimatsi |
| l’u:kmut   | li:kh’mit’ | li:chmit’ | le:chimatsi |
| du’tmut    | dit’mit’  | ditisms  | ditimsatsi |
| co:mut     | cemit’    | cemits   | cemitsi   |

3.2.6.2.3. Conjunctive Participle

The conjunctive takes the suffix -ith. The suffix stays invariant, unlike the past participle and the infinitive. The negative conjunctive participle is formed by the negative suffix -nay ‘not/without’

1. tan’ ce:yi ca:y akhbar ‘parith
   he-erg drank tea newspaper read-pte
   ‘He drank tea after reading the newspaper.’

The conjunctive participle functions as an adverbial clause and is used to express an act that precedes the main clause act.

3.3. Adverbs

Adverbs may be classified into various subgroups: (a) basic adverbs, (b) derived adverbs, (c) phrasal adverbs, (d) reduplicated adverbs, and (d) particles.

The basic adverbs are either pure adverbs like a: ‘today,’ hame:ši ‘always’ or noun/adjective adverbs. Derived adverbs such as locatives and directional, are formed by adding certain adverbial suffixes to the base form of the demonstrative, relative, correlative, and interrogative pronouns.

The locative adverbs are marked by suffixes such as -til-ten/-tinajas; yetti/yeten/yetinas ‘here,’ hoti/hoten/hotinas ‘there,’ tati/taten/tatinas ‘there,’ kati/katen/katinas ‘where.’ The directional adverbs are marked by the suffix -par: ‘yepa: ‘in this direction,’ hopa: ‘in that direction’ (remote I), tapa: ‘in that direction’ (remote II), kapa: ‘in which direction.’ The manner adverbs are formed by adding the suffixes -thikin’/-pari: ‘thikin’/‘in this manner’

huthikin’/huthipa: ‘in that manner’ (Remote I),
thikin’/thipa: ‘in that manner’ (Remote II)
kithikin’, kithipa: ‘in which manner.’

The phrasal adverbs are formed by adding a simple or a compound postposition to a noun, as follows:
1. treyi reti pati
   three-obl month-obl after
   ‘after three months’

2. parni brõh
   read-inf-obl before
   ‘before reading’

3. duka:nas pati kani
   shop-dat back side
   ‘in the backside of the shop’

Adverbs are reduplicated for showing the intensity and distribution as follows: te:z te:z ‘fast,’ vari vari ‘slow,’ kot kot ‘where,’ kar kar ‘when,’ kuni kuni ‘sometimes’ etc. The reduplicated adverbs may be separated by the negative particles nat as in the phrases kuni nat kuni vizi ‘sometime or other.’ This category of adverbials express indefiniteness The emphatic particle -yo:t can co-occur with an adverb or a noun to render adverbial reading: vakhiy yo:t ‘only/merely time,’ aslamiy yo:t ‘only Aslam,’ etc.

Various overt cases and postpositions such as dative, locative, ablative, and instrumental are employed with a noun to render adverbial reading. For example, subihas ‘in the morning,’ devaras pejh ‘on the wall,’ gar pejh ‘from the house,’ sra:pei sët ‘with the knife,’ etc.

Adverbs may also be grouped by their functional use:

(a) adverbs of time/duration: az ‘today,’ ra:th ‘yesterday’ subhan ‘in the morning,’ etc.,
(b) adverbs of place or direction: andar ‘in/inside,’ nebar ‘out/outside,’
(c) adverbs of manner: a:so:ni: sa:n ‘easily,’ va:ri va:ri ‘slowly,’ etc.,
(d) adverbs of reason: gori bi: kin’ for the reason of poverty,’ kamzor:ri: kin ‘for the reason of weakness,’
(e) adverbs of instrument: kalma sët ‘with pen,’ sra:pei sët ‘with knife’ etc.,
(f) adverbs of purpose: parni ko:trí ‘for reading,’ kami ko:trí ‘for work,’
(g) comitative adverbs: X-as sët ‘with/ in the company of X,’ and
(h) adverbs of degree/intensity: setha ‘very,’ ko:phi: ‘enough,’ ko:li ko:h ‘hardly any,’ laghag ‘approximately,’ etc.

Note that adverbs may be placed in preverbal or postverbal position in a simple clause. They are always optional and do not occupy any fixed position.

4. Syntax

In this section various phrases and sentence types are described. Phrases are described as constituents of different sentences.

4.1. Phrases

There are four major types of phrases in Kashmiri: (a) noun phrase, (b) adjective phrase, (c) adverb phrase, and (d) postpositional phrase. The structure of these phrases is described below.

4.1.1. Noun phrases

A simple noun phrase may consist of a noun, pronoun, or a nonfinite sentential clause. The complex may consist of relative clauses or complex noun phrases. A noun phrase may function as subject, object, or indirect object. It also occurs as a complement of a postposition or as a predicate nominal of a copula. There are no articles in Kashmiri. However, a demonstrative pronoun does at times function as a definite article. There is also an indefinite article suffix -a:/a:h. A noun phrase is modified by an adjective, or a relative clause. Some examples have been given below.

Definite
hu lôdki
‘that boy’

Indefinite
akh lôdka:h
one boy-indef
‘some boy’

Adjective plus noun
nav kita:b
‘new book’

Relative clause plus noun
yus ko:th tse h’otuth su
rel coat you-erg bought that
‘the coat which you bought’
4.1.2. Adjective phrases

An adjective phrase is part of a noun phrase. The adjective phrase may consist of an adjective itself or may expand as a relative clause.

1. yi bød kita:b
   ‘this big book’
2. hum tre bød’ me:z
   ‘those three big tables’
3. yɔs kita:b tami an’ sɔ
   that book she-er me-dat brought-fs that-fs
   ‘the book which she brought’

Adjectives may be modified by adverbs.

4. yi chu setha: bod kul
   this is very big tree
   ‘This is a very big tree.’

4.1.3. Adverbial phrases

Adverbial phrases may consist of simple or derived adverbs, postpositional phrases, or a string of adverbs as exemplified below.

5. šur chu te:z do:ra:n
   child is fast run-pr
   ‘The child runs very fast.’

6. su chu setha: zo:ri zo:ri kathı kara:n
   ‘He talks very loudly.’

4.1.4. Postpositional phrase

A postpositional phrase consists of a noun phrase followed by a postposition. Postpositions can be divided into three types: postpositions that require a dative case on their noun phrase, postpositions that require an ablative case, and those that require no case. Postpositional phrases usually function as adverbs.

7. kita:b cha me:zas pet
   book is table-dat on
   ‘The book is on the table.’

Adjectives may be modified by adverbs.

4.2. Sentence Types

This section describes simple, complex, and compound sentence types. Major simple sentence types are: copular, declarative, imperative, and interrogative. The complex constructions involve subordinate clause(s). The formation of compound sentence is only through coordination.

4.2.1. Simple Constructions

4.2.1.1. Copular sentences

The verb a:sun ‘to be’ is employed in the copular sentences. The copula may take a predicate noun, predicate adjective, or a predicate adverb as a complement. Examples:

1. su chu da:kta:r
   he is doctor
   ‘He is a doctor’
2. sọ cha zi;th
   she is tall
   ‘She is tall.’

3. təm’siniz a:va:z cha mədir
   his/her voice is sweet
   ‘His/Her voice is sweet.’

The copular verb is obligatorily retained in both affirmative as well as negative sentences. In the case of coordinate structures, it is optionally deleted under identity.

4. mohni chu vaki:l / * mohni vaki:l
   Mohan is lawyer
   ‘Mohan is a lawyer.’

5. aslam chu ni da:kta r/* aslam ni da:kta
   Aslam is not doctor
   ‘Aslam is not a doctor.’

6. aslam ti mohni chi da:kta
   ‘Aslam and Mohan are doctors.’

6a. aslam chu da:kta ti mohni ti
    Aslam is doctor and Mohan also
    ‘Aslam is a doctor and so is Mohan.’

6b. na chu aslam vaki:l ti na mohni
    not is Aslam lawyer and not Mohan
    ‘Neither Aslam nor Mohan are lawyers.’

The copula is used for universal truths, existence, definition, identity etc.

7. khədə: chu
   God is
   ‘God exists.’

8. nasi:b chu panun panun
   luck is self self
   ‘One is born with his/her own luck.’

9. poz chu paza:n
   truth is reveal-pr.
   ‘The truth (eventually) comes out.’ or
   ‘The truth cannot be hidden.’

The copula verb always takes a complement. In the sentence (7) the complement does not appear at the surface and is understood as poz ‘true,’ ma:jə:d ‘present’ prath ja:yi ‘every where’ etc.

The copula is also used as a member in the compound verb sequence a:s ‘be’ + khasun/gatshun/sapdun ‘climb/go/become’ which renders the meaning of ‘to become.’

10. azkal chu siriyi jalid khasa:n
    nowadays is sun quick climb-indef
    ‘The sun rises early in the morning these days.’

11. dəh kətə dəh chu gatsən vakhit kruːth
    day more day is going time difficult
    ‘The time is becoming difficult day by day.’

12. azkal cha sapdaːn suliː anigəti
    now-a-days is becoming early dark
    ‘It becomes dark early (in the evening) these days.’

4.2.1.2. Declarative Sentences

In declaratives the finite predicate (auxiliary or a verb) occupies the second position. The first position is usually occupied by a subject but it may also be occupied by other constituents of the sentence best known as topic in a V-2 language.

1. aslaman dits kita:b mohnas raːmini kərə;tri raːth
   Aslam-erg gave book Mohan-dat Ram-gen for yesterday
   gari
   home-abl
   ‘Aslam gave Mohan a book for Ram yesterday at home.’

1a. mohnas dits aslaman kitaːb raːmini kərə;tri raːth gari
1b. raːth dits aslaman gari kitaːb mohnas raːmini kərə;tri
1c. gari dits aslaman raːth mohnas kitaːb raːmini kərə;tri
The constituents following the predicate show a considerable freedom of movement. Declarative sentences can be grouped into three categories on the basis of the classification of verbs: intransitive, transitive, and dative. The subjects may be realized as agents, experiencers (i.e., dative subjects), themes (i.e., passive subjects) or expletive forms. The subjects of most transitives and a few intransitives are marked ergative in the past tense. The subjects are marked dative in the context of a dative predicate. All other subjects are marked nominative.

2. mohn a:v ra:th
   Mohan came yesterday
   ‘Mohan came yesterday.’

3. mohnan d’ut nasi:mas kalam
   Mohan-erg gave Nasim-dat pen
   ‘Mohan gave a pen to Nasim.

4. me a:kh tsi pasand
   I-dat came you-nom like
   ‘I liked you.’

5. palav a:yi ni mi:nini z̄a:riyi chalni
   clothes came-pass neg Meena by wash-in
   ‘The clothes were not washed by Meena.’

6. kita:b parim
   book read- Is
   ‘I read a book.’

7. kita:b ditnas
   book gave-3sg-3s
   ‘He gave her/him a book.’

   Note that a few intransitives such as asun ‘to laugh,’ vadun ‘to weep,’ ladun ‘to quarrel’ take ergative subjects in the past tense (for details of their forms see Koul 1977:43-44).

8. me/asitam’/tami/timav os/vodi/lod
   l/we/he/she/they-er laughed/wept/quarreled
   ‘l/we/he/she/they laughed/wept/quarreled.’

9. tse osuth/voduth/loðuth
   you-erg laughed/wept/quarreled

The intransitive verb natsun ‘to dance’ takes ergative as well as nominative subject

11. bi notsus
    1-nom danced-1

   11a. as’ nats
       we-nom dance

   11b. me/asitam’/tami nots
       I/we/he/she-er danced
       ‘I/we/he/she danced.’

A transitive direct object may also be overt or ‘pro’ form. In the perfective, the direct object is marked with nominative case. In the nonperfective, the case of the pronominal direct object is decided by person hierarchy.

12. sali:man rotus bi
    1sg-erg caught me-ab
    ‘Salim caught me.’

   Perfective ‘pro’ object

13. saliman rotus
    Salim-erg caught-1sg
    ‘Salim caught me.’

   Direct object in the nominative.

14. bi chusath tsi parina:va:n
    I am you-teach-pr
    ‘I am teaching you/him.’

14a. parina:va:n chusath

15. bi chusan su parina:va:n
    I am he teach-pr
    ‘I am teaching him.’

15a. parina:va:n chusan
16. tsi chuhan su parina:və:n
   you are he teach-pr
   ‘You are teaching him.’

16a. parina:və:n chuhan

Direct object in the dative

17. su chu me parina:və:n
    he is me teach-pr
    ‘He is teaching me.’

17a. parina:və:n chum

18. su chu tamis parina:və:n
    he is him-dat teach-pr
    ‘He is teaching him/her.’

18a. parina:və:n chus

The indirect object is always marked dative. The verb inflects for first and third person only if the pronouns are not overtly present. The verb obligatorily inflects for the second person pronoun, which may be optionally deleted.

19. tam’ d’ut me /tamis akhba:r
    he-erg gave me-dat/him-dat newspaper
    ‘He gave me/him a newspaper.’

19a. akhba:r d’utnam/d’utnas
    newspaper gave-3sgps-1sgps/gave-3sgps-3sgp
    ‘He gave me/him a newspaper.’

It is worth mentioning here that weather expressions in Kashmiri fall into two categories. The first type does not have any expletive subject as in (20).

20. ru:d p’av
    rain fell
    ‘Rain fell.’

The second type carries the third person singular pronominal suffix on the verb (20a).

20a. ru:d p’os
    rain fell-3sg
    ‘Rain fell’

Regular weather expression alternative for (21) is (21a).

21. obur khot
    clouds rose
    ‘It has clouded over.’

21a. obur khoru-n
    clouds rose-3s
    ‘X has raised the clouds.’

Note that the third singular suffix -n is also found in some other expressions such as natural processes, natural forces, expressions of health etc. (See Hook and Koul 1987 for details.)

4.2.1.3. Imperative Sentences

The basic imperative is expressed in the unmarked form. There is also a polite form known as precative. Both forms inflect for number. The plural forms are used to express honorific status. The unmarked form is expressed by the verb stem itself.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Veb stem} & \text{Addressee} & \text{Pl./Hon.} \\
\hline
\text{par} & \text{‘read’} & \text{par} \\
\text{an} & \text{‘bring’} & \text{an} \\
\text{di} & \text{‘give’} & \text{di} \\
\text{khe} & \text{‘eat’} & \text{khe} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

1. cit’/ par/pəriv
   letter read/read-hon
   ‘Read the letter.’

2. šuris di/diyiv mîthɑ:y
   child-dat give sweets
   ‘Give sweets to the child.’

In the above examples, the imperative is preceded by a topic element. The verb may stand alone if it is flanked by pronominal objects. The presence of the pronominal objects is indicated by the pronominal suffixes.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Subject} & \text{Object(dative)} & \text{2nd person} & \text{1st person} & \text{3rd person} \\
\hline
\text{Sg.} & \text{Pl.} & \text{Sg.} & \text{Pl.} \\
\text{Singular} & -um & - & -us & -ukh \\
\text{Plural} & -v’u:m & - & -v’u:s & -hu:kh \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
4. ha:vum
   show-1sgps
   ‘Show me.’

4a. ha:v’u:m
   show-1sgps
   ‘Please show me.’

The polite imperative is expressed by the preceptive suffix -i/t’av (sg/pl) as exemplified below.

5. cih’ parti
   letter read
   ‘Read the letter.’

5a. cih’ par’tav
   letter read
   ‘Please read the letter.’

The obligatory imperative, which expresses moral obligation, and duties, is formed by means of the suffix -izi/izev (sg/pl) as shown below

6. cih’ li:khizi/li:khize:
   letter write/please writ
   ‘You should write a letter.’

7. poz vān’zi/vān’ze:
   truth say
   ‘You should tell the truth.’

The imperative may be negated by means of the particle mī. The particle precedes the verb and may be inflected by the preceptive marker t, as exemplified below.

8. po:š mi tsath
   flowers not pluck
   ‘Don’t pluck the flowers.’

9. tse:r mati karti
   delay not do
   ‘Don’t be late.’

4.2.1.4. Interrogative Sentences

Two types of interrogative sentences will be discussed: (a) yes–no questions, and (b) question word questions. Yes-no questions fall into three major categories: (i) neutral, (ii) leading and (iii) alternative questions depending on the answer sought by the interrogator.

Neutral yes-no questions are generally marked by the question marker a:, added to the finite predicate at the end of all inflections. An optional question marker k’a: may also be added to these constructions. k’a: usually occurs in the sentence initial position and throws the verb in the third position.

1. mohnan li:cha: cit?
   Mohan-erg wrote-Q letter
   ‘Did Mohan write a letter?'

Kashmiri maintains its verb second order in yes-no questions, provided k’a: is not counted as the first element. Most V-2 languages do not allow verb second order in such constructions.

2. (k’a:) ts le:khika: az cih’
   you write-fut today letter
   ‘Will you write the letter today?

The negative marker precedes the question marker.

3. ts yakh na: paga:h daphtar?
   you come-fut neg-Q tomorrow office
   ‘Won’t you come to office tomorrow’?

The prohibitive imperative marker mī is placed in the pre-verbal position and is attached with the question marker a:.

4. ts mi gatsh paga:h ba:zar
   you neg-Q go-fut tomorrow marker
   ‘Don’t go to the market tomorrow.

4a. ts ma: gatshakh paga:h ba:zar
   you neg-Q go-fut tomorrow marker
   ‘Are you going to go to the market tomorrow’?

5a. ts ne:rakh ni az
   you leave-fut not today
   ‘You will not leave today.’

5b. (k’a:) ts ne:rakh na: az?
   Q you leave-fut not-Q today
   ‘Won’t you leave today?’
In question-word questions, the question words such as, *kus, k’a:, k’a:zi* ‘who, what, why’ are placed immediately before the finite predicate. Question words may be immediately preceded by a subject or other sentence constituents. Note that no constituent can be placed between a question word and the predicate/verb. The question word may be preceded by one constituent only. All the constituents of a sentence may be questioned:

12. mohnan kamis li:ch ciit’ ra:th daptaras manz?
   Mohan-erg who-dat wrote letter yesterday office-dat in
   ‘Who did mohan write a letter in the office yesterday?’

12a. kom’ li:ch ciit’ ra:th daptaras manz?
    who-erg wrote letter yesterday office in
    ‘Who wrote a letter yesterday in the office?’

In order to question more than one constituent two types of strategies are employed. In the first type all the question words are moved before the finite predicate.

13. mohnan kamis k’a: d’ut ba:gas manz?
   Mohan-erg who-dat what gave garden-dat in
   ‘What are the items Mohan bought for his children?’

13a. kom’ kamis k’a: d’ut ba:gas manz?
    who-erg who-dat what gave garden-dat in
    ‘Who gave what to whom in the garden?’

Multiple reduplicated question words are used in the distributive sense. These follow the single word question word question pattern. The paired elements are always treated as a single unit

14. kom’ kamis k’a: dits ba:gas manz?
    who-erg who-dat what gave garden-dat in
    ‘Who gave what to whom in the garden?’

Alternative questions can be used in the finite subordinate clauses which result in the placement of the verb at the end of the clause.

15. doyimi variyi kus kus yiyi yor?
    next year-abl who who come-fut here
    ‘Next year who will come here?’

16. mohn-an k’a: k’a: h’ot suren hindi khætri
    Mohan-erg what what bought children for
    ‘What are the items Mohan bought for his children?’
4. 2. 1.5. Minor sentence types

Apart from the above mentioned four types of simple sentences there are some minor sentence constructions may be of exclamatory, vocative, and interjection types. Exclamatory sentences are marked by strong intonation or are preceded by exclamatory question words as exemplified below.

1. az ko:ta:h ja:n dōh chu !
   today how good day is
   ‘What a pleasant day it is!’

2. kɔ:tsa:h šɔri:ph ku:r !
   how’s gentle girl
   ‘What a gentle girl!’

3. va:h k’a: bɔ:th!
   Oh what song
   ‘What a song it is!’

Vocative expressions consist of address terms as follows:

4. hayo: nazi:ra:
   o-msg Nazir-voc
   ‘O Nazir!’

5. haye: kuri:!
   o-fsh girl-voc
   ‘O girl!’

6. he: do:sta:/ba:y sa:ba:/ tə:t’h’a:
   o-msg friend/brother/brother-hon/dearone
   ‘O friend/brother/dearone!’

Interjections are usually one word emotive utterences, which express surprise, delight etc. The expressions are: ah, aha:, oh, ša:ba:š, va:h va:h etc.

4. 2. 2. Complex and Compound Constructions

4. 2. 2. 1. Complex Sentences

Complex sentences are formed with the help of one or more subordinate clauses which may be either finite or non-finite. The finite and the non-finite subordinate clauses are described below. Some of the complex constructions involving relative and adverbial clauses are also discussed.

Finite subordinate clauses are linked to the main clause by the subordinator zi/ki which follows the main verb. The word order in the finite subordinate clause follows the root clause V2 pattern.

1. me chu pata: ki/zi təm’ h’ot nov ko:th ba:zri
   I-dat is knowledge that he-erg bought new coat market
   ‘I know that he bought a new coat in the market.’

1a. me chu pata: ki/zi ba:zri h’ot təm’ nov ko:th
   I-dat is knowledge that market-dat bought he new coat
   ‘I know that he bought a new coat in the market.’

The elements of the subordinate may not be moved to the main clause.

1b. * me chu pata: təm’ ki/zi h’ot ba:zri nov ko:th

1c. * me chu pata: təm’ ki/zi ba:zri h’ot nov ko:th.

Finite subordinate clauses may be subjects, objects, or complements of predicates.

Nonfinite subordinate clauses as in the infinitive also function as subjects and objects. The infinitive is inflected for gender, number, and case and is placed in the final position. Infinitival object complements omit the subject of the embedded clause, which is the same as the matrix subject.

2. bi chus yatsh:m mohnas samkhun
   I am want-pres Mohan-dat meet-in
   ‘I want to see Mohan.’

The subject is marked possessive just in case the infinitive is nominalized.

3. təm’sund dili gatshun chu mumkin.
   his Delhi go-inf is possible
   ‘His going to Delhi is possible.’
Question words in the infinitives and nonfinites in general have a scope over the entire sentence and form a direct question. All overt elements of the infinitival clause may be questioned.

4. kamis gayi sali:mas kita:b din’ maštith?
   who-dat did Salim-dat book give-inf forget-past ptcpl
   ‘Who did Salim forget to give the book?’

4a. sali:mas kamis gayi kita:b din’ maštith
    Salim-dat who-dat was book give-inf forget-past ptcpl
    ‘Who did Salim forget to give the book?’

4.2.2.2. Relative Sentences

Relative clauses may be finite or nonfinite. Finite clauses may be correlative or headed type. Relative sentences with finite clauses are marked by the relative pronoun yus and the correlative su which for gender, number and case and show different forms for animate and inanimate nouns.

1. ȳs ku:r dili cha ro:za:n so cha za:vij
   rel girl Delhi-abl is live-prp cor is slim
   ‘The girl who lives in Delhi is slim.’

2. dili (manz) ro:zan va:jen’ ku:r cha za:vij
   Delhi-dat in live-inf girl is very slim
   ‘The girl who lives in Delhi is very slim.’

In the correlative type, the matrix clause follows the relative clause. The head noun usually follows the relative clause but it may also occupy other positions, as shown below.

3a. ȳs ku:r tse pasand chay so ku:r cha me ti pasand
    rel girl you-dat like is cor girl is me too like
    ‘The girl who you like, I like her too.’

3b. [ȳs ku:r tse pasand chay] me ti cha so ku:r pasand
    rel girl you like is me also is she girl like
    ‘The girl who you like, I like her too.’

In the headed relative the head noun immediately precedes the relative clause. In both the correlative and the headed clause, pronouns may be followed by a full lexical noun as exemplified below.

4. so ku:r [ȳs tse pasand chay] cha me ti pasand
   cor girl rel you-to like is is me-to also like
   ‘The girl who you like, I like her too.’

4a. [ȳs ku:r tse pasand chay] so cha me ti pasand
    rel girl you-dat like is cor girl is me too like
   ‘The girl who you like, I like her too.’

All the constituents of a sentence can be relativized in both headed and correlative type relative clauses. In the nonfinite relative clause, the verb is marked with the present participle vun or the past participle MUT.

Both the participles inflect for gender and number. The non-finite form can be used only for subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>-vun</td>
<td>-vin’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>-vin’</td>
<td>-vini’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


9. vuphivun ka:v
   fly-prp crow
   ‘The crow which is flying.’

10. pašas pet h khotmut naphar
    roof-dat on climb-psp person
    ‘The person who climbed the roof.’

An agentive suffix vo:l is used to form nouns of agency. The suffix varies with gender and number as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
<td>Sg. Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vo:l vo:l’</td>
<td>va:jen va:jini</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. [jemi ro:zan vo:l] ladki chu m’o:n do:s
    Jammu-abl live-ptcp-msg boy is my friend
    ‘The boy who lives in jammu is my friend.’

4.2.2.3. Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses may be finite or non-finite. Finite adverbial clauses may be placed before or after the main clause. The adverbial clause places the verb in the final position. The main clause maintains the verb second order. Finite adverbial clauses of time are marked with relative clause time markers.

yeli teli ‘when...then’
yeli yeli teli teli ‘whenever’
yani pethi tani pethi ‘since’
It is important to note that the time markers yeli or yan do not undergo deletion though the coorelative markers tel, tan may do so optionally. The participial constructions also act as time adverbials.

A present participle expresses ongoing action or process. It takes progressive aspect in the subordinate clause.

A verbal noun followed by brōh ‘before,’ pati ‘after,’ peth ‘on’ results in the reading of a time adverbial.

Purpose clauses may be expressed in two ways: (a) infinitival form followed by the ablative marker -i or the oblique form plus the postposition khā:trā/ba:path ‘for’ and (b) the particle tik’a: zi ‘because’ and amikin ‘therefore.’ Consider the following examples:
14a. su gav na:tah vuchini
he went play see-inf-abl for
‘He went to see a play.’

14b. su gav na:tah vuchini khatri/ba:path
he went film see-inf-obl for
‘He went to see a play.’

Notice that in (14a) the ablative marker -i is added to the infinitive form of the verb which expresses the meaning of ‘for.’ In (14b) the ablative marker -i is added before the postposition kha:tri/ba:path ‘for.’ In the above construction, there is an option between the two. In case the verb is not a motion verb the use of ablative marker and the use of postposition is obligatory.

15. me von t mis kita:b parn
I-er said him book read-inf-abl for
‘I told him to read the book.’

15a. *me von ts mis kita:b parn

The coreferential phrases tik’a:zi ‘because’ and amikin’ ‘therefore’ can also be used.

16. tik’a:zi az o:s garim amikin’ go:o ni bi ba:zar
because today was hot therefore went not I market
‘Because it was hot, therefore, I couldn’t go to market.’

Cause is expressed by means of finite clauses marked by tik’a:zi ‘because.’ The cause and effect clauses can be used in interchangeable order.

17. su heki ni parith tik’a:zi su chu mu:r
he able not read-cp because he is illiterate
‘He cannot read, because he is illiterate.’

17a. tik’a:zi su chu mu:di su heki ni parith
‘Because he is illiterate, he cannot read.’

The cause can be expressed by reduplicated present, past and conjunctive participles

18. paka:n paka:n thok su ti b’u:th pathar
walk-ple walk-ple tired he and sat down
‘Walking (constantly) he was tired and sat down.’

Cause can be expressed by means of an infinitive followed by the postposition sit’ ‘with’

19. bi a:s prar’ prar’ tang
I came wait-cp wait-cp sick
‘I got sick of waiting.’

20. dava: khethiy gav su thi:kh
medicine eat-cp-emp went he alright
‘Immediately on taking medicine, he recovered.’

Condition clauses are marked by the conjunction agar ‘if.’

21. šur’ sindi yini sit’ gaiy sa:ri: khôsh
child-obl gen come-inf-obl with went all happy
‘Because of the arrival of the child, all were happy.’

The sequence of ‘if - then’ clause can be reversed as given below.

22. agar ru:d peyi, teli bani ja:n phasal
if rain fall-fu then get good crop
‘If it rains, then the crops will be good.’

22a. teli bani ja:n phasal agar ru:d peyi
‘The crop will be good, if it rains.’

The conjunction marker nati’ ‘otherwise’ also is used in the condition clauses.

23. paga:h yizi jalid nati gatshì bi kunuy zon
tomorrow come-mod-imp soon otherwise go-fu I alone
‘Come early tomorrow, otherwise I will go alone.’

A concession clause is marked by subordinate conjunction markers such as agarci/yodvay ‘although,’ hargâ:h ... to:ti ‘even if,’ k’azi...ni, ‘why, not’.

24. agarci/hargâ:h so setha: omi:r cha, to:ti cha kanju:s
although she very rich is still is miser
‘Although she is very rich, she is a miser.’

25. su k’azi kari ni me zaripa:ri, bi gatshi ni to:r
why do not me beg I go-fu not there
‘Even if he begs me, I’ll not go there.’
The result clause is marked by an oblique infinitive followed by the postposition *ki vaja:h*. In a sentence sequence, the cause is usually given in the first sentence which is followed by another giving the result of it. The second sentence is marked by a phrase *amikin’* ‘therefore’.

26. ru:d peni ki vaja:h h’o:kus ni bi ba:zar gatshith
    rain fall-inf-obl reason able-1s not I market go-cp
    ‘I could not go to market because of the rain.’

27. ra:th o:s ja:n mu:sim, ami kin’ go:s b/G31
tu:hund gar magar toh’/G5C
    yesterday was good weather therefore went I walk-dat
    ‘It was fine weather yesterday, therefore, I went for a walk.’

4.2.2.4. Coordination

Sentence coordination is marked mainly by the morphemes *ti ‘and,’ and magar ‘but’*

1. bi go:s dili ti m’o:n do:s gav jom
   I went Delhi and my friend went Jammu
   ‘I went to Delhi and my friend went to Jammu.’

2. sohni gav tuhund gari magar toh’ asivi ni gari
   Sohan went your home but you were not home-ab
   ‘Sohan went to your home but you were not at home.’

The conjunction marker *ti ‘and’* can optionally be followed by another morpheme *ti ‘also.’*

3. su gatshi paga:h dili ti bi ti gatshi
   he go-fu tomorrow Delhi and I also go-fut
   ‘He will go to Delhi tomorrow and I will also go.’

The alternative conjunction morphemes *ya:...ya: ‘either ... or’* are used, as in the example below.

4. ya: peyi az ru:d ya: peyi az ši:n
   or fall-fu today rain or fall-fu today snow
   ‘Either it rains today or it will snow.’

The misplacement of coordination conjunction morpheme *ti* renders the sentences (1a) and (2a) ungrammatical. Coordination does not merely involve juxtaposition of two or more independent sentences. There are various syntactic and semantic constraints on the construction of coordinate structures. In general, coordinate sentences express contrast, cumulative effect, cause and effect, sequential action etc. The order of the conjuncts is interchangeable if a coordinate sentence expresses contrast or cumulative effect. Consider the following examples of various types of coordinate structures:

3. yi l’adki chu da:na: ti hu l’adki chu be:kil
   this boy is intelligent and that boy is stupid
   ‘This boy is intelligent and that boy is stupid.’

3a. hu l’adki chu be:kil ti yi l’adki chu da:na:
   ‘That boy is stupid and this boy is intelligent.’

4. su chu varziš kara:n ti ša:ras gatsha:n
   he is exercise do-pr and walk-dat go-pr
   ‘He exercises and goes for walk.’

4a. su chu ša:ras gatsha:n ti varziš kara:n

5. tsu:ras laj gu:l’ ti su gave zakhmi:
   thief struck bullet and he was injured
   ‘The thief was hit by a bullet and he was injured.’
5a. *tsu:r gav zakhmi: ti tamis laj gu:l*
   ‘The thief was injured and he was hit by a bullet.’

6. toh’ vuchiv ja:n ku;r ti kariv ne:thir
   you-p see-fu good girl and do marriage
   ‘You find a good girl and get married.’

6a. *toh’ k riv ne:th toh’ vuchiv ja:n ku;r*
   ‘You get married and find a good girl.’

Notice that the sentences (3), and (4) permit the reverse order, but the sentences (5), (6) do not permit it. The coordinate sentences (5) and (6) can be paraphrased to indicate that they are related with subordination process as well.

5b. tsu:r gav gu:l’ lagni si:t’ zakhmi:
    thief was bullet hit-inf-abl with injured
    ‘The thief was injured by a bullet.’

6b. ja:n ku;r vuchith kariv toh’ ne:thir
    good girl find-cp do you marriage
    ‘Please find a good girl and get married.’

In the above sentences the cause and effect, sequential action and contingency is expressed without using the conjunction morphemes. The paraphrases indicate that the first conjuncts of sentences represent adverbial complements of the second conjuncts. The conjunction morpheme ti sometimes fulfills the function of a disjunction as well. The sentence (3) can be paraphrased by using the conjunction morpheme magar ‘but’ as in (3b) below

3b. yi laðki chu gaːtul magar hu laðki chu beːkil
    ‘This boy is intelligent but that boy is stupid.’

Besides conjointing sentences, the coordinating conjunction marker ti can be used to coordinate nouns (subjects, direct and indirect objects), verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The coordination of two noun phrases yields a plural noun phrase and therefore the verb agreement is affected. In case of coordinate subjects, the verb takes a masculine plural concord, whereas in the case of coordinate objects, the verb agrees with the nearest object.

7. me het’ tsːːth’ ti tseːri
   I-er bought-fp apples-m and apricots-
   ‘I bought apples and apricots.’

The disjunctive marker ya: ‘or’ can precede the first as well as subsequent disjuncts.

13. ya: gatshi su dili, ya: gatshi su aːgra:
    either go-fu he Delhi or go-fu he Agra
    ‘Either he will go to Delhi or to Agra.’

The disjunctive markers ya: ‘or’ kini ‘or’ are used to conjoin nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs.
14. majid ya: aslam gatshan jom
Majid or Aslam go-fu Jammu
‘Majid or Aslam will go to Jammu.’

The disjunctive marker ya: ‘or’ can precede any disjoined element or category but not *kini

15. ya: gatshi ši:li ya: ra:m po:$ tsat$ ni
either go-fu Shiela or Ram flow*er pluck-inf-abl
‘Either Shiela or Ram will go to pluck flowers.’

15a. *kini gur te:z paka:n kini var $i vari

Negative disjunction is expressed by substituting a negative particle *na for ya:

16. na kheyi su pa:ni na diyi me kheni
neither eat-fu he himself nor give-fu me eat-inf-abl
‘Neither he will eat himself nor will he let me eat.’

There are various structural constraints in coordination. In general, the members falling in the same class can be conjoined and not those belonging to different classes.

17. *s$ cha khu:bsu:ra$t t$ ku:r
she is beautiful and girl

17a. s$ cha khu:bsu:ra$t ti ga:$ i ku:r
she is beautiful and intelligent girl
‘She is a beautiful and an intelligent girl.’

4. 3. Other Syntactic Constructions

4.3.1. Passivisation

There are two categories of passive constructions: (i) personal passive, and (ii) capabilitive passive. The personal passive is marked by the auxiliary *yun and the ablative form of the infinitive of the main verb. The passive subject of the simple transitive is marked nominative. Certain exceptional verbs such as *la:*yun ‘to beat’ *pra:*run ‘to wait’ that inherently mark their objects in the dative in the active version, retain the dative case on the passive subjects. The passive nominative subject, but not the dative one, agrees with *yun. The former subject is marked genitive followed by the ablative suffix and the postposition *zariyi/das ‘by.’ The postpositional phrase is often deleted.
4.3.2. Negation

Declarative sentences are negated by means of the particle \textit{ni}, which is added to the finite verb after the agreemental and pronominal suffixes.

1. bi chus ni akhba:r para:n
   I am neg newspaper read-ptc
   ‘I don’t read the newspaper.’

Constituents are also negated by adding negative markers such as, \textit{nay}, \textit{ros}, \textit{baga:r}; \textit{var}:\textit{y} all meaning ‘without.’ The suffix \textit{-nay} follows the verb stem, while others require the ablative infinitive form of the verb. Alternatively, they may be added directly to the nominal.

2. mohn gav soku:l kita:bav ros/baga:r/\textit{var}:\textit{y}
   Mohan went school books-abl without
   ‘Mohan went to school without his books.’

The indefinite quantifiers such as \textit{kã:h}, \textit{kê:h}, \textit{kun zã:h} ‘someone, something, ever’ are negated by the normal sentential negation. The indefinite quantifiers in this context are usually marked by empathic particles.

3. t\textit{omis si’th} kari ni kâ:h kath
   he-dat with do-fut neg someone talk
   ‘No one will talk to him.’

4. su kari ni do:stan hindi khâ:tri kêh
   he do-fut neg friends-dat gen for something
   ‘He will do nothing for his friends.’

5. t\textit{om}’ chani zâ:h zindgi: manz cîth’ li:chmîts
   he-erg hasn’t ever life-dat in letter write-ptc
   ‘He has never written a letter in his life.’

6. ši:li gayi ni kun ra:th
   Shiela went neg anywhere yesterday
   ‘Shiela went nowhere yesterday.’

4.3.3. Pronominalization

Pronominalization includes reflexive, reciprocal, pronominal and deletion strategies.

4.3.3.1. Reflexivization

The main reflexive pronoun is \textit{pa:n}, when followed by a postposition, this takes the oblique form \textit{pa:n’}. The emphatic pronoun is \textit{pa:ni}. The emphatic suffix \textit{-ay} may be added to it for extra emphasis. The result is \textit{pa:na:y}. The reduplicated form \textit{pa:n’} \textit{pa:ni} also occurs as an emphatic reflexive. The possessive reflexive form is \textit{pa:nu:n}. The reflexive \textit{pa:n} is usually anteeceded by a subject. The reflexive itself may be a direct, indirect object or a postpositional phrase.

1. mohnan vuch panun \textit{pa:n} \textit{a:nas manz}
   Mohan-er g saw self’s body mirror-dat in
   ‘Mohan saw himself in the mirror.’

2. mohnan von aslamas \textit{pa:nas mutalakh}
   Mohan-er told Aslam-dat self-dat about
   ‘Mohan told Aslam about himself.’

3. vaki:las chu \textit{pa:nas peth} baro:si
   advocate has refle-dat on confidence
   ‘The advocate has confidence in himself.’

4. \textit{pa:nas kor} aslam an \textit{a:ra:m}
   refl-dat did Aslam-er res
   ‘Aslam rested himself.’

The reflexivization may also be controlled by dative subjects.

5. aslamas chu panun \textit{pa:n} pasand
   Aslam-dat has self like
   ‘Aslam likes himself.’

The scope of reflexivity is usually restricted to the clause in which it is used.

6. mohnan von \textit{zi su/* pa:ni va:ti vakhtas peth}
   Mohan said that he/*refl reach-fu time-dat at
   ‘Mohan(i) said that he(i) would reach in time.’

7. mohnan prutsh ki \textit{tã:msiz/*pa:ni} \textit{zana:n kar yi yi}
   Mohan-er asked that his *refl wife when come-f
   ‘Mohan (i) asked when his(i) wife would come.’
The sentences (6) and (7) show that reflexivization does not go down into subordinate clauses. Notice that reflexivization is possible within a nonfinite and a small clause.


Sentence (8) is ambiguous because the reflexive pronoun is co-referential with the subject of the main as well as with the subject of the subordinate clause. In possessive structures, the reflexive form pa:nu:n ‘self’ is used in place of possessive pronouns. It agrees with the following head NP in number and gender. Following are its forms in nominative case:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Sg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>panun</td>
<td>panun’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>panin’</td>
<td>panini</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. bi chus panun/*m’on kamri sa:ph kara:n I-m am refl/*my room clean do-p ‘I am cleaning my room.’

4.3.3.2. Reciprocals

The primary way of expressing the reciprocal relationship is by means of an expression akh akis ‘to one another,’ which is a combination of cardinal akh ‘one’ and its dative case form (akh + is = akis). There is no nominative form of the reciprocal and the dative form is used in its place.

The reciprocal forms can occur only within a clause, which may be simple or nonfinite.

1. timav kor akh akis seta: madath they-er did one another-dat very help ‘They helped each other very much.’

Reciprocals may be used as a direct object, indirect object, postpositional or possessive phrases.

2. tim samikh’ akh akis v:i:riya:hi kə:l’ they-er met one another-dat lot-abl period of time ‘They met each other after a lot of time.’

3. timchi akh akis peth takhsisi r khara:n they are one another-dat on blame placing ‘They accuse/blame each other.’

4. tim chi akh akis peth takhsisi r khara:n they are one another-dat on blame placing ‘They accuse/blame each other.’

5. as’ chi ni akh ak' sund gari gatxa:n we are not one another-poss home go-pr ‘We don’t visit each other’s house.’

Mutual reciprocity is expressed by the use of pa:nivə:n’ mutual:

6. tim chi ni pa:nivə:n’ kath kara:n they are not each other talk do-pr ‘They don’t talk to each other.’

In adverbial clauses the pronoun may be optionally deleted.

7. [yeli /su(i) ba:zar gav] sohan(i) h’ats pa:na:n kitsh tə:p’ rel the market went Sohan bought-fsg refl-dat for cap ‘When he (i) went to the market, Sohan (i) bought a cap for himself.’

7a. [yeli sohan ba:zar gav] o pa:na:n kitsh hets tə:p’ ‘When Sohan went to market, (he) bought a cap for himself.’


In a narrative text or natural discourse, deletion is used very frequently to refer to a previous coreferent.
The Kashmiri Language and Society

1. Introduction

Language and society are closely related. The relationship can be studied in two ways: (i) use of language in society and (ii) sociology of language. Keeping in view the main theme of the volume, it would be relevant and of interest to study the relationship between the Kashmiri language and society from the point of view of the use of language in Kashmiri society. However, certain remarks will be made with respect to the sociology of language. Without going into theoretical aspects of sociolinguistics, we will confine our description and analysis to certain linguistic characteristics of Kashmiri, issues related to its development with special reference to its use in different domains, its standardisation and modernisation. Language is a strong mark of social and ethnic identity in its natural environment. Language identity faces challenges in a situation where the speakers of a particular language group move out of its natural environment to a distant land as a result of socio-economic and political factors. We will point out certain social parameters of the language with special reference to language identity, language loss and language maintenance of Kashmiri by emigrant or displaced children.

Language reflects the society as clearly as the society is reflected in it. To illustrate this point, it would be necessary to make special references to the linguistic characteristics of personal names, surnames and nicknames of Kashmiri. They reflect the socio-cultural, religious, and linguistic patterns of the society. Most of the personal names in Kashmiri represent two main religious streams. Besides some genuine surnames, a large number of surnames and nicknames have developed by the local influences and common socio-cultural patterns characterising Kashmiri society. Well-defined religious boundaries do not seem to have a role in them. Kashmiris are very productive in the coinage of names and nicknames and, perhaps, it is the strong texture with which the concept of Kashmiri is woven. Similarly, in a day-to-day communicative situation, the use of kinship terms, modes of address and modes of greetings represent socio-cultural milieu of Kashmiri society. They are illustrated with special reference to their use. They have an important place in the use of language in society and sociology of language.

2. Language Development

The concept of Language Development or the Development of a Language is usually discussed with reference to the languages of the developing or third world countries. However, the language development may not necessarily be related to the economic development of a country. The models of the development may also vary and need not be universal. The process of development of a language has attracted the attention of different linguists and language planners lately. There is a broad consensus that the process of the development of a language must take care of three main aspects of the language: Graphisation or script, standardization, and modernization. Language planners have discussed the models of the language development with reference to different languages. These three major aspects form the part of the discussion about development with reference to all languages. Though the process of the development of Kashmiri continues at a slow pace, there has been no serious attempt to discuss the issues involved. Here, we will review the efforts made in the area of language development of Kashmiri; and discuss some of the main issues involved in this area.

Language development primarily involves two aspects related to language planning: Corpus planning and Status planning. It is important to keep in view the existing situation of the Kashmiri language, its spatial dimensions, and its use in different domains. The issues involved in the language development cannot be studied in isolation of these facts. We will briefly present an overview of the Kashmiri language and discuss the issues related to its development.

Language Development is directly related to the use of the language in different domains. Though all the languages develop as a natural process, it is only the human interruption, which makes the languages develop in a planned manner. In order to channelise the development process, one has to keep in mind its different uses. The primary uses of a language are in the areas of education, mass media, and administration.

2.1. Use of Kashmiri in Administration

Kashmiri, though spoken by the dominant majority of people in the valley, has never been used as an official language in its home state i.e., Jammu and Kashmir. Persian was introduced as the official language during the Muslim rule beginning the 14th Century, which was later replaced by Urdu, another non-native language, in 1907, which continues as the official language even after independence.
Kashmiri was listed as one of the major Indian languages in the VIII Schedule of the Constitution of India. Keeping in view the multilingual character of the country, all the states had the freedom to use any of the major regional languages as the official languages in administration. As expected, most of the states chose languages of their respective regions as the official languages and made provision for their effective use in administration. The state of Jammu and Kashmir decided to continue the use of Urdu as the official language in the state.

Keeping in view the multilingual character of the State, the Constitution of the Jammu and Kashmir state recognizes seven languages spoken in the State: Kashmiri, Dogri, Ladakhi, Hindi, Urdu, Punjabi and Gojri. It is the duty of the state to develop all these languages. The major native languages are Kashmiri, Dogri and Ladakhi. In the three regions of the state, Kashmiri is spoken in the valley of Kashmir, Dogri in the Jammu region, and Ladakhi in the Ladakh region. Kashmiri, though spoken by the majority of population in the state, is not even made an associate official language.

With a higher rate of illiteracy in the State, it is appropriate to use Kashmiri in administration in the valley where it is spoken natively. Kashmiri is not used in administration even at lower levels. All the official communications are recorded in Urdu, a non-native language. The government officials have to communicate with the people at the grassroots level as effectively as possible. This cannot be done through an alien language. Therefore, there has been a strong movement in favour of the use of Kashmiri in administration in the valley at all the lower levels (Koul and Schmidt 1983).

**2.2. Use of Kashmiri in Education**

Kashmiri has a limited role in education in the state of the Jammu and Kashmir. Immediately after the independence of the country, it was introduced as a subject of study in primary schools in the Kashmir valley; but its teaching was discontinued in 1955 under the excuse of reducing the ‘language load’ of children in schools. Urdu continued to be used in its dominant role in education. It continues to be a compulsory subject of study in schools and also is the medium of instruction at the school level. Hindi was allowed to be used in these roles as an alternative in the Jammu region.

As a result of the language movement in favour of Kashmiri and efforts made by the educationists at the highest level, a department of Kashmiri was set up at the University of Kashmir. Kashmiri was introduced as a subject of study at the post-graduate level in the University of Kashmir in the early seventies. To begin with it offered a post-graduate diploma course in Kashmiri and later switched over to regular Masters, M.Phil and Ph.D courses. There has been an encouraging enrollment in these courses.

Recent years have witnessed a language movement in favour of the use of Kashmiri in education in the valley. Intellectuals, literary organisations and educationists have been raising their voice in favour of the use of Kashmiri in education. As a result of this, Kashmiri was introduced as a subject of study in some colleges in the valley and as an optional subject in the secondary schools. Kashmiri is yet to be made a compulsory school subject in schools in the valley, though there is a great demand for it. According to a sociolinguistic survey of Kashmiri (Koul and Schmidt 1983), most of the people favour the use of Kashmiri as a medium of instruction in elementary schools; and also for the teaching of Kashmiri as a school subject right from the primary to the University level. As far as its use in education is concerned, the following areas need immediate attention:

1. Kashmiri is to be provided a place in the school curriculum as a compulsory school subject in the valley where the majority speaks it natively. This would require the preparation of basic textbooks in this language.
2. Kashmiri is to be used as the medium of instruction up to the primary level in the valley. This would involve the preparation of textbooks of all the subjects thorough this medium.

**2.3. Use of Kashmiri in Mass Media**

Kashmiri has a limited role in mass media. The setting up of Radio Kashmir in the state after independence has played a prominent role in the use of Kashmiri in radio broadcasts. Kashmiri was used as a medium of news and feature broadcasts on the Radio. It encouraged the creative writers and scholars in Kashmiri to write in Kashmiri. It resulted in the development of prose genre and boosted the literary activities in the language. The Srinagar Doordarshan has enhanced the role of Kashmiri in the electronic media. The survey of the use of Kashmiri in the electronic media has shown the popularity of the programmes. There is a demand for increase in the timings for the broadcast and telecast of programmes in Kashmiri on Radio and television.
There is limited use of Kashmiri in the print mass media. No daily newspaper is published in the language. Some weekly newspapers keep on appearing periodically and disappearing after a short while. The government of the state has not made an effort to provide support to these publications. The government of India does bring out a fortnightly periodical entitled Pragash. It has a limited circulation. Some other periodical journals like Shiraza (published by the J & K Academy of Art, Culture of Languages), Anhar (published by the University of Kashmir) and Basvath are published more or less regularly. Similarly, there are Kashmiri sections in the college magazines published occasionally. The publications of some other journals like KONG Posh have not survived for long. Outside the valley of Kashmir, Koshur Samachar - a socio-cultural journal of Kashmiri Sahayak Samiti, Delhi, Aalav, Bangalore and Kshir Bhavani - a journal of Kashmiri Pandit Association Jammu, do have Kashmiri sections. They publish articles and literary pieces in Kashmiri in the Devanagari script. There has been no policy regarding the development of journalistic writings in the Kashmiri language. The technical vocabulary used in the journalistic broadcasts/telecasts and writings are primarily based on the Urdu phrases and vocabulary.

Thus, the use of Kashmiri in mass media has not attracted favorable attention so far. It has a limited use in the electronic media including Radio, TV, films etc. The use of Kashmiri in the electronic media has to improve both, in quality as well as quantity. Kashmiri has a very limited use in the print media. The language cannot develop fully unless it is widely used in different kinds of mass media. The state has to decide about the policy regarding its use in the mass media.

In the absence of a clear policy of the government of the state, the problems of the development of Kashmiri, with special reference to its use in education, mass media and administration will continue. No language can be developed in isolation of its use in different domains. These challenges are to be addressed by the language planners.

3. Standardization

There is a scope for standardisation of the Kashmiri language at different levels. The problem of the standardisation of the script is a prominent one. No serious efforts have been made in this direction so far. Several scripts are being used for writing Kashmiri. The major ones are: Sharada, Devanagari, Roman and Perso-Arabic. The question of the standardisation of the script is directly related to the question of its being able to represent all the speech sounds and other phonetic characteristics of the language. The Kashmiri language has certain speech sounds, which are not found in other Indo-Aryan or other neighboring languages. For example Kashmiri has two short and two long central high and mid vowels: /i/, /i:/, /a/ and /a:/, and dental affricates: /ts/ and /tsH/ which are not found in other neighboring languages. Similarly, palatalisation is an important feature of Kashmiri. These peculiar sounds and phonetic characteristics need to be represented in the script to be used in Kashmiri.

The original script of Kashmiri is Sharada. Old manuscripts are available in this script. This script has become obsolete now, and has a restricted use. It is used in writing of horoscopes by Kashmiri Pandits. This script does not represent the signs for all the sounds and other phonetic characteristics of Kashmiri. No special diacritic signs are being used to represent the peculiar sounds of Kashmiri.

The use of Roman for Kashmiri started with the European scholars who transliterated certain texts from Kashmiri into this script. It is widely used in citing the original literary pieces in the works related to literature; and also in the language data in the linguistic works related to the language written in English. No standardisation in the use of the Roman script for Kashmiri has taken place so far. Different scholars have used different diacritic signs for representing the sound system of the Kashmiri language. The Roman script continues to be used in citing data from Kashmiri in the books written in English related to Kashmiri language and literature. In linguistic studies, there is a convention of using Roman phonetic script. Different scholars are using different types of conventions not similar to those suggested in the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) to facilitate easy printing. Though the pace of the linguistic works in Kashmiri is quite slow, there is a need for standardising the Roman phonetic symbols for representing the speech sounds and other phonetic characteristics of the language.

The Devanagri script is mostly used in the research works related to the Kashmiri language carried out in Hindi for the citation of the data from Kashmiri. It is also used in certain Hindu religious texts, and in a few periodicals like Koshur Samachar, Aalav etc. The Devanagari script requires modifications for writing Kashmiri texts. Different types of additional diacritics are used to represent the peculiar speech sounds of Kashmiri. The diacritics suggested by the Central Hindi Directorate in their Parivartit Devanagri have undergone various changes. The signs are not uniformly used in the printing of the Kashmiri text. Efforts are on to reach a consensus on it. Under a proposal of Government of India, the Northern Regional Language Centre conducted a workshop for the standardisation of the Devanagri script for Kashmiri. Based on the
recommendation of the workshop, Penfosys, Pune have prepared a software which is now to be used in the publications using the Devanagari script. The official script of the Kashmiri language recognised by the Jammu & Kashmir Academy of Art, Culture and Languages is based on the Perso-Arabic script using additional diacritic marks for representing certain peculiar characteristics of the Kashmiri language. The additional diacritic marks have been suggested for writing Kashmiri vowels and consonants and for representing the phonetic characteristics of palatalization of the language. This script is widely used in the publications of the Academy and other private and governmental publications. There are still inconsistencies found in the use of these signs. The recommendations made earlier are not followed strictly. Koul (1996) has suggested certain measures for the standardization of the use of the Perso-Arabic script for Kashmiri. The conventions of the script need to be reviewed for bringing in the uniformity so that the script represents the characteristics of the language.

3.1. Standard variety

As pointed out above, there are certain dialectical (both geographical and social) variations in the Kashmiri language. Kashmiri spoken in and around Srinagar has somehow attained the status of the standard variety. The speakers of other regions tend to switch over to this variety in their use in formal situations and interpersonal communication with the speakers of the standard variety. The variations are mostly reflected in the spoken variety. They are almost non-existent in the written domain of the language. The mass media and the publishers of literary books are playing an important role in the standardisation of the grammatical forms and structures. We do not however have adequate publications in different areas to standardise the use of Kashmir in different technical and scientific domains. Keeping in view the limited use of Kashmiri in different domains, no serious efforts have been made so far in this area.

4. Modernisation

With the fast development in the areas of Science and Technology, it is imperative that the language be an effective vehicle for transmitting knowledge, skills, and disseminating information in these areas. Only a limited number of publications are available in the domain of science and technology. Modernisation of the language would demand the preparation of technical vocabulary and phrases to be used in the scientific and technical texts. No effort has yet been made to develop these special registers of the language. It has been a usual practice to adapt the forms used in Urdu according to the phonetic characteristics of the language.

5. The role of Institutions

The development of Kashmiri has not become a strong movement at the level of institutions so far. Only a limited number of institutions have played some role and are indirectly involved in the development of the language in different ways. Prominent among them are the Jammu and Kashmir Academy of Art Culture and Languages, University of Kashmir, Central Institute of Indian Languages etc.

The Jammu and Kashmir Academy of Art, Culture and Languages was established in the fifties and is charged with the responsibility of promoting all the languages which are listed in the Constitution of the Jammu and Kashmir State i.e. Kashmiri, Urdu, Hindi, Dogri, Gojri and Ladakhi. The Academy has made a significant contribution by bringing out quite a few books in the Kashmiri language. The Academy has prepared and published Kashmiri and Urdu-Kashmiri dictionaries in seven volumes each, and two volumes of a Kashmiri encyclopedia so far. The Academy provides subsidies to the authors and voluntary organisations for the publication of their books and also awards prizes for the books. It is due to the financial help provided by the Academy that certain books, especially anthologies of Kashmiri literature, have been brought out.

The Academy also brings out a bi-monthly journal entitled Shiraza, and an annual volume entitled Soon Adab, in Kashmiri. Both of these have devoted special issues to certain important themes. The Department of Kashmiri of the University of Kashmir has made a significant contribution to the use of Kashmiri in education, and the preparation of some basic text and reference materials in this language. The Department offers regular courses for Master’s and M. Phil degrees, and provides facilities for the doctoral research in this subject. The department brings out a journal entitled Anahar in this language. A large number of volumes of this journal has been devoted to different themes related to Kashmiri language and literature. The Department has also prepared and published different text materials, which are used as text, and supplementary materials for teaching Kashmiri as a first language.

The Government of Jammu & Kashmir do not have any department devoted to the development of a language or languages, similar to ones in different states. Most of other states have Language Departments and/or Textbook Boards devoted to the promotion of the language or languages of the state, and their use in education and administration.
The Government of India promotes all the languages especially those listed in the VIII Schedule of the Constitution of India. The Govt. of India has been providing funds to different states for the development of the languages, preparation and publication of textbooks, preparation of scientific and technical glossaries, etc. The government also provides financial assistance for the publication of manuscripts, and makes bulk purchase of books in Kashmiri as in other languages. The government of India under this scheme has supported a limited number of projects.

The Central Hindi Directorate has also brought out Hindi-Kashmiri bilingual and Hindi-Kashmiri-English trilingual dictionaries. They have a very limited circulation. They are useful for the second language learners of Kashmiri.

Kashmiri is taught as a second language to the in-service teacher trainees in the Northern Regional Language Centre of the Central Institute of Indian Languages since 1971. A limited number of the teacher trainees trained in this language at the Center are teaching this language in their respective schools. Teaching of Kashmiri as a second language necessitated the preparation of instructional materials in Kashmiri suitable for second language teaching. The CIIL has prepared and published both text as well as supplementary materials for teaching of Kashmiri as a second language. There is a need for the preparation of additional need-based materials for teaching this language in the second language situation. There are no learners’ dictionaries and other reference materials prepared and published in this language suitable for a second language teaching and/or learning situation.

As compared to other major languages listed in the VIII Schedule of the Constitution of India, the development of Kashmiri has not been given proper attention due to various reasons. Kashmiri does not have prominent roles in the domains of education and mass media in its home state. It is also not used in the administration in the valley. The efforts made by certain state and central government institutions, autonomous and voluntary organisations have not been sufficient to develop this language. The problems regarding its standardization and modernization can be resolved only after Kashmiri is provided a proper role in education, mass media and administration. It is only after these roles are specified; that the steps to be taken for the development of this language will be meaningful.

6. Social Parameters

Language is primarily used as a vehicle of communication by its speakers in a society. It is a strong mark of social and ethnic identity of an individual, a group of individuals and a particular society as a whole. Language identity is a part of a social and ethnic group identity in its natural environment where the language is spoken natively. It is diluted in a situation where various linguistic groups are involved in inter-communication. Language identity confronts challenges in a situation where the speakers of a particular language group have to move out of its natural environment to a distant land as a result of any socio-economic and political factors. Deliberate efforts need to be made to maintain this identity. In the case of Kashmiri, the migrants or displaced persons from the Kashmir valley who have either voluntarily migrated or where forced to do so and have settled down in the Jammu region of the state or other parts of India or abroad are facing challenges in maintaining the language.

A sociolinguistic survey (Koul 1997) conducted for the language maintenance and language loss of Kashmiri migrant children in Jammu and Delhi in the age group of 10-20 reveals certain facts as follows:

(i) The use of Kashmiri is mainly confined in the oral communication at home between the elders and its use has decreased to 50% in the communication between elders and children in Jammu and to 20% in Delhi. Children prefer to use Hindi and English at home.

(ii) The children do not use Kashmiri even with other Kashmiri children or teachers in schools. It is only in the special schools meant for migrant Kashmiri children in Jammu, Kashmiri is occasionally used in oral communication.

(iii) The children do not listen to Kashmiri music or radio programmes, and do not watch TV programmes in Kashmiri even if there is an opportunity.

(iv) The children do not read or write in Kashmiri. About 10% informants reported that they read Kashmiri in the Devanagri script.

(v) The children in Jammu have better opportunities in maintaining Kashmiri in their families than in Delhi. The reason being that most of them live in the cluster of houses/camps where they come in contact with other native speakers of Kashmiri.
(vi) Educated parents prefer to use English and Hindi in communicating with their children.

(vii) The parents prefer to send their children to English medium schools.

The survey also brought out that Kashmiri is maintained to a large extent by parents and other older respondents in their family domains. They have very rare opportunities in using the language in other social domains involving other members of the same language community. Kashmiri is not used in the work environment.

The tests conducted for assessing the language loss indicate that there is a loss of vocabulary related to the culture-bound items, food items, typical Kashmiri household items, architecture and environment which are not now in use outside the valley of Kashmir. Similarly, the children do not understand and use idioms, proverbs, and literary terms in Kashmiri.

The results of the survey suggest that the maintenance of Kashmiri among the younger generation is under a serious threat. There is a continuous decline in its use outside the valley. In the absence of its use in education and other economic activities, special efforts need to be made by the parents, Kashmiri community and other agencies to ensure its maintenance in the family and some social domains as far as possible.

Though the Kashmiri language is not used adequately in education, administration and mass media in the Kashmiri valley, maintenance of Kashmiri as a spoken language in domestic and social domains is not under immediate threat. The maintenance of the Kashmiri language by the younger generation outside its natural environment is fast declining. This will certainly result in deepening the identity crisis of the Kashmiri community settled outside the valley in future.

7. Conclusion

Though included in the VIII Schedule of the Constitution of India, Kashmiri is not even recognised as an associate official language in its home State for its use in administration. It has a primary role in day-to-day communication by its native speakers. The lack of adequate patronage of the language at the political and social levels has hampered its development. The language does suffer from the lack of standardisation especially in the use of Perso-Arabic and Devanagri scripts used for writing it. Its insufficient use in education and mass media is responsible for the lack of modernisation. Its adequate use in administration, education and mass media will ensure its development, standardisation and modernisation.

As other languages and concerned societies, the Kashmiri language and society too are very closely related. The language reflects the socio-cultural patterns, ethos, values, beliefs etc. of the people who speak it natively. Its speakers fall into two religious streams: Muslims and Hindus. There are minor dialectical variations in the speech of the two communities. The variations are mutually intelligible and can be termed as different styles of speech. There are certain regional and social dialects, which show variations primarily at the phonological and lexical levels. The socio-semantic variations do not hamper the communication between the people belonging to different areas and social stratification. The use of personal names, surnames, nicknames, kinship terms, modes of address and modes of greetings show that the language represents the social and cultural patterns of the Kashmiri society. The Kashmiri society is adequately reflected in the use of Kashmiri language in its various domains.
Personal Names

1. Introduction

The study of personal names including surnames and nicknames in Kashmiri has not received adequate attention so far. Some earlier works (Lawrence 1895, Anand Koul 1924, R.K.Koul 1982) have made some direct or indirect references to the subject from different points of view. No attempt has been made to compile the data and study the subject from linguistic point of view.

Besides socio-cultural and religious parameters, linguistic factors must form an important aspect of the discussion of names, surnames and nicknames of any language or region. In this paper, an attempt is made to present a brief description of personal names including surnames and nicknames of Kashmiri. Wherever necessary, the description related to Hindu and Muslim personal names, is provided separately. Certain common characteristic of these names especially surnames and nicknames too are pointed out.

2. Personal Names

A personal name, also called ‘given’ or ‘Christian’ name, is the name given to a child after its birth. The naamakaran (name giving) ceremony, known under other names as well, is very common among various Indian societies. Lawrence (1895) has mentioned that a Kashmiri Hindu child received its name at the ceremony of sondar (the ceremony for bathing the mother and the child on the seventh day of the birth of the child). Though the ceremony of šran-sondar is still performed, but it is not necessary to give a name to child on that very day. A child is normally given an affectionate nickname by elders soon after its birth and the personal name is given later either by parents or other elder relatives.

In ancient times, most of the Kashmiri Hindu names were after the names of gods and goddesses. Some names were after the names of places, names of animals and birds, and names of the objects of nature: sun, moon, stars, mountains, rivers etc. Whereas, in some Indian societies there has been a tradition of giving secret names to the child, besides its official name, this practice has never been adopted by Kashmiris.

3. Structure of Hindu names

3.1. Ancient Hindu names

Samples of personal names of ancient Kashmiri Hindus are preserved in the Sanskrit texts in Sanskritic forms. We get a reference to a number of non-Aryan Naga names in the Nilamata Puran, which were prevalent among Kashmiri Hindus. These names also appear Sanskritized: Ajkarna, Ashvakarna, Darimukha, Oran, Rocan, Hari, Nartani, Gayan, etc.

The personal names of Kashmiri Hindus in ancient and medieval periods were mostly of single word structure. These are preserved in their Sanskritized form in the old Sanskrit literature and other texts written in or on Kashmir. There is no evidence available regarding their actual pronunciation by the native speakers of Kashmiri.

1. Males
Abhinanda, Avanda, Avantivarmana, Bhaskara, Bilhana, Bhuumka, Cakarpala, Chandraka, Damodara, Dharmsoka, Cananda, Jonaraaja, Kalphana, Kanaka, Kshemendra, Laalla, Mammatta, Mankha, Pravarsena, Kalhana, Randitya, Budrata, Shamblu, Srivar, Syamala, Sankuku, Sivaswami, Tilaka, Udhhata, Yamana, Vasudeva, Vijayapala, Yashke.

2. Females
Amritlekhaa, Anjanaa, Bapikaa, Bhinnaa, Bijjaa, Bimbaa, Candala, Candrii, Diddaa, Devlekhaa, Omadevii, Hamsii, Iraavatii, Indraa, Jayadevii, Jayalakshmii, Jayamatii, Kamalaa, Kayaa, Kshmaa, Lothitaa, Kanjarikaa, Maghavatii, Nonikaa, Nnaagaa, Nagalataa, Padmasrii, Sahjaa, Sammaa, Sharadaa, Shirelkhaa, Suyyah, Uddaa, Vallabhaa, Yasomatii, etc.

3.2. Early Modern Meriod

Since the late nineteenth century the structure of Kashmiri Hindu personal names has undergone various changes. There were mainly two developments: (1) Personal names derived from Sanskrit and of non-Aryan origin have been Kashmirized in both form and pronunciation, and (2) Single-word personal names became less frequent and they were replaced by two-term or compound personal names.

3.3. Borrowed Personal names

The Sanskrit and Perso-Arabic borrowed personal names in Kashmiri
have undergone various phonological changes to confirm to the phonetic and phonological structure of Kashmiri in their spoken usage, but usually maintained their spelling system as per the original written conventions:

(i) The diminutive mono-syllabic or disyllabic personal names are formed by adding /-i/ suffix to the roots:


(ii) The voiced aspirated stops /bh/, /dh/, /gh/ in Sanskrit borrowed personal names are replaced by voiceless stops /b/, /d/, and /g/ respectively:

- bhu:šan > bu:šni Bhusan
- raghu > rəgi Raghu

(iii) The uvular stop /q/, fricatives /f/, /G/, and /x/ in the Perso-Arabic borrowed personal names are replaced by velar stop /k/, bilabial stop /ph/, velar stops /g/ and /kh/ respectively:

- qa:dir > kə:dir Qadir
- šari:f > šari:ph Sharif
- Gula:m > gəla:m Ghulam
- xəzir > khəzər Xazar

(iv) The consonant clusters in the final position are split up by intrusive vowels:

- farz > phariz Farz
- fazi > phazəl Fazil

(v) The vowels /a/ and /a:/ change to /ə/ and /ə:/ respectively when followed by a constant and a vowel /i/ or /i:/.

- ka:ši: > kə:ši: Kashi
- nazi:r > nəzi:r Nazir
- a:sif > ə:səph Asif

(vi) The vowel /u/ change into /o/.

- gun > gən Gun
- Gula:m > gəla:m Ghulam
- sukh > səkh Sukh

(vii) The semivowel /y/ is added in the initial position of the borrowed personal names beginning with the front vowel /i/ or /i:/.

- imra:n > yimra:n Imran
- i:šar > yi:šar Ishar

(viii) The semivowel /v/ is added in the initial position of the borrowed personal names beginning with the back vowels /u/ and /o/.

- omka:r > vəmka:r Omkar
- umar > vumar Omar/Umar

(ix) The vowel /o:/ is replaced by /u:/. The terms /a:/ and /a:/ change to /ə/ and /ə:/ respectively when followed by a constant and a vowel /i/ or /i:/.

- ka:ši: > kə:ši: Kashi
- nazi:r > nəzi:r Nazir
- a:sif > ə:səph Asif

3.4. Compound Hindu personal names

In the formation of compound personal names, a set of definite second member morphemes is used along with the first names. There are co-occurrence restrictions in their usage. Very common second member morphemes used in compound personal names of males are: ra:m (Ram), cand (Chand), da:s (Das), ka:kh (Kakh), na:th (Nath), la:l (Lal), krišin (Krishen), and kuma:r (Kumar). The terms ra:m and ka:kh are added to the diminutive first names only. The terms na:th, cand, da:s, krišen and kuma:r are the second member terms used in names borrowed from Hindi. The term la:l is used with some diminutive first names as well as their Hindi complete forms borrowed in Kashmiri. Following are the examples of their usage:

1. ra:m (Lord Rama):

2. cand (< candr 'moon')
   tara: (< tara:) 'star') cand (Tara Chand), kriśin
   (< kriśin 'Lord Krishna') cand (Krishen Chand), ra:m ('Lord
   Ram') cand (RamChand), amar (< amar 'immortal') cand (Amar
   Chand).
2. da:s ('servant')
   kriśin (< kriśen) da:s (Krishen Das), ṭho:kur (< ṭha:kur 'lord') da:s
   (Thakur Das).
3. ka:kh ('uncle')
   It is frequently used as an honorific mode of address for addressing one's
   uncles or elder brothers and/or cousins by Muslims). It is used as an
   honorific term mostly with elderly males for whom respect is intended
   like the following names:

   gu:vind/gō:di (< Govind) ka:kh, dayi (< daya:) ka:kh, śavi (< śiva)
   ka:kh, siriyi (< su:riya 'sun') ka:kh, nā:thi (< nā:th) ka:kh, iśi (<
   i:śvar) ka:kh, ga:Śi (< ga:Ś light') ka:kh, prasa:di (< prasad) ka:kh,
   mahi:Śar/mahi (< mahēśvar) ka:kh, tā:ra:kh (< tarak 'stars') ka:kh,
   sarvi ka:kh, a:nand (< a:nand 'pleasure') ka:kh, sīkhī (< sahaj
   'simple') ka:kh, labi (< la:bh 'profit') ka:kh, lakh'man (< lakśman
   ka:kh.
4. na:th ('lord' or 'master')
   This term is very frequently used with the Hindi names from early
   twentieth century. This second name term is used with the following first
   names:

   bri:ji/bri: (< braj 'Lord Krishna's birth place'; Krishna is called 'Lord
   of Braj' as well) na:th (Brij/Braj Nath), v:mi/vomkār (< omkār)
   na:th (Omkar Nath), dā:ji/dor:ga: (< durgā: 'Goddess Durga') na:th
   (Durga Nath), dā:ri/dor:ka: (< d:rika: 'Dwaraka', Lord Krishna is
   called 'Lord of Dwaraka') na:th (Dwaraka Nath), jā:ni/ja:ni: (< ja:nakī
   'Sita') na:th (Janki Nath), hedi/heday (< hriday 'heart') na:th
   (Hriday Nath), ka:la:Ś (< kaila:Ś 'Kailash mountain'; the Kailash
   mountain is abode of Lord Shiva) na:th (Kailash Nath), pra:y/prayem
   (< pre:m 'love') na:th (Prem Nath), gu:pi/gu:pi: (< go:pi: 'beloved of
   Lord Krishna') na:th (Gopi Nath), mohi:Śar (< mahēś 'Lord Shiva')
   na:th (Maheshar Nath), trey:ti/trey:li:ki: (< trilo:ki 'the universe') na:th

   (Som/Soom Nath), śombi/śombu: (< śambhu: 'Lord Shiva') na:th
   (Shambu Nath), jagi/jagar (< jag 'world') na:th (Jagar Nath), prathi:
   (< prathivī 'earth') na:th (Prithvi Nath), di:n/di:na: (< d:n
   'poor') na:th (Dina Nath), ra:de: (< ra:dha: believed of Lord Krishna)
   na:th (Rahde Nath), arzan (< arjan) na:th (Arjan Nath) ba:Śkar (<
   bha:Śkar 'sun') na:th (Bhaskar Nath), ka:Śi: (< ka:Śi: - a holy place
   for pilgrimage, another name for Banaras) na:th (Kashi Nath), po:Śi:
   po:Śkar (< pu:kār 'a sacred place for Brahma') na:th (Pushkar/Poshkar
   Nath). In the list of personal names given above before the first names
   listed, diminutive forms of these names are given ending in the vowel
   /i/. It is to be noted that the second name na:th cannot be added to the

5. la:l ('ruby')
   This term has also remained in use as a second term in a large number of
   compound personal names beginning with the following first names:

   ga:Śi la:l (Gwash Lal). giri/gir:Ś:ri: (< giridh:Ś:ri: 'one who holds
   mountain'; another name of lord Krishna, who is believed to have
   lifted a 'mountain' called Govardhan on his hand in order to save
   the lives of human beings and animals from being washed away in
   rain) la:l (Girdhari Lal), śa:mi (< sya:m 'black'- a name of Krishna
   after his black complexion (Shyam Lal), pya:ri (< pia:Śa: 'dear one')
   la:l (Pyare Lal), java:har (< java:har 'diamond') la:l (Jawahar Lal),
   ved (< ve:d 'V
   Ranch') la:l (Girdhari Lal), ša:m (< šiva) ka:kh,
   tara: (< varad 'world') ka:kh, lā:ki (< la:kh 'profit') ka:kh, lakśman (<
   lakśman ka:kh.

6. kriśin ('name of lord Krishna')
   This term is used as a second member of a few compound personal names
   in Kashmiri. These names also have been borrowed from Hindi and are
   used in other Hindi speaking states as well:

   daya: kriśin (Daya Krishna), sirī: (< su:riya 'sun') kriśin (Siri
   Krishna), gu:pi: kriśin (Gopi Krishna), mohi kriśin (Mohan
   Krishna), maha:Śar: (< king') kriśin (Maha:Krishen), ra:da: (<
   ra:da:ha:) kriśin (Radha Krishna), ra:Ś ( 'beauty' or 'grace') kriśin
   (Roop Krishna), te:j ('grace') kriśin (Tej Krishna), p′a:Śre: (< p′a:Śa:
7. **kumar** (‘prince’)

This term has frequently been used along with a number of first names in Hindi. A number of such personal names have been borrowed from Hindi into Kashmiri:

- aśo:k kumar (Ashok Kumar), viji/vijay (< vijay ‘victory’) kumar (Vijay Kumar), vinod (< vinod ‘enjoyment’) kumar (Vinod Kumar), ra:j/ra:j kumar (Raj Kumar), pawan kumar (Pawan Kumar) etc.

The term **kumar** however, cannot be added to the diminutive forms of the names given above: *vij kumar, *ra:j kumar etc.

8. **ma:l** (‘garland’)

This second term is very frequently used with the following given or first names: Arni: (< aranya ‘forest’; also name of a flower) ma:l (Arni Mal), po:ši (< po:š ‘flower’) ma:l (Posha Mal), kongi (< kong ‘saffron’) ma:l (Konga Mal), vesi (< viša ‘world’) ma:l (Vesha Mal), bo:ni (< bu:n ‘maple tree’) ma:l (Boni Mal), ra:da: (< ra:da:ha) ma:l (Radha Mal) hi: (‘jasmine’) ma:l (Hi Mal), vani (< van/ban ‘forest’) ma:l (Vana Mal), zayi (< jay ‘victory’) ma:l (Jaya Mal), zit:si (‘sparkles’) ma:l (Zacha Mal), rikh: (< rikh ‘line’) ma:l (Rakha Mal).

9. **vati:**

This term is added to the following first names:


3. **ded** (an honourific term used for mother/grand mother)

This term is frequently used as a term of address for mother or grand mother. It is normally added to a limited number of given names of elderly females for showing respect:

- gən:gi:na:n (< gun ‘qualities’; gi:na:n ‘one full of good qualities’) ded (Gona Ded), rapi (< rapi: ‘silver’) ded (Rupa Ded), rə:ni: (< rə:ni: ‘queen’) ded (Ranim Ded), lali (< lali a famous Kashmiri poetess of the 14th century named Lala or Laleshwari:) ded (Lala Ded), zu:n (< zu:n ‘moon’) ded (Zoon Ded), yambi (name of a flower), ded (Yambar Ded), etc.

4. **de:vi:** ‘goddess’

This term is added to a limited number of the first names:

- mu:hni: (< mo:hni: ‘attractive’) de:vi: (Mohini Devi), ratna: (< ratna ‘diamond’) de:vi (Ratna Devi), phu:la: (< phu:l ‘flower’) de:vi: (Phoola Devi), ku:š/kə:šal (< ku:š ‘fine’ < Kaushalya was the name of the Lord Rama’s mother) de:vi (Kaushalya Devi), ki:ni:ki:ni: (< kə:ni: ‘Lord Krishen’) de:vi (Krishna Devi), sarla: (< sarla: ‘simple’) de:vi (Sarla Devi), tolsi: (< tolsi: ‘the name of a plant used for worship’; this term in Kashmiri is also used for a broad golden necklace) de:vi (Tulsi Devi), lakhimi: (< lakšmi: ‘goddess of wealth’) de:vi (Lakshmi/Lakhimi Devi), etc.

5. **kuma:ri:**

This term is also added to the first names of Hindu women mostly borrowed from Hindi:

### 3.5. Single-word Names

In recent years single-word personal names have again become popular. Most of these names are very common in Hindi as well, and have been borrowed from it by Kashmiri Hindus. Some ancient Kashmiri Hindu names are also used:

1. **Males**
   - amit (< amrit ‘nectar’) (Amit), aśvani: (Ashvani), navi:n (Navin), sanjay (Sanjay), a:šu: (Ashu), puni:t (Puneet), vindit (Vindit), ra:hul (Rahul), kašap (after the Rishi Kashyap of Kashmir), kalhan (Kalhan), bilhan (Bilhan), etc.

2. **Females**
   - re:kha: (‘a line’) (Rekha), pri:ti: (‘love’) (Priti), anjali: (‘palm’) (Njali), gi:ta: (Geeta), soni: (< sona: ‘gold’) (Soni), nansi: (Nansi), hi:ma:l (Himal), indra: (Indra), suya: (Suya), lale:švri: (Laleshvari) etc.

### 4. Structure of Muslim Personal Names

With the spread of Islam in Kashmir, Muslim names based on Persian and Arabic names were introduced. There was a large-scale conversion from Hindus to Muslims. As per the convention, the first step for converting someone from any faith into Islam necessitates renaming the person in an Islamic name. These names are mostly drawn from Islamic texts including the Holy Quran.

Main Muslim personal names are of a compound structure, which may or may not be followed by surnames. During the early and middle periods, names were chosen strictly on the basis of Muslim religious texts. The ninety-nine names of the God in the Islamic literature (for the list see Koul 1982: 137-138) were the main sources of these names.

#### 4.1. Variations in Muslime names

The compound personal names have undergone various phonological changes. In most of the cases only the second member of the compound name is retained in its Kashmirized spoken form. Following are the examples of such names giving both their actual spoken as well as written or traditional forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spoken Short Form</th>
<th>Spoken Full Form</th>
<th>Written</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a:hdí</td>
<td>abdul ahad (&lt; a:had)</td>
<td>Abdul Ahad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:zi:z</td>
<td>abdul æziz (&lt; æziz)</td>
<td>Abdul Aziz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kha:li:</td>
<td>khalik (&lt; xa:liq)</td>
<td>Abdul xaliq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rahma:n</td>
<td>abdul rahman (&lt; rahma:n)</td>
<td>Abdul Rahman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>raza:kh</td>
<td>raza:kh (&lt; raza:q)</td>
<td>Abdul Razaq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gani</td>
<td>abdul goni: (&lt; Gani:)</td>
<td>Abdul Gani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kadi</td>
<td>kadi: (&lt; qa:dir)</td>
<td>Abdul Qadir</td>
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<td>sata:r</td>
<td>abdul sata:r</td>
<td>Abdul Sarat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va:hi:bi</td>
<td>abdul vahab:</td>
<td>Abdul Whab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ga:phur</td>
<td>gapha:r (&lt; Gafa:r)</td>
<td>Abdul Ghafar</td>
</tr>
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<td>maji:majíd</td>
<td>abdul maji:d</td>
<td>Abdul Majeed</td>
</tr>
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<td>abdul rahim: (&lt; rahim:)</td>
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<td>gola:m rasul:</td>
<td>Ghulam Rasool</td>
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<td>momi</td>
<td>gola:m mohamad</td>
<td>Ghulam Mohammad</td>
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<td>gola:m mohamad</td>
<td>Ghulam Mohammad</td>
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<td>gola:m nabi: (&lt; nabi:)</td>
<td>Ghulam Nabi</td>
</tr>
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<td>amí:amud</td>
<td>gola:m a:hmad</td>
<td>Ghulam Ahmad</td>
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<td>mabi:di:n (&lt; mohi-u-din)</td>
<td>Ghulam Mohi-ul-Din</td>
</tr>
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<td>isma:yil (&lt; isma:il)</td>
<td>Mohammad I smayil</td>
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<td>ibi</td>
<td>ibira:him (&lt; ibra:hi:m)</td>
<td>Mohammad Ibrahim</td>
</tr>
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<td>khalil (&lt; xali:l)</td>
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<td>Mohammad Mustafa</td>
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<td>magi</td>
<td>makbu:l (&lt; maqbu:l)</td>
<td>Mohammad Maqbool</td>
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<td>jama:l</td>
<td>Mohammad Jamal</td>
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<tr>
<td>jaba:ri</td>
<td>jaba:r (&lt; jaba:r)</td>
<td>Mohammad jabbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subhi:na</td>
<td>subha:n</td>
<td>Mohammad Subhan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rajbi</td>
<td>rajab</td>
<td>Mohammad Rajab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yoku:b</td>
<td>yoku:b (&lt; ya:qu:b)</td>
<td>Mohammad Yaqub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yu:suph</td>
<td>yu:suph (&lt; yu:suf)</td>
<td>Mohammad Yusuf</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The diminutive or short forms are not compounded and are used in informal speech only. Compounds of personal names are formed by adding the second fixed terms to the first names. The Kashmiri spoken forms of these words are: abdul/obdul (Abdul), gola:m (Ghulam), and mohmad (Mohammad). All these fixed terms are used in the beginning as illustrated above in both spoken as well as written versions. The spoken forms of the
full names are illustrated as: *abdul ahad* (Abdul Ahad), *g-asha rasul* (Ghalam Rasool), *mohmad rajah* (Mohammad Rajah) etc. In a few cases, however, it is the first member or part of the compound name which is retained in its Kashmirized spoken form. Examples are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>Spoken Diminutive</th>
<th>Written Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ali</td>
<td>ali: mohmad</td>
<td>Ali Mohammad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ba</td>
<td>ba:sh ahmad</td>
<td>Bashir Ahmad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gul</td>
<td>gul mohmad</td>
<td>Gul Mohammad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouni</td>
<td>gula:m mohmad</td>
<td>Ghulam Mohammad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habi</td>
<td>habi:bulla:</td>
<td>Habib-Ullah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soni</td>
<td>sonaculla:</td>
<td>Sanna-Ullah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jali</td>
<td>jala:l di:n</td>
<td>jalal-ul-Din</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sirajji</td>
<td>siraj di:n</td>
<td>Siraj-ul-Din</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khazir</td>
<td>khazir mohmad</td>
<td>Xazar Mohammad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shari:phi</td>
<td>shari:ph di:n</td>
<td>Sharif-ul-Din</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The honorific terms of address *ka:kh* (uncle), *sa:b*, or *to:th* ('dear one') are added to the short as well as full forms of the personal names for showing respect and/or affection.

1. *ka:kh*
   a:zi:z ka:kh, rami ka:kh, sata:ri ka:kh, etc.

2. *sa:b*
   a:had sa:b, rohman sa:b, ba:sh sa:b, gul sa:b, habi sa:b, soni sa:b etc.

3. *to:th*
   a:zi:z to:th, kholil to:th, rami to:th, magi to:th, ka:dir to:th, vaha:to:th, rosol to:th etc.

### 4.2. Modern Muslim Names

Currently, there is a tendency towards using the single-word personal names followed by surnames for Muslim males. Most of these names are borrowed from the names of Muslims from outside the state and are not necessarily based on the religious texts. Examples are:

- hasi:b (< hasib) Hasib, muni:b (Munib), nazir (< nazir) Nazir, sabi:r (< sabir) Shabir, ani:s (< ani) Anis, zin:nath (< zin nat) Zeenat, a:siph

Among the Muslim female names, only a few traditional names such as ‘Fatima’ are chosen on the basis of Muslim religious texts. A large number of other Muslim female names are after the names of objects of nature, nice qualities and objects of beauty. Some female names borrowed from other languages have also been Kashmirized in their pronunciation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>Spoken Diminutive</th>
<th>Written Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amina, ra:ji (&lt; ra:j)</td>
<td>Rajja, ha:jr (&lt; ha:jira:)</td>
<td>Hajra, phazii (&lt; fazl 'kindness')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fazii, sondar ('beautiful')</td>
<td>Sundri, ma:li (&lt; ma:l 'garland')</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mala, sa:ri (&lt; sa:ra:)</td>
<td>Saira, ja:n (&lt; ja:n 'life/good')</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jana, phariz (&lt; farz 'duty')</td>
<td>Faraz, zu:n ('moon')</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoon, bakhit (&lt; baxt 'fortune')</td>
<td>Baxat, mo:khti ('pearls')</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mokhti, rahat (&lt; rahat 'peace')</td>
<td>Rahat, taji (&lt; taj 'crown')</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taj, rohmat ('blessings')</td>
<td>Rahmat, sitar ('star')</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zana, ze:b (&lt; xa:tu:n 'lady')</td>
<td>Khatiji, z (&lt; xa:tu:n)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatima, ze:b (&lt; xa:tu:n)</td>
<td>Khatiji, z (&lt; xa:tu:n)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following are some modern names of Kashmiri Muslim Females:


The second member terms of compound Muslim female names are:

- be:gam (Begum) ba:no: (Banu) a:pi, ded etc. The terms be:gam and ba:no: are very frequently used with most of the Muslim female first names:

1. ra:ji be:gam (Raja Begum), zu:n be:gam (Zoon Begum) |
2. raphi:ki ba:no: (Rafiqa Bano), gulshan ba:no: (Gulshan Bano), sali:m ba:no: (Salim Bano), etc.
The terms *api* and *ded* are honorific terms added to the first names. The term *api* is normally used for elder sisters, aunts etc. Examples:

*za:ni api, sa:ri api, ta:ji ded, sa:ji ded etc.*

Certain 'derogatory' terms are added to the first male and female names by illiterates. These terms are *khor/khor* (unsophisticated, one who has an eczema, a skin disease on head) and *ko:n/k:an* ('one eyed person'). Examples:


5. **Surnames and Nicknames**

The majority of Kashmiri Hindus belong to the category of Saraswat Brahmins. Only a small minority group among Hindus – Buhuris and Purbis, stated to have come from outside the valley and settled in Kashmir are believed to belong either to Kshetri or Vaisha communities. ‘Kashmiri Brahmins are said to have originally belonged to only six gotras, — By intermarriage with other Brahmins the number of gotras multiplied to 199’ (Koul 1924). In ancient Kashmir, the use of surname among Hindus was quite negligible. The present surname Koul—a direct descendant of Dattatriya gotra appears to be a prominent surname of Kashmiri Hindus in ancient time. It is also believed that ‘almost all the Kashmiri Pandits were Kous and they were later on subdivided according to different nicknames and with the passage of time, their nicknames became permanent surnames (Koul 1982:89). The surname ‘Koul’ is derived from Mahakoul—one of the names of lord Lord Shiva. All the Kashmiri Hindus are Shaivites and it is likely that they chose the surname after the name of the Lord—they worship.

The practice of using surnames along with personal names was not followed in ancient period in Kashmir. Rajatarangini mentions the use of some nicknames. The practice of using surnames with the personal names has become popular from the late medieval or early modern period.

There is no caste system prevalent among Muslims. They are divided in professional groups and some religious sects. A definite set of surnames is associated with different sects of the community.

The study of surnames and nicknames is important from socio-semantic point of view. The nicknames used as surnames among both communities are related to a person’s profession, occupation, personality, locality to which a person belongs, particular incidents occurred in one’s life, abnormal or extraordinary physical characteristics or temperament of the person concerned. Regarding the use of nicknames, it is not possible to explain why certain nicknames (used as surnames) are common to both Hindus and Muslims, and others are different. Here we will briefly list very common surnames (and nicknames) pointing out some socio-semantic characteristics of these terms.

5.1. **Nicknames Related to Profession or Occupation**

Among Hindus and Muslims, a large number of Nicknames are related to the profession or occupation of people. The nick name is associated with a person either for taking up a particular profession or occupation himself or for working for someone whose profession or occupation is known by the same name. Examples of such nicknames, which are related to the profession or occupation are:

*a:rum (‘vegetable grower’) Aram, amb:a:ra: (amb:a: ‘huge store’) Ambardar, kra: (‘potter’) Kral, gu:r (‘milkman’ or ‘cowherd’), Guru, manu (‘one and half seers’/a measurement) Mantu/ Manwati, o:khun (‘a Muslim teacher of the Persian/Arabic language or Islam) Akhun, baka:ya: (< va:si: ba:ki: ‘a revenue official who collects taxes’) Bakaya, baza:z (‘cloth merchant’) Bazaz, ba:d:m (‘almond’) Badam, ba:zai (‘an employee of Bamzai Pathans’) Bamzai, bahu:r (‘a grocer’) Bahuri, cakbast (the officer entrusted with the job of keeping an account of chak or estate ) Chakbast, cagut (‘an employee of Chagutis’) Chagtu, diwa:n (‘an officer in the Sikh court’) Diwan, dra:l (‘a broker’) Dral, ha:k (‘name of a green vegetable’/sweeds) Hakh, photo:dar (‘a treasurer’ during the Mughal period) Fotedar, merzi (some ancestor must have been in the service of a Mirza family) Mirza, mun:s (‘clerk’) Munshi, misri: (an ancestor must have either visited Misr (Egypt) or worked for a trader from Egypt) Misri, tamin (‘tamum means ‘the carbon formed on the bottom of utensils when used for cooking on fire’. It is possible that an ancestor of the family might have been black complexioned. Another explanation given is that a person must have served with Taimini Pathans of Kabul) Tamani, tuf:hi (< to:ph ‘a cannon’, it is probably coined as a nickname for a person who was either a gunman or dealt with the business of making gunpowder etc. during the Muslim rule) Tufchi, turki (associated with Turks) Turki, darba:r (‘courtier’) Darbari, dur:an (‘a person must have served Durrani Pathans) Durrani, nahr (nahr in Kashmiri means a ‘canal’, those families who lived by the bank of a canal were called nahr) Nehru, na:li (‘a rivulet’, those who lived by the bank of a rivulet’ got this name) Nala, na:sti: (< na:s ‘snuff’).
Nasti, nag:ar' (‘a person who beats a drum’; a person employed for making announcements at the beat of the drum got this nickname) Nagari, na:zir (‘a court clerk’) Nazir, kandiha:r’, (‘an employee of a trader from Kandhar) Kandhari, kuli: (this term relates to Afghan chiefs; Tarkuli Khan or Noor Kulikhan; an employee of the Pathan chief) Kuli, ko:thi (‘a granary’) Kotha, karivo:n (‘a seller of ’peas’) Karwani, kalipu:s (a typical headgear used by old Hindu women) Kalapush, khaza:nici: (‘a cashier’) Khazanci, khar (‘ass’) Khair/Kher, khco (a kind of open boat) Khachu, ganiha:r (‘a kind of cereal’) Ganahar, guzarvän (an official of the excise check-post of the outskirts of a particular town) Guzaran, tsi:riv (‘made of apricot wood’); traders of the apricot wood have probably got this name) Churu, java:nše:r (name of an Afghan Governor of Kashmir) Jawansher, jala:l (an employee of Jallali Shia) Jallali, šo:ri (‘gun powder’) Shora, zaridco:b (‘a trader of turmeric’) zaradco:b, za:lpur’ (an employee of traders from Zablistan) Zalapur, zarbu: (< zarib ‘currency’; an employee of a government mint), hakim:< hakim (‘a medical practitioner’) , ha:ši: (‘margin’) Hashia, haza:r (‘an employee of Hazari (minister) during Moghul or Pathan rule) Hazari, vazir (‘minister’) Wazir, vaz:tu (‘cabbler/sweeper’) Watal, va:zi (‘cook’) Waza, vo:n (‘a shopkeeper’) Wani, vugr (‘water cooked rice’) Ogra, ba:ng (one who calls for prayer in the Mosque) Bangi, mogul (Mughal Moglu, ka:ndur (‘a bakeman’) Kandru, ka:ž (‘Qazi’ - one who decides cases, a judge) Qazi, gu:r (‘a milkman’) Guru, ganay (people employed on odd jobs like that of butchers etc.) Ganai, ga:di (‘fish’, one who sells fish) Gada or Gadu, chan (‘carpenter’) Chan, cu:dir (‘one who works on commission’) Chaudri, trili: (‘oilman’) Teli, tilvov:n (‘oilman’) Tilvani, du:m (sweepers and other people who perform odd jobs) Dump, dorzi: (means ‘tailor’ in Hindi-Urdu) Darzi, do:dur (‘a vegetable seller’) Dandru, po: (‘Kashmiri woollen cloth’) Patu, po:gor (one who does embroidery work) Patigar, pakhciva:l (‘pieces or rag’) Pakhcival, mistri: (‘a mason or a mechanic’) Mistr, ma:ši:na (‘a boatman involved in a particular business) Matahanji, rangur (‘one who dye clothes’) Rangru, vak:il (‘lawyer’) Vakil, va:si1 (a revenue official) Vasil, šakdar (official assigned the duties of procuring foodgrains from the farmers) Shakdar, sa:ban (‘soap’) Saban, sa:leh (‘vegetable seller’) Saleh, harka:r (‘a postman’) Harkar, po:hol (‘a shepherd’) Pahlu, topigor (‘one who makes caps’) Topigoru, th:thur (‘one who makes vessels and palates) Thanthur, Dolva1 (‘one who plays drums’) Dolval, la:yigor (‘one who sells roast grains, cornflakes etc.’) Layigaru, mali (‘a Muslim Mullah’) Malla, na:th (‘master’) Nath.

5.2. Nicknames and Surnames Related to the Names of Locality
A large number of nicknames and surnames are related to the name of locality or the place of residence of a particular person or family. In certain cases, the persons of such families have actually migrated from their original places of their residence years or generations ago. Examples are: pa:rim (< apa:rim) those families who have come from the other side of Pir Panjal range got this nick name. The term pa:rim in Kashmiri also refers to any language other than Kashmiri) Parimoo, purib’ (< purib ‘east’, purib ‘of the east’) Purbi, ba:g (‘garden’; a family who had their residence near a garden got this surname. They are called baga:ti also) Bag/Bagati, ba:l (ba:l ‘mountain’; a family who had their residence near a mountain/hill got this surname) Bali, madan (madanyar is the name of a mohalla in Srinagar) Madan, mombay (An ancestor must have come from Mumbai to settle in Kashmir) Mombay, muj (‘raddish’; there are certain names of places like Muji Gond and Muji Marg. A person from either of these places must have settled in Srinagar) Muhammad, tis:ri or tris:hi (Trisal is a name of a village) Trisal, nad (name of a ravine) Nad, nag:ir (Nagar is a name of a village) Nagri, thus (‘a name of a village’) Thusi, danji (‘a small ravine’) Danji, ka:thju: (< Kathleshwar ‘name of a place’) Kathjoo, kar (Karhama is a name of a village) Kar, kskur (‘cock’; a family whose members are involved in the manufacture of gun powder) Churan, kunzur (Kunzar is a name of a place) Kunzar, kandur (‘a bakeman’) Kandru, kuli: (this term relates to Afghan commerce) Kandhari, kul (a kind of open boat) Kandhoo, ganiha:r (‘a kind of cereal’) Ganahar, guzarvän (an official of the excise check-post of the outskirts of a particular town) Guzaran, tsi:riv (‘made of apricot wood’); traders of the apricot wood have probably got this name) Churu, java:nše:r (name of an Afghan Governor of Kashmir) Jawansher, jala:l (an employee of Jallali Shia) Jallali, šo:ri (‘gun powder’) Shora, zaridco:b (‘a trader of turmeric’) zaradco:b, za:lpur’ (an employee of traders from Zablistan) Zalapur, zarbu: (< zarib ‘currency’; an employee of a government mint), hakim:< hakim (‘a medical practitioner’) , ha:ši: (‘margin’) Hashia, haza:r (‘an employee of Hazari (minister) during Moghul or Pathan rule) Hazari, vazir (‘minister’) Wazir, vaz:tu (‘cabbler/sweeper’) Watal, va:zi (‘cook’) Waza, vo:n (‘a shopkeeper’) Wani, vugr (‘water cooked rice’) Ogra, ba:ng (one who calls for prayer in the Mosque) Bangi, mogul (Mughal Moglu, ka:ndur (‘a bakeman’) Kandru, ka:ž (‘Qazi’ - one who decides cases, a judge) Qazi, gu:r (‘a milkman’) Guru, ganay (people employed on odd jobs like that of butchers etc.) Ganai, ga:di (‘fish’, one who sells fish) Gada or Gadu, chan (‘carpenter’) Chan, cu:dir (‘one who works on commission’) Chaudri, trili: (‘oilman’) Teli, tilvov:n (‘oilman’) Tilvani, du:m (sweepers and other people who perform odd jobs) Dump, dorzi: (means ‘tailor’ in Hindi-Urdu) Darzi, do:dur (‘a vegetable seller’) Dandru, po: (‘Kashmiri woollen cloth’) Patu, po:gor (one who does embroidery work) Patigar, pakhciva:l (‘pieces or rag’) Pakhcival, mistri: (‘a mason or a mechanic’) Mistr, ma:ši:na (‘a boatman involved in a particular business) Matahanji, rangur (‘one who dye clothes’) Rangru, vak:il (‘lawyer’) Vakil, va:si1 (a revenue official) Vasil, šakdar (official assigned the duties of procuring foodgrains from the farmers) Shakdar, sa:ban (‘soap’) Saban, sa:leh (‘vegetable seller’) Saleh, harka:r (‘a postman’) Harkar, po:hol (‘a shepherd’) Pahlu, topigor (‘one who makes caps’) Topigoru, th:thur (‘one who makes vessels and palates) Thanthur, Dolva1 (‘one who plays drums’) Dolval, la:yigor (‘one who sells roast grains, cornflakes etc.’) Layigaru, mali (‘a Muslim Mullah’) Malla, na:th (‘master’) Nath.
a Hindu family which lived in the locality of Shias was probably given this name) Rafiz, ra:na: (Rainavari-name of a place in Srinagar) Raina, ka:bil’ (‘Kabul’, ancestors must have come from Kabul or worked in Kabul) Kabili, dr:ob’ Drabu, panj:ob’ (Punjab) Panjabi, mar:az’ (Maraz - south and southeast area of the Kashmir valley) Marazi, h:ajji (h:ajjan - name of a village) Hajini, salar (salar-name of a village) Salar, ka:riho:m (karihoma-name of a village) Karhama, bochur (Bachur - name of a village:) Bachru, ta:r’ go:m (‘Tarigam - name of a village’) Tarigami, etc. The married women in their in-laws, mostly in villages, are known after the names of places of their parent’s residence. For example ša:l’po:ric (‘of Shalipora’), buga:mic (‘of Begam’), ko:lig:amic (‘of Kulgam’).

5.3. Nicknames Associated with Peculiar Incidents

A large number of Nicknames are associated with peculiar incidents, which must have occurred with the persons concerned. It is not possible to make the speculations of such incidents and explain the associations of these names. Here only the literal meanings of the terms related to such incidents are given which are used as nicknames or surnames. Examples:

peśin (‘afternoon’) Peshin, pura:n (‘pura:n’ - books related to Hindu mythology) Puran, buji (‘old women’) Buji, buli (‘fool’) Bula, bra:th (< bra:št - ‘a person who has derailed from a pious path’) Brayth, b:ćd (‘a folk entertainer’) Band, bohgun (‘a metallic cooking vessel’) Bohgun, manu: (‘one and half seer’) Munut, musi (< mus ‘relaxation after hard work’ e.g., mus ka:đun ‘to rlax’) Musa, thapal/thapul (< brašt ‘relaxation’) Thapatlu, tha:l (literally ‘fire bangles’) Narakari, ka:v (‘crow’) Kaw, kuz ‘(log of wood)’ Kutz, domb (‘intestines’) Domb, d:li (‘of Kulgam’).

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trakur (‘hard’ - a person with hot temperament) Trakru, dara:z (‘long, tall’ - a very tall person) Daraz, dev (‘a giant’ - a huge person) Dev, da:s (‘destroyer’ - ‘a spendthrift’) Dasi, niki (‘an affectionate pet name given to a baby boy’) Nikka, mušra:n (‘an ugly man with a huge body’) Mushran, mo:ti (‘a fat man’) Mota, môt (‘thick or fat’) Mattu, marto:sva:gu:n (‘pepper’ - a red faced man or a person with a very hot temperament) Marchawangan, ma:mn (‘maternal uncle’ - a person who pokes his nose in everything) Mam, miski:n (‘poor or penniless’) Miskeen, mandal (‘buttocks’ - a person with huge buttocks) Mandal, kobra: (‘hunch backed’) Kaboo, kà:tsur (‘a brown haired person’) Kachru, kichul (‘long bearded’) Kichloo, kho:s (‘left handed person’) Khusru, khor (‘a bald person with eczema on head; a rowdy person’) Khoru, kà:rihol (‘a person with twisted nick’) Karihaloo, kol (‘dumb’) Kaloo, ka:v (‘crow’ - a very black complexioned person) Kaw, kali (‘head’ - someone with huge or abnormal head) Kala, guru: (‘clay colour’ - a person with a clay color complexion) Gurru, ganju: (‘a bald person’) Ganjoo, gagar (‘mouse’) Gagroo, shõgul (‘a person born with six fingers’) Shango, sikh (‘sikh-a person with long hair and beard’) Sikh, hond (‘sheep’) Handoo, hokh (‘dry’ - a thin or frail person) Hakhoo, long (‘a lame person’) Langoo, tsok (‘sour’ or ‘bottom’) Chakoo, tsot (‘a short stunted person’) Cott, cacci (‘paternal uncle’) Chacha, vo:khi (‘a funny person or a person with abnormal physique’) Vokha, busi (‘a person with pale face’) Banu, kam:ru (‘a person with abnormal ears’) Kanru, guri (‘a person with very fair complexion’) Guru, cow (‘dumb’) Choroo, cà:pir (‘one who talks a lot’) Chapri, zor (‘deaf’) Zoro, tromb (‘one with spots like that of small pox on face’) Trambu, bodur (‘a person with white face’) Badru, bedab (‘inappropriate’ or ‘uneven’ - a funny personality) Bedab, be:da:r (‘active’ or ‘alert’) Bedar, bacì (‘a child or a child like person’) Baca, led (horse’s shit) Ledu, vo:thul (‘one who is always in his toes’ Vothal, put (‘an offspring’) Putu, nos (a person with abnormal nose) Nasu, da:r’al (‘bearded’) Dare, da:stìr (‘with turban’) Dastari, legi (leg ‘dirt of eyes’) Lega, lù:l’ (‘a physically handicapped person’) Luli, kana (< kan-‘ear’, someone with abnormal ears) Kana, kobra: (‘a hench backed person’) Kobra etc.

We have seen that a large number of nicknames are related to the occupation, profession, locality of residence, various incidents and physical characteristics of the person involved. Most of these nicknames are common among Hindus and Muslims.

5.5. Muslim surnames

Besides the above types of nicknames, a large number of surnames of Muslims are borrowed from Persian and Arabic languages, and are related with certain religious sects of Muslims. Most of these are common among non-Kashmiri Muslims living outside the valley and in other countries as well. The most common surnames of this kind are listed below:

- a:sci (Ashayi), alvi: (Alvi), ka:dir (Qadir), kure:si (Qureshi), cisti: (Chisti), nahu: (Nahi), nakasbandi: (Naqashbandi), pi:ra:di (Peerzada), naka:s (Naqash), mi:r (Mir), makdu:mi: (Maqdoomi), maso:du: (Masoodi), yahu:ya (Yahya), ra:thar (Rathar), sh:ah (Shah), sh:da (Sheda), shé:da (Shahdad), Sohra:vardi: (Soharavardi), pare (Parey), ta:k (Tak), da:r (dar), zahgi:r (Zahgir), ra:val (Raval), z:di: (Zaidi), nakvi (Naqvi) etc.

5.6. Phonological changes

A large number of Kashmiri surnames and nicknames have undergone some phonological changes in their forms in other languages. These terms are generally Hindi-Urduized or Anglicized in their written form and also in pronunciation by the non-natives. There are some regular rules for this shift from original spoken to written form. Some of these rules are indicated below:

(i) In case the consonant ending surnames/nicknames are preceded by back vowels, the suffix /u:/ is added to them in their written form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Hindi-Urdu</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bos</td>
<td>bo:u</td>
<td>Bo:u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kho:s</td>
<td>kho:u</td>
<td>Khosu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gu:r</td>
<td>gu:ru:</td>
<td>Guru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khoc</td>
<td>khocu:</td>
<td>Khocu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kol</td>
<td>kolu:</td>
<td>Kolu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muj</td>
<td>muju:</td>
<td>Muju</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the disyllabic terms, the second vowel is elided after the suffix is added.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Hindi-Urdu</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>manu:t</td>
<td>manu:</td>
<td>Manu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko:tr</td>
<td>ko:tru:</td>
<td>Kotru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thapul</td>
<td>thaplu:</td>
<td>Thaplu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunzru</td>
<td>kunzru:</td>
<td>Kunzru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va:tru</td>
<td>va:tru:</td>
<td>Vatri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kokru</td>
<td>kokru:</td>
<td>Kokru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nehru:</td>
<td>nehru:</td>
<td>Nehru</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(ii) The final vowel /i/ changes into /a:/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Hindi-Urdu</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>va:zi</td>
<td>va:za:</td>
<td>Vaza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>animi</td>
<td>anima:</td>
<td>Anima</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>đa:gi</td>
<td>đa:ga:</td>
<td>Daga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ra:ji</td>
<td>ra:ja:</td>
<td>Raja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>baci</td>
<td>baca:</td>
<td>Baca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>šo:ri</td>
<td>šo:ra:</td>
<td>Shora</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iii) In case the terms end in palatalized consonants, the suffix /i:/ is added to them and the preceding vowels are lowered in height. The palatalization is dropped.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Hindi-Urdu</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>darb:o:r'</td>
<td>darba:ri:</td>
<td>Darbari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>naga:o:r'</td>
<td>naga:ri:</td>
<td>Nagari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ba:l'</td>
<td>ba:li:</td>
<td>Bali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bu:n'</td>
<td>bo:ni:</td>
<td>Boni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ju:g'</td>
<td>jo:gi:</td>
<td>Jogi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dur:o:n'</td>
<td>dura:ni:</td>
<td>Durani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jala:l'</td>
<td>jala:li:</td>
<td>Jalali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haza:o:r'</td>
<td>haza:ri:</td>
<td>Hazari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so:pu:r'</td>
<td>so:po:ri:</td>
<td>Sopori</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dasta:o:r'</td>
<td>dasta:ri:</td>
<td>Dastari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>panja:b'</td>
<td>panja:bi:</td>
<td>Punjabi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mara:z'</td>
<td>mara:zi:</td>
<td>Marazi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iv) The consonant ending terms which are preceded by low central vowels /a/ or /a:/ do not change in their written form. Examples:

- padar, cakbast, sa:ni:var, ca:ktam, ja:ktam, bazaz, ba:da:m, dra:lt, hackh, di:va:n, guzarva:n, ka:r, ma:m, na:th, etc.

(v) The dental affricates /tsl/ and /tsh/ change into affricaters /c/: and /ch/ respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tsol</th>
<th>colu:</th>
<th>Chola</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ka:tsur</td>
<td>ka:cru:</td>
<td>Kachru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tri:shil</td>
<td>tri:chal</td>
<td>Trisal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsengul</td>
<td>cenglu:</td>
<td>Cenglu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Conclusion

To sum up, the study of personal names in Kashmiri from linguistic point of view, though an interesting subject, poses various problems. The personal names are closely related to the socio-cultural structure of the people. It is therefore essential to understand the socio-culture milieu of the people comprising different strata across religious and ethnic identities. Throughout its history, Kashmir has undergone various social, cultural and political changes and upheavals influencing the socio-culture patterns and ethos of the people in various contact situations. Nevertheless, it is possible to point out salient characteristics of the personal names of Kashmiri keeping in view various influences their structure has undergone.

As explained above, the oldest, forms of personal names of Hindus can be traced from the written texts which do not provide the authenticity of their exact use in spoken form. The available references of personal names in the Sanskrit texts composed in and on Kashmir, however, do help us to determine that most of the old Kashmiri personal names were closely related to their Sanskrit origin. The structure of two-word personal names in Hindus seems to be a later development during the medieval period. There are both indigenous and borrowed fixed second name terms used for male and female names. These names frequently appear in the religious texts of Hindus written during the contemporary period. The personal names of Muslims though largely borrowed from Perso-Arabic, are nativized and have undergone various structural changes. There are significant differences in their spoken and written forms.

The study of surnames and nicknames is an important subject from sociolinguistic point of view. Besides some genuine surnames associated with Hindus and Muslims, a large number of surnames and nicknames have developed by the local influences and common socio-cultural pattern characterizing the Kashmiri society. This is referred to as Kashmiriat. It is here that the well-defined religious boundaries do not have a role in the demarcation or distribution of these terms. A large number of these nicknames or so-called surnames are common among Hindus and Muslims. The phenomenon seems to be quite productive and has potentiality of further development. There is a common belief that Kashmiris are very rich in the coinage of names and nicknames, and perhaps it is this strong texture with which the Kashmiriat is woven.

As far as possible, certain linguistic rules, which account for various changes in the coinage and derivation of the Kashmiri personal names including surnames and nicknames, have been indicated in non-technical terms. Rules for Hindi-Urduization and Englishization of Kashmiri names have been mentioned. There is a scope for working out exhaustive set of such rules in a future study.
Kinship Terms

Introduction

The Kinship terms in language are understood and used in a particular cultural context. In the study of Kinship terms it is, therefore, important to keep in view the cultural or sociological patterns of a given society in which these terms are used. In this section, we will classify the kinship terms in Kashmiri in two broad categories: (1) consanguineal and (2) affinal. The dimensions of (i) generation (ii) lineal (direct ancestors and direct descends) vs. collateral (kinsmen descended from one’s own ancestors i.e., uncles, brothers, nephews etc.) and (iii) sex are important in the current study. While presenting the description of kinship terms, modes of address, which are closely related with the kinship terms, have also been given.

1. Consanguineal kinship terms

The consanguineal kinship terms may be classified as closest blood relations, and distant blood relations. In the distant blood relations, various types of categories are possible.

Closest blood relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mo:l</td>
<td>F (father)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mao:j</td>
<td>M (mother)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bo:y</td>
<td>B (brother)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beni</td>
<td>Si (sister)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neucu</td>
<td>So (son)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ku:r</td>
<td>D (daughter)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distant blood relations

The following kinship terms are used for distant kinsmen:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bud?ihab</td>
<td>FF, MF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na:n'</td>
<td>FM, MM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma:s</td>
<td>Msi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poph</td>
<td>Fsi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma:m</td>
<td>MB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>petir</td>
<td>FB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>benthir</td>
<td>SiSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>benzi</td>
<td>SiD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compound kinship terms

There are two types of kinship terms: simple and compound. The compound kinship terms are formed by adding modifiers and/or affixes to the base or simple terms. For example, suffixes badi or jadi are added to bud’bab and na:n’ to denote the kinship terms which are more remote in genealogical distance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>badi bud’bab</td>
<td>FFF, FMF, MFF, MMF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>badina:n’</td>
<td>FFM, FMM, MFM, MMM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jadi bud’bab</td>
<td>FFF, FMF, MFF, MMF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, certain modifiers in compound constructions are used to denote another type of genealogical relationship:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>petri bud’bab</td>
<td>FFB, MFB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>petri na:n’</td>
<td>FFBW, MFBW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The modifiers pitur (m) and pitir (f) are used to denote first cousin relationship as in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pitur bo:y</td>
<td>FBSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pitur ma:m</td>
<td>MFBSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pitir bo:y</td>
<td>MFB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pitir ma:m</td>
<td>MFBSo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suffixes -tur (m) and -tir (f) are added to certain kinship terms which change them into modifiers. These modifiers are used to specify remote genealogical relationship, as in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mamitutur bo:y</td>
<td>MBSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mamitutur ma:m</td>
<td>MFBSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pphpitir bo:y</td>
<td>MFSiSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pphpitir ma:m</td>
<td>MFSiSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matir beni</td>
<td>Msi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matir ma:s</td>
<td>MMSiD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matir ma:m</td>
<td>MBD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matir ma:m</td>
<td>MMSiSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pphpitir pph</td>
<td>FMBD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pphpitir beni</td>
<td>FsiD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pphpitir pph</td>
<td>MFSiSo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The modifiers pitur (m) and pitir (f) can also be used with these terms to denote further remote genealogical relationship, as in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pitur ma:m</td>
<td>MFBSoSo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pitur ma:m</td>
<td>MFBDSo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The term *ku:* (husband) is used with some genealogical kinship terms to mark remote genealogical relationship as in the following examples:

- vo:ri mo:1 step F
- vo:ri mæj step M
- vo:ri bo:ya step B
- vo:ri beni step Si
- vo:ri neucu:v step So
- vo:ri ku:r step D

The modifier *vo:ri* may be used with distant relatives also:

- vo:ri petir F step B
- vo:ri pæph F step Si
- vo:ri na:n’ F step M, M step M
- vo:ri ma:m M step B
- vo:ri bud’bab F step F, M step F

Certain kinship terms are formed with the help of the genitive markers of *sund* and *hund*, as in the following examples:

- neciv’ sund neucu:v SoSo
- neciv’ sindis neciv’ sund neucu:v SoSoSo
- mæ:l’ sund mo:1 FF
- mæ:l’ sindis mæ:l’ sund mo:1 FFF
- ko:ri hinzi ku:r DD
- ko:ri hinzi ko:ri hinzi ku:r DDD

2. Affinal kinship terms

Affinal kinship terms are those which represents the kinship relations as a result of marriage. Affinal kinship terms may also be classified in different sub-categories. There is more than one kinship term used for some kinsmen. Following are the affinal kinship terms:

‘Husband’ and ‘wife’ are closest affinal kinsmen. Following are the kinship terms used to mark this relationship:

- kha:van/ru:n/barha/khâ:da:r H (husband)
- zana:n/kolay/triy/khâ:da:ren’ W (Wife)
Similarly, the modifiers of the kinship terms like pɔphɪtʊr (m), pɔphɪtʊr (f), maːmits (m), maːmits (f) may be added to the affinal kinship terms to denote distant relationship, e.g.,

| pɔphɪtʊr druːy | HFSiSo |
| pɔphɪtʊr dɪriːkɑːːn' | HFSiSoW |
| pɔphɪtʊr bɛːmi | FsiDH |
| pɔphɪtʊr bɑːyɑːkɑːːn' | FsiSoW |
| maːmits hɑːhɑr | WMBSo |
| maːmits sɑːl | WMBD |
| maːmits zəːmiːyɪ | HMBDH |
| maːsɪtʊr druːy | HMSiSi |

The kinship terms maːs, pɔph, and maːs are added as modifiers to the affinal kinship terms of ʰ'ohɑr ‘father-in-law’ and haʃ ‘mother-in-law’, to mark the distant relationship. The vowel -i is a suffix to the kinship terms for making them modifiers, as in the following examples:

| pɔphi ʰ'ohɑr | HFSiH, WFSiH |
| pɔphi haʃ | HFSi, WFSi |
| maːmi ʰ'ohɑr | HMB, WMB |
| maːmi haʃ | HMBW, WMBW |
| petri ʰ'ohɑr | HFB, WFB |
| petri haʃ | HFBW, WFBW |
| maːsi ʰ'ohɑr | HMSiH, WMSiH |
| maːsi haʃ | HMSi, WSMi |

There are a few common affinal kinship terms used to mark the relationship between the parental families of the wife and husband.

| son' | DHF, SoWF |
| son'an | DHM, SoWM |
| son'ɡobur | DhyB, SoWyB |
| son'kuːr | DhySi, SoWySi |

The term son’ is also used for the ‘in-laws’ of the son or daughter. Even sister’s or brother’s in-laws are termed as son’. The term indicates the relationship between the two families, whose off springs have entered into wedlock. The phrase sən' u th is used for entering into this relationship by two families, by performing a wedlock of their offspring in each other’s family.

Similarly, the modifiers of the kinship terms like pɔphɪtʊr (m), pɔphɪtʊr (f), maːmits (m), maːmits (f) may be added to the affinal kinship terms to denote distant relationship, e.g.,

| pɔphɪtʊr druːy | HFSiSo |
| pɔphɪtʊr dɪriːkɑːːn' | HFSiSoW |
| pɔphɪtʊr bɛːmi | FsiDH |
| pɔphɪtʊr bɑːyɑːkɑːːn' | FsiSoW |
| maːmits hɑːhɑr | WMBSo |
| maːmits sɑːl | WMBD |
| maːmits zəːmiːyɪ | HMBDH |
| maːsɪtʊr druːy | HMSiSi |

The kinship terms maːs, pɔph, and maːs are added as modifiers to the affinal kinship terms of ʰ'ohɑr ‘father-in-law’ and haʃ ‘mother-in-law’, to mark the distant relationship. The vowel -i is a suffix to the kinship terms for making them modifiers, as in the following examples:

| pɔphi ʰ'ohɑr | HFSiH, WFSiH |
| pɔphi haʃ | HFSi, WFSi |
| maːmi ʰ'ohɑr | HMB, WMB |
| maːmi haʃ | HMBW, WMBW |
| petri ʰ'ohɑr | HFB, WFB |
| petri haʃ | HFBW, WFBW |
| maːsi ʰ'ohɑr | HMSiH, WMSiH |
| maːsi haʃ | HMSi, WSMi |

There are a few common affinal kinship terms used to mark the relationship between the parental families of the wife and husband.

| son' | DHF, SoWF |
| son'an | DHM, SoWM |
| son'ɡobur | DhyB, SoWyB |
| son'kuːr | DhySi, SoWySi |

The term son’ is also used for the ‘in-laws’ of the son or daughter. Even sister’s or brother’s in-laws are termed as son’. The term indicates the relationship between the two families, whose off springs have entered into wedlock. The phrase sən' u th is used for entering into this relationship by two families, by performing a wedlock of their offspring in each other’s family.

The modifier mangiti ‘adopted’ is used with a restricted number of kinship terms to denote a close relationship. For instance,

- mangiti necuv adopted So
- mangiti kuːr adopted D

The modifier mangiti is used only with necuv ‘son’ and kuːr ‘daughter’. Though indicating very close relationship, it cannot be placed under the category of blood relationship.

The modifiers anihur ‘unmarried’ (m.s.), anihur' (m.p.), anihuris (f.s.), anihuris (f.p.) are used with certain kinship terms to indicate the marital status, e.g.,

- anihur necuv/lədkɪ unmarried son/boy
- anihur' neciv/lədkɪ unmarried sons/boys
- anihuris kuːr unmarried daughter/girl
- anihuris koːri unmarried daughters/girls

The modifiers of neːtrɪɡraːkh (m.s.), neːtrɪɡraːkan’ (f.s.), haːɾ’soːmut (m.s.), haːɾ’soːmɪs (f.s.) and haːɾ’soːmatsi (f.p.) are used with kinship terms to indicate marital status, e.g.,

- neːtrɪɡraːkh necuv married son
- neːtrɪɡraːkan’ kuːr married daughter
- haːɾ’soːmut necuv married son
- haːɾ’soːmɪs kuːr married sons
- haːɾ’soːmatsi koːri married daughters

These modifiers may also be used independently to denote the marital status of a person in context. Certain terms are used to denote that a man or a woman is married and has children also. They may be used both independently as well as modifiers. For example:

- sər’voːl/sər’mur’voːl The man having children
- sər’vəːʃən’/sər’mur’vəʃən’ The woman having children

There are several terms related with the marital status of a person, which denote an important relationship with particular families. e.g.,

- hoːhvur man’s in-laws, wife’s parents’ home
- voːr’uːv husband’s home, woman’s in-laws
- maːl’u’n woman’s parents’ home
Kinship Terms and Modes of Address

The modes of addresses in Kashmiri are closely related with kinship terms. Different types of modes of addresses are used among kinsmen. We will here indicate only a few modes of address, which show the relationship with the kinship terms.

(i) Certain honorific suffixes are added to the kinship terms in order to form different modes of addresses. The resulting modes of addresses undergo certain phonological changes also, e.g.,

- Female
  - badi 'wife's mother'
  - badi 'husband's mother'

3. Kinship Terms and Modes of Address

The modes of addresses in Kashmiri are closely related with kinship terms. Different types of modes of addresses are used among kinsmen. We will here indicate only a few modes of address, which show the relationship with the kinship terms.

(i) Certain honorific suffixes are added to kinship terms in order to form different modes of addresses. The resulting modes of addresses undergo certain phonological changes also, e.g.,

- Female
  - badi + ho:hur 'wife’s mother’s parents’ home'
  - badi + və:rı:uv 'husband’s mother’s parents’ home'

3. Kinship Terms and Modes of Address

These modes of addresses may be used not only for elder sister but for other relations of cousins etc., as well for indicating affection or respect.

The following honorific suffixes are added to ma:m MB and ma:man’ MBW for changing them into modes of addresses:

- ma:m + to:th > ma:mi to:th
- ma:man’ + jigir > ma:man’jigir
- ma:m + ji: > ma:ji

These modes of address are used for distant kinsman on the mother’s side, besides the MB and MBW.

There are various modes of addresses used independently for elder and younger kinsman. It is not possible to formulate definite rules in their use. Each term may be used for more than one’s kinsman depending on the acquired habit of the speaker. Some of these terms are given below:

- bab: F, FF, eB
- ga:ši: F, FB, B
- to:ı:th: F, Fb, eB
- bə:bji: F, EB, eB
- ka:kan’ M, FBW
- bə:bi: M, eB, eB, M
- di:di: eB, FF
- eSi
- Si, BW, D
- eB, FF, Fb

As indicated above, the modes of addresses are used in a liberal sense. Modes of addresses do not differentiate the distinctions among the real and the cousin, blood relation and affinal etc. Some modes of addresses may be used not only in distant relations but also for showing respect and affection to a person, who is not a kinsman. For instance, friend’s wife may be called ba:bi: a friend’s sister may be called beni ga:ši, jigir etc.
Modes of Address

1. Introduction

In general, modes of address in Kashmiri are correlated with the social status and interpersonal relationships between the addressee and addresser. Modes of address consist of different types of interjections, first names, diminutive first names, surnames, kinship terms, professional terms, second person pronouns, etc. Here we will briefly discuss the usage of these modes of address from sociolinguistic point of view.

A proper understanding of the socio-cultural patterns of the society and people who use these modes of address is important. The native speakers of Kashmiri belong to two main religious communities of Hindus and Muslims. The latter community is in majority. There are some variations on the phonological, morphological and lexical levels between the speech of these two communities, which are important from a sociolinguistic point of view. There is no caste system prevalent among either of the two communities. There are of course certain professional groups among each community. Hindus (all Brahmans) are divided into two groups: priests and non-priests. The priests (who are in the minority) perform all the rites and rituals and act as priests in Hindu temples and places of worship. On the basis of certain professions, some minority groups of lower social status among Hindus are those of Buhuris and persons engaged in odd jobs: cooks, bakers, etc. The majority of Hindus consider such persons lower in status and do not normally enter into inter group marriages. Those who neither belongs to the priest group nor to the lower professional groups of odd jobs enjoy higher status among the Hindus. The modes of address used for the priest group are always honorific and they are different from those used for the lower professional groups. Muslims are also divided on the basis of professional groups. Social status is generally determined by economic, educational and professional factors. Among Muslims, pirs (the group of priests), which are in minority, perform rites and rituals for all Muslims and are respected at social and religious ceremonies. The community is divided into different professional groups: agriculturists, businessmen, employees, labourers, etc. The professions of butcher, carpenter, barber, goldsmith, mason and cobbler are hereditary. Only a very low percentage of people not belonging to hereditary professional families take up these jobs. Both the financial prospects and social status of goldsmith and blacksmith occasionally attract some persons to take up one of the above professions even though it is not traditionally in their family.

In modern society, current economic position, nature of profession, age, sex, education, etc., play an important role in determining social status. With the spread of education and the tremendous change in the standard of living, old superstitions and values are fast changing. The traditional values are becoming less important day by day under the influence of modernization. It is easy to find people who belong to the lower class by family background and profession but have attained higher social status, shattering the barriers of old values and ideas.

It is important to keep in view the social structure of the native speakers of Kashmiri of both communities, Hindus and Muslims, divided into different classes on the basis of their family background and professions. Modes of address are correlated with the social structure of the people who interact: The inter-relationships, familial or kinship relations and considerations of social status must be taken into account while studying the subject.

2. Types of Modes of Address

Modes of address include interjections, first names, diminutive first names, surnames, terms associated with professions, kinship terms and second person pronouns of address. Here we will describe main types of forms of address.

2.1. Interjections of Address

Roughly corresponding to the English interjection ‘Hey’ or the Hindi-Urdu is different types of interjections are used in Kashmiri to attract attention. These can broadly be classified into two types: non-honorific and honorific or polite. They agree with addressee in number, gender and status.

2.1.1. Non-honorific

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) haya:</td>
<td>hayo:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) haːv</td>
<td>haːv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) hata:</td>
<td>hato:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hindu names and \( sā:b \) with Muslim names, e.g.,

- he: mohan ji: ‘Mr. Mohan’
- ramesh kumar ji: ‘Mr. Ramesh Kumar’
- mohan la:l ji: ‘Mr. Mohan Lal’
- mohan la:l ganju: ji: ‘Mr. Mohan Lal Ganju’
- rahma:n sā:b ‘Mr. Rahman’
- rahma:n da:r sā:b ‘Mr. Rahman Dar’

Whereas ji: is always used with the professional title maːʃtar teacher’, \( sā:b \) is used with the professional titles or surnames of both communities. e.g.,

- maːʃtar ji: ‘Teacher’
- daːktor sā:b ‘Doctor’
- vaːkːɔːr sā:b ‘lawyer’
- raːzdaːn sāːb ‘Mr. Razdan (a Hindu surname)
- loːn sāːb ‘Mr. lone (a Muslim surname)

The terms ji: and \( sā:b \) are used by elders with the first names or kinship terms of youngsters as well for showing affection. The term \( sā:b \) also is added to the imperative forms of verbs as well. e.g.,

- (a) karsaː panin’ kːːm do-hon own work’
- ‘Please do your work.’
- (b) me disəː kitaː to-me give-hon (the) book
- ‘Please give me the book.’

The ‘terms haz ‘sir’ and maːhraː ‘sir’ are used for addressing Muslims and Hindus respectively. The term jinaːb ‘sir’ is used for addressing both Hindus and Muslims. These terms normally follow the subject noun or pronoun e.g.,

- (c) bi haz:maːhraː/jiːnːaːb gatshi gari
  I hon. go-fut home
  ‘Sir, I will go home.’

They may also be used with the imperative forms of verbs. e.g.

- (d) gatshi haz gari
  go-HON sir home
  ‘Please go home.’

Note that (a), (c) and (e) are used mostly by the native speakers of Kashmiri, who belong to Srinagar and Baramulla Districts. The forms of (b), (d) and (f) are used by the native speakers of Kashmiri who belong to the Districts of Anantnag and Pulwama. The forms of (g) and (h) are used by all the speakers. Besides being a form of address, (g) is also used in the meaning of ‘take’ as well. These terms may optionally be followed by the diminutive first names of the address. e.g.,

- hayaː hatay mohnaː ‘Hey, Mohan’
- hazː haːyː hatay rahmaːːn ‘Hey, Rahman’
- hayaː hatay šiːlay ‘Hey Shiela’

The honorific or polite forms of interjections of address are used in formal relationships and for showing respect for the addressee. The singular and plural forms of honorific or polite forms are same:

- heː talihaz
- haːsaː hatimaːhraː
- haːlaːsːaː talimaːhraː
- talisaː hatijinaːb
- hatihaz talijinaːb

These interjections may optionally be followed by first names, last names or professional titles of the addressee with honorific terms like jiː or \( sā:b \), e.g.,

- heː haːsaː/hatilaːsːaː mohan jiː ‘Hey Mr. Mohan’
- heː hataːlːasːaː daːr sāːb ‘Hey’ Mr. Dar’
- heː hatimaːhraː/talimaːhraː ranaːː sāːb ‘Hey’, Mr. Raina’

It is to be noted that haːsaː/ hatilaːsːaː and talisaː: are used in informal relationship as well. They are used while addressing spouses, youngsters and juniors as well for showing affection and intimacy. hataːlː as or haz is used for addressing Muslims and hatimaːhraː or maːhraː: for addressing Hindus. hati jinaːb or jinaːb may be used for addressing Hindus as well as Muslims. Honorific terms like jiː or \( sā:b \) are also added to full names, first names or first plus middle names of persons. jiː is mostly used with
The choice in the use of modes of address necessarily depends on various types of inter-personal relationships among the people. The context of situation and various emotional factors play a prominent role in the choice of modes of address. The topic or subject of discourse, particular occasion, age, sex, social status and dyadic relationships of the participants are important factors, which determine their use. Thus, modes of address cannot be studied in isolation.

2.2. Kinship Terms of Address

A number of terms of address are formed from kinship terms by adding some honorific terms. The vocative case suffix –a: for masculine singular, -i for feminine singular and –av for plural are added to these compound terms when used as modes of address. In the examples given below, different honorific terms are added as case suffixes to the kinship term bo:y ‘brother’ changing it into a term of address, e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{bo:y + to:th} & = bɔ:yo:th + a: = bɔ:yo:tha:n \\
\text{bo:y + ji:} & = bɔ:yi:j + a: = bɔ:yi:j:a \\
\text{bo:y + ja:n} & = bɔ:ya:n + a: = bɔ:ya:n:a \\
\text{bo:y + jigur} & = bɔ:yi:jigur + a: = bɔ:yi:jigur:a \\
\end{align*}
\]

Note that whereas all the basic honorific terms added to the kinship term bo:y ‘above’ stand for the meaning ‘dear’ or ‘dear one’, some of them have different literal meanings. They are: la:l ‘ruby’ ja:n ‘good’, ra:j ‘king’, ga:š ‘light’, jigur ‘heart’. The terms ji: and sa:b (sa:hi:b) are from Hindi-Urdu.

These terms of address are used not only for an elder brother, but may be used for cousins, uncles or other elder males for whom respect is intended. Similarly, a number of honorific terms and vocative case suffix -i: are added to beni ‘sister’ while forming terms of address, e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{beni + to:th} & = bɛni:to:th + i: = bɛni:to:th:i \\
\text{beni + go:š} & = bɛni:go:š + i: = bɛni:go:š:i \\
\text{beni + dyed} & = bɛni:dyed + i: = bɛni:dyed:i \\
\text{beni + jigir} & = bɛni:jigir + i: = bɛni:jigir:i \\
\text{beni + ji:} & = bɛni:j + i: = bɛni:j:i \\
\end{align*}
\]

These terms are not used only for elder sister but for other relations of cousins, aunts, or elderly women for whom respect is intended.

Similarly, a number of terms of address are used independently for elder kinsmen, distant relations and persons for whom respect or affection is intended. Terms of address used for male addressees like bab, la:l (sa:b), ja:thi (sa:b), ka:kh, ga:ši, to:th, bo:bji: may be used for father, grandfather, uncle, elder brother, elder cousin or for any person for whom respect or affection is intended. Similarly, some terms of address used for females like ded, jigir, ba:bi:, ja:thi:, ka:kan, di:di:, etc., may be used for elder kinsmen or distant relations, or for persons for whom respect or affection is intended. These terms of address are used in a liberal sense. These terms are used not only for kinsmen or distant relations, but also for unrelated persons to show respect or affection.

2.3. Second Person Pronouns of Address

There are two main types of second pronouns of address: singular and plural. Singular honorific and plural (both honorific as well as non-honorific) forms are the same, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case</td>
<td>Non-honorific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>tsi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>tse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the possessive case, there is gender and number concord with the head of the nominal group or object, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd sg</td>
<td>co:n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pl</td>
<td>tuhund</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

- co:n kalam ‘your pen’
- ca:n’ kalam ‘your pens’
- ca:n’ gar ‘your watch’
- ca:ni gari ‘your watches’
- tuhund me:z ‘your table’
- tuhind’ me:z ‘your tables’
- tuhinz kursi: ‘your chair’
- tuhinz kursiyi ‘your chairs’
The non-honorific singular forms of pronouns are generally used in informal situations to address very close friends, youngsters, spouses and people of lower social status. Sometimes these forms of address are used for addressing elders as well as those for whom respect is intended, particularly female members of one's family i.e. mother, sister, etc. in informal situations. The honorific forms of address are used for addressing close friends, youngsters and spouses as well in formal situations or for showing extra love, affection or being sarcastic in certain situations.

The usage of modes of address should therefore, be studied keeping in view the contextual situation and dyadic relations between the addressee and addressee.

3. Dyadic Relations

There are three main dyadic relations: (a) social, (b) professional and (c) Familial.

3.1. Social Dyadic Relations

Social dyadic relations are the result of the meeting between two strangers or friends. Individuals in a given society play different types of roles when they come in contact with each other. The socio-cultural, economic and religious patterns of a society bring individuals and families close to each other. These contacts result in free interaction and the development of interpersonal relationships between individuals. The interpersonal relationships between teacher-student, master-servant, friends, and strangers, etc., determine the usage of modes of address under this category, e.g.,

Teacher – Student

1.  tsi kar yi kə:m
    you do this work
    'Do this work.'

2.  yi kə:m kar
    'Do this work.'

Student – Teacher

3.  bi ma:hra: kari yi kə:m
    I hon do-will this work
    I will do this work'

Master – Servant:

4.  (hayɔ) rahma:nə: ba:zri an dəd
    (hey) Rahman market-abl bring milk
    'Rahman, bring milk from the market.'

Servant-Master:

5.  me diyiv haz (toh') pə:si
    I-dat give (hon) (you) money
    'Please give me money.'

In the examples given above, a teacher uses non-honorific second person pronouns of address for his student and receives honorific term of address in return. In some situations, the teacher as well as master may use honorific terms/pronouns of address for a student and a servant respectively to show affection or appreciation e.g.,

Teacher - Student:

6.  behsə: pathar
    sit-polite down
    'Please sit down.'

7.  kə:m kariv
    work do-(hon)
    'Please do your work.'

Master - Servant:

8.  palav tshunsə: nəv
    clothes put on (hon) new
    'Please put on (your) new clothes.'

The teacher as well as the master while in anger may use the same honorific forms of address for addressing a student or servant respectively. Here the usage of such forms is sarcastic and reflects the anger of the addresser. e.g.,

9.  toh’ kariv panin’ kə:m
    You (Hon) do-Hon your-own work
    'Please do your own work.'

10.  toh’ mi hechinə:vi:v me
     you-Hon don’t teach-Caus to-me
     'Please do not teach me.'
The usage of modes of address amongst friends varies according to age, sex and context. Normally intimate friends (of either sex) address each other with non-honorific terms of address, but on certain formal occasions in the presence of others they may use honorific forms. Friends when young normally use non-honorific forms of address and switch over to formal ones as they grow older. Strangers of an equal social status normally use honorific forms of address in addressing each other. The addresser may use non-honorific forms of address as well, if he or she is aware that he/she will receive honorific forms of address in return.

3.2 Professional dyadic relations

Professional dyadic relations develop in different ways. Interaction between people belonging to same or different professions is very common. Sometimes, professional and social dyadic relations are merged together. Under the category of professional dyadic relations, we may study the interactions, which take place between of official and a non-of official, a shopkeeper and a customer, a doctor and a patient, the contractor and a laborer, etc.

Two officials who belong to the same rank or status address each other by first plus second names or by surnames plus honorific terms like ji:, sā:b, e.g.,

sohan la:l ji: ‘Mr. Sohan Lal’
rā:na:ji: ‘Mr. Raina’
dar sā:b ‘Mr. Dar’
šah sā:b ‘Mr. Shah’
ayu:b pare: sā:b ‘Mr. Ayub Parey’

The names may optionally be preceded by appropriate honorific interjections of address. The modes of address used among officials and non-officials in their conversations may be of different kinds, depending on social status or position of the participants. A non-official usually addresses an official with honorific modes of address. He may also receive formal or non-polite terms of address in return. e.g.,

Non-official

11. toh’ kariv haz/machra: me pēth meharbā:ni: you-Hon do-Hon me on kindness ‘Please favor me with your kindness.’

12. toshi jina:b k’a: gatshi to-you-Hon what want ‘What would you like to have?’

13. tōhi k’a: haz/machra: na:v to-you-Hon what Hon name ‘What is your name?’

Official - non-official

14. toh’ mi bariv parvay, bi kari tuhinz kā:m you do not feel worry I do-Fu your work ‘Please don’t worry, I will do your work.’

15. tsi mi kar me pare:šā:n you-non-Hon don’t do-to me perturb ‘Don’t perturb me.’


A patient and a doctor, or a client and a lawyer, who are involved in conversations, may also use different types of modes of address. In the professional relationship, a patient and a client will always use honorific forms of address and will receive the type of terms of address in return depending on their social status, e.g.,

Patient - doctor:

17. ḍakṭār sā:b me (jina:b) chu kalas do:d doctor-Hon to-me(Hon) is headache ‘Doctor, I have a headache.’

18. toh’ diytav haz/machra: dava: you give-Hon Hon to-me medicine ‘Please give me medicine.’

19. bi kotsi laṭi haz/machra: khemi dava: dāshas I how many times-Hon eat-fut medicine day-dat ‘How many times a day should I take medicine?’

Doctor - patient:

20. yi raṭiv dava: this take-Hon medicine ‘Please take this medicine.’
21. ba:zr aniv dava:
market-AbI bring-Hon medicine
‘Please bring medicine from the market.’

22. tse kh’o:tha: kã:h dava:
you-non-hon ate-you any medicine
‘Have you taken any medicine?’

Client - lawyer:
23. (toh’ ) li:khiv haz/ma:hra: darkha:s
(you-Hon) write Hon application
‘Please write the application.’

24. bi jina:b dimo:vi säriy pö:si
I hon will-give-you- whole money
‘I will give you the whole amount of money.’

25. toh’ kœriv haz/ma:hara: meharb
you-Hon do-Hon kindness
‘Please be kind.’

Lawyer - client:
26. toh’ tra:viv yi kath me peòh
you-Hon leave this matter me on
‘Leave this matter for me.’

27. tsi di me tayœ:ri: karni
you-non-hon give me preparation do-Inf
‘Let me prepare myself (for it)’

28. tse chuy pa:n ada:šats manz hœ:zir gatshun
you-Dat-non-hon have self court-Loc in attend go-Inf
‘You will have to attend the court in person.’

3.3. Familial Dyadic Relations

The term ‘family’ in Kashmiri society is used in a liberal sense. It actually represents a net-work of related families on both paternal and maternal sides. The use of modes of address in this category depends purely on the type of relationship and age of the participants. The dyadic relational sets of father-son, father - daughter, mother-son, mother-daughter, brother-brother, brother-sister, sister-sister and husband-wife are basic ones. The kinship relations on both the paternal and maternal sides are considered at par. Also, in the forms of address, the distinction between true siblings and cousins is not maintained. Furthermore, father, father-in-law, paternal and maternal uncles are of the same status; mother, mother-in-law, maternal and paternal aunts are of the same status; elder brother, brother-in-law are of an equal category; elder sister or sister-in-law are of an equal category; son and son-in-law, daughter and daughter-in-law belong to the same kinship status. Here we will present examples of some of the above familial dyadic relations:

Father-Son

Normally, the father addresses his son by the first name or first plus middle name, or by diminutive first name or nick-name (known as family pet name as well). The father uses the non-honorific pronominal form to address him, e.g.,

29. mœhnà:/mohan la:la:/mohanjia: ba:zr an sabzi:
Mohan/Mohan Lal/Mohanji market-AbI bring vegetables
Mohan, bring vegetables from the market’

30. tsi chukhna: bo:za:n?
you-non-hon are not listening
‘Aren’t you listening?’

In these examples, the father may use Mohan (first name), Mohan Lal (first plus middle name) or Mohan ji (diminutive first name or family pet name) for his son. The choice is determined by certain factors in certain situations. If his son is grown up and has attained higher social status or position, and while addressing him in the presence of others (his son’s colleagues, friends, etc.), the father is likely to use polite forms of address. In certain situation, the use of honorific or polite forms of address may denote that father’s anger, or of his being sarcastic, e.g.

31. toh’ chiv bòd’ mœhniv bane:mit’
you-Hon have great man become
‘You have become a great man.’

32. ahansà: ta:th’a: mey hechina:v
yes-hon dear one, to-me teach-Caus
‘Yes, dear, you will teach me.’

A son always addresses his father by the particular mode of address used for him in his family. The common modes of address are ta:th’a:ji:, bo:š ji:, la:li šær, bab, ga:ši, ga:ša: ji: pa:pa: ji:, pita: ji:, etc. In the
higher society, a son always uses honorific pronouns of address for addressing his father. e.g.,

33. bo:bji: me diyiv (ma:hra:) pā:sī
babuji me-Dat give-Hon money
‘Babuji, please give me money.’

As pointed out above, whereas a son-in-law has the same kinship status as the son in family. The relationship is of formal type in the beginning, and the use of reciprocal honorific modes of address including honorific pronominal forms is very common. In due course of time, the father-in-law may use informal modes of address for his son-in-law.

Father-Daughter

A father normally addresses his daughter by her first name, or diminutive first name or nickname (known as family pet name as well). He may add the suffix ji: with her first name after she is married or in the presence of others for showing deep affection, e.g.,

34. kā:tay tsī:v boriya:n
Kanta you knit pullover
‘Kanta you knit a pullover.’

35. kāti tā:thi: m:en’ kāmiz an
Kanta-dear mine shirt bring
‘Kanta, bring my shirt.’

36. babli: yi kita:b ni
Babli this book take
‘Babli, take this book.’

In the above examples, the first name is used in sentence (33), tā:th is added in sentence (34), and in sentence (35) babli: a nickname (family pet name) is used instead. The daughter, like the son, always uses a particular mode of address for him, which is common in her family and uses honorific pronominal forms, e.g.,

37. bo:bji: toh’ kheyiv bati
Babuji you-Hon eat meals
‘Babuji, please have your meals.’

The father-in-law addresses his daughter-in-law with the family pet name given to her by her in-laws (like p’a:ri:, tā:thi:, ra:nī:, etc.) or by her first name with suffix ji:, etc. Very rarely, he would use honorific pronounal form of address. The daughter-in-law in return always uses kinship terms of address or the particular family pet mode of address for him as used by her husband in addressing his father. She also uses honorific prononomial forms, e.g.,

38. p’a:ri:, ca:y bana:v
pyari: tea prepare
‘Pyari, prepare tea.’

39. ra:nī: tsi chalun yi daj
Rani you-non-hon wash-Inf this handkerchief
‘Rani, wash this handkerchief.’

40. bo:bji: toh’ kheyiv ma:hra: bati
‘Babuji you-Hon eat-Hon Hon meals
‘Babuji, please take your meals.’

41. la:l sa:b bi gatshīha: bazar
Lala saheb I will-go-Cond market
‘Lala Sa:b, I would like to go to market.’

In some families, a daughter-in-law in the beginning does not talk with her father-in-law and only gradually starts conversation with him.

Mother-Son/daughter

Mother always uses first name or diminutive first name or the nickname (or family pet name) when addressing her son or daughter a son/daughter, e.g.,

42. ra:mji:/bo:ba: me k’uth anizi ša:l
Ramji/Babu, me-dat for bring shawl
Ramji/Boba bring a shawl for me.’

43. ši:lay tā:thi: garic kām kar
Shiela/Tathi (dear one) home-gen work do
‘Shiela/Tathi do your household work.’

A son/daughter addresses his/her mother by the particular mode of address used for mother in the family like, ka:kan’ bā:bi: jīgir, māmī:, etc. A son/daughter normally uses familiar or non-honorific pronominal forms to address even in formal situations.

Brother-brother/sister
The elder brother usually addresses his young brother or sister by his or her first name or by the first name plus suffixes ji: or sa:b indicating affection or by the nick name or family pet name. These terms of address are same as used by the parents in the family to address youngsters. The elder brother also uses non-honorific pronominal forms of address. The younger brother or the sister always uses the honorific terms such as ba:ysa:b, ba:yto:thi, ta:thi, etc. and honorific pronominal forms of address. In case, the age difference between the elder and younger brother is not much, they may address each other by their first names at the young age and use reciprocal non-honorific pronominal forms of address. As they grow up, the younger brother/sister switches to the honorific modes of address. The elder brother may also use honorific form of address in some formal situations. This kind of switchover may not occur in the families of lower social status. Examples are given below:

44. rahma:na/bo:ba: az chuya: ka:le:j gatshun?
Rahman/Babu, today have-to college go-Inf
‘Rahman/Babu, do you have to go to college today?’

45. ra:jay/sa:bay tsı kar a:ykah saku:li
Raj/Saba you-non-hon when came school-Abl
‘Raj/Saba, when did you come from school?’

Sister-Sister/brother

Elder sister uses the same modes of address for her younger sister or brother as are used by other elder (including parents) in the family for her younger brother or sister. Normally any of the following terms of address: beniji:, beniga:s, benijigın, ta:thi:, di:di:, etc. are used for addressing elder sister in a particular family. The younger sister or brother addresses the elder sister by honorific pronominal forms very rarely, or in formal situations only. Normally non-honorific pronominal forms of address are used. Some examples of the usage of these modes of address are given as under:

46. di:di: me ditı panı’ gor
Didi to-me give your watch
‘Didi, give me your watch.’

47. bo:ba: tse chaya: nav da:j
Boba you-dat have new handkerchief
‘Boba, do you have a new handkerchief?’

Husband-wife

There are no formal modes of address used by the husband for his wife or by the wife for her husband. In upper class society, couples belonging to younger generation address each other by their first names. Sometimes, a wife may not use the name of the husband directly. She may use his surname or other professional titles with honorific suffixes like dar sa:b, da:kta:r sa:b, vaki:ı sa:b, etc. Whereas a husband usually uses non-honorific pronominal forms of address addressing his wife, he may get some honorific terms of pronominal use in return.

To conclude, the use of modes of address is directly related to the socio-cultural patterns of a given society at a given time. As the society changes the linguistic behavior too undergoes a change. The use of language in society reflects the social and cultural structure of the people who use the language in communication. There are various types of modes of address prevalent in Kashmiri. They can be studied from different points of view. We have discussed main types of the modes of address as: interjections of address, kinship terms of address, and second person pronominal usage from the point of view of their actual use in the Kashmiri society. As illustrated above, the use of modes of address is determined by different dyadic relations: social, professional and familial.
Modes of Greetings

1. Introduction

Modes of greetings have an important place in the sociology of language. In every greeting situation, two persons come in contact in a particular ethnic situation, which is characterized by means of some paralinguistic features like gestures accompanied with certain statements.

2. Types of Greetings

There are two types of greetings in any language: verbal and non-verbal. Most of the time the greeting is incomplete without some kind of non-verbal behaviour implicit or explicit in the use of any mode of the greeting. It may be a nod, or a smile or a twinkle in the eye. Verbal greetings are not complete or effective in isolation unless they are accompanied with appropriate gestural expressions.

Non-verbal behaviour appears as an indispensable part of greeting that is often implied in the expression itself. For example, namaste ‘I am bowing before you’ denotes an activity of non-verbal behaviour. Often the responses of various greeting formulas are fixed and stereotyped and clearly laid down in the books of etiquette.

Greeting expressions are not necessarily communication of information. Greeting expressions in most of the languages including Kashmiri consist of a kind of medical diagnosis, an inquiry about one’s health as: va:ray chiva:? ‘How are you?’ The literal meaning of a greeting in most cases is completely irrelevant.

Greetings are not merely usages of adherence to certain norms and rules laid down by etiquettes. They are more than this. They are a kind of social rituals in which you generally say what the other person expects you to say.

2.1. Gestural / Non -Verbal Greetings

Every culture has its own set of formalized greeting expressions and/or non-verbal greeting gestures like kissing, embracing, bowing, saluting with hand, hand shake, folding hands, prostration, touching feet etc.

2.2. Predictability of Response

Greetings in Kashmiri from the point of view of predictability fall within two broad categories: closed and open. The closed greetings are those which have only one fixed response, where the predictability is cent percent. On the other hand, the open greetings can have more than one response. They have limited predictability. Examples of both types are given below.

2.2.1. Closed (Maximum predictability)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Greeting</th>
<th>Fixed Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status equals</td>
<td>namaska:r</td>
<td>namaska:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>namaste</td>
<td>namaste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindu to Muslim</td>
<td>a:da:b (ariz)</td>
<td>a:da:b (ariz)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim to Muslim</td>
<td>asla:m alaikum</td>
<td>va:laikum sala:m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satus unequals</td>
<td>namaska:r</td>
<td>namaska:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ada:b (ariz)</td>
<td>ada:b (ariz)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>asla:m alaikum</td>
<td>va:laikum sala:m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.2. Open (Limited predictability)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Greeting</th>
<th>Alternative Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status equals</td>
<td>va:ray chiva:?</td>
<td>va:ray, toh’ chiva: va:ray?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Are you fine?’</td>
<td>‘Fine. How are you?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dor koth</td>
<td>‘Be strong!’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lasiv</td>
<td>‘Live long!’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d’aki bod</td>
<td>‘Be lucky!’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>potr ga:$</td>
<td>‘May your sons live!’ etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notice that the alternative responses are of two types: formal and non-formal. The expressions used for alternative greetings may inquire about general well-being of the addressee, indicate respect towards the addressee, indicate affection, good wishes or blessings from elders for younger ones. More examples are given below:

Greeter
va:ray chiva:? ‘How are you?’

Greetee
meharb:n:ni: ‘Due to your kindness, I’m fine
c:ni daykh:ri ‘Due to your blessings (I’m fine).’
Unlike English, Japanese, Chinese, etc. the verbal greetings in Kashmiri like Hindi-Urdu are the same for different times of the day. There are no special phrases referring to morning, evening, etc.

Greeting phrases related to ‘peace’ are found in the Muslim greeting phrases:

- **salam alaikum** ‘Peace be with you.’
- **va:laikum sala:m** ‘And unto you be peace.’

Most frequent greetings are related to queries about one’s health and well-being. The phrases such as the following are very frequently used:

- **va:ray chivay?** ‘How are you?’
- **k’a:s /G5C va:ray chivay?** ‘How are you?’
- **s:ri: chivay va:ray?** ‘Are all O.K/alright?’
- **t:hi:k (p:at’h’) chivay?** ‘Are you O.K?’

The replies of the greetings also refer to the greeter’s health, happiness, well-being and longevity of life. The replies used by elders take the form of blessings:

- **a:dika:r (< adhika:r)** ‘Power?Authority!’
- **or zuv** ‘Healthy!’
- **dor koth** ‘Good health!’
- **sadbi:sa:l vumir** ‘One hundred twenty years of age.’
- **rumi rešun a:y** ‘As long life as that of a great Rishi!’
- **deki bod** ‘Lucky!’
- **lasiv** ‘May you live long!’
- **patri ga:$** ‘Enjoy the pleasure of children!’
- **ach pur:** ‘May your eyesight last for ever!’

### 3. Sociolinguistic Variables

The greetings are determined by certain sociolinguistic variables of time, space, participants, channel and the communicative intent.

Sometimes the same person may use different modes of greetings for different persons at different time. A beggar near a Muslim shrine uses the greetings appropriate of the name of the saint or shrine such as:

- **dasgi:r karinay athirot** ‘May Dasgir protect you!’
- **rešmo:l thavinay va:ri** ‘May the Rishi keep you happy!’

The same beggar may use different set of terms near a Hindu shrine like:

- **m:aj bagvati: thavinay va:ri** Or
  - **bagwati karinay anigrah** ‘May Mother goddess protect you!’

Time also plays a role when two friends meet after a long time, the greetings of **namaste/namaska:r, a:da:b (ariz)** are repeated as:

- **namaste namaste**
- **namaskar namaskar**
- **a:da:b a:da:b**

A certain type of greeting may be appropriate at one place but different at another. A teacher is greeted by his students by standing up in the classroom, but outside the class he/she may be greeted by folded hands, with hand salute or with a verbal greeting of **namaska:r, a:da:b(ariz)or sala:m a:laikum**. Participants are of two types: (a) where the greeter and the greetee are human-beings, (b) where the greeter is a human-being and the greetee a non-human: a deity, an animal or an inanimate object.

Greeting phrases of gods and goddesses are of different types. The phrases may be as follows:

- **jay šiv šankar** for Lord Shiva
- **he ra:m** for Lord Ram
- **he ra:dhe: šya:m** for Lord Krishna

Another mode of greeting is going around the idol of god or temple several times called **parikrama**.

Gender does play a role in the mode of greeting. The greetings between men and women are sometimes different from between the people of the same sex. Usually, women greet each other by the phrases ‘**vara:y chakhay/chivay?**’ and receive replies such as ‘**va:ray, tsi chakhay va:ray / toh’ chivay: va:ray?’ etc. Educated women do use the terms of greetings used usually by men such as: **namaska:r /namaste,alsa:m a:laikum** etc.

Age of the participants has a significant role. Following are the examples of greetings used by the participants belonging to different age groups:

#### Young person to older person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greeting</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>namaska:r</strong></td>
<td><strong>zindi ru:ziv/lasiv</strong> ‘live long’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>asla:m a:laikum</strong></td>
<td><strong>asla:m a:laikum</strong> or zuv/dor koth/d’aki bod</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Same age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>namaste / namaska:r</th>
<th>namaste / namaska:r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a:dab (ariz)</td>
<td>a:dab (ariz)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slala:m a:laikum</td>
<td>va:laikum sala:m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Elder to younger person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>va:ray chukha:?</th>
<th>namaska:r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘How are you?’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va:raya:?</td>
<td>toh’chiva: vara:y?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Are you fine?’</td>
<td>‘How are you?’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Young woman to elder woman

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>namaska:r</th>
<th>namaska:r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sala:m a:laikum</td>
<td>va:laikum sala:m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| bab lasun/ bo:y lasun/ | ra:ya:?
| dekibad          |                     |
| va:ray chakhay?   |                     |

Same age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>namaste/namaska:r</th>
<th>namaste/namaska:r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>asla:m a:laykum</td>
<td>va:laikum sala:m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bo:y lasun/bab lasun</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va:ray chakhay?</td>
<td>a:hni: va:ray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va:raya:?</td>
<td>asla:m a:laikum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:da:b (ariz)</td>
<td>a:da:b (ariz)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Usually the younger person greets the elders first. In certain situations, however, elders greet the younger by virtue of the latter’s social position including wealth, education and status.

There is no cast hierarchy followed in the mode of greetings. It is customary to greet a Brahmin priest or a Muslim priest first irrespective of his age.

Education, occupation and social status play a prominent role in the greetings. A highly educated person prefers to be greeted with ‘Good morning’ or a handshake or namaste rather than a greeting phrase like va:ray chiva:? 

3.1. Deferential Order of Greeting

The non-verbal greetings can be listed in the diminishing order of deference as follows: Prostration – bending on feet, touching feet – touching knee – folding hands – shaking hands – raising hand-nod. Kashmiri Hindus usually prostrate or bend on feet, or touch feet only of saints. It is becoming common among the younger generation under the influence of other communities outside the valley to touch the feet of elders, especially at the time of their meetings after long period or at the time of departure on travel.

The greeting terms namaska:r / namaste etc. are accompanied by paralinguistic features of pause, stress, tone, volume and facial expression.

3.2. Relationship

Relationship is usually studied in terms of intimate versus non-intimate or formal versus informal depending on the social distance between the participants and the duration and frequency of contact. Intimacy may be of two types: symmetrical and asymmetrical. The symmetrical relations exist between status equals or friends of the same age group. Examples of the use of modes of greetings in symmetrical relations are as follows:

vanas: va:raya:? ‘Tell me, are you fine?’

The greetings are used in the asymmetrical intimate relationships between father/mother and son/daughter, elder brother and younger brother or between non-kins. Examples are as follows:

valiv gobra:, bihiv yet’an
‘Please come and sit over here.’

vans: he: kar a:yivi?
‘Hey, tell me when did you come?’

The elders may use the polite expressions of address while being ironic. The father may address his son as follows:

la:zh sbo k’a:zi gayi ni az sku:l
‘Lord, why didn’t you go to school today?’

Communicative intent or purpose of interaction forms an important underlying factor in the exchange of greetings. It is customary to greet a person with whom one is not acquainted for expressing respect or obtaining a favour or help.

a:da:b ariz jina:b, me:n’ ko:m kar’tav haz
‘Greetings, please do my work.’
Sometimes, they are used for asking for pardon. It is not uncommon to say,

\[ \text{na\textipa{h}:ra:/, bi chusay gul' ga\textipa{n}:\textipa{a}:n, m\textipa{\alpha}:\phi:/ diz'am sir} \]

’I am-3-hands-folded forgive me. ‘I am folding my hands before you and seek your forgiveness.’

Modes of greetings are correlated with the modes of address. The modes of greetings are used before a conversation is started and also before parting. The greeting forms are mostly used first by the youngsters for elders or by juniors to seniors. The greetee then reciprocates by the use along with the modes of greetings. The forms of address may either precede or follow the greeting forms.

**Modes of Address + Verbal Greeting**

- da\textipa{\alpha}:\textipa{k}ta\textipa{r} sa\textipa{b}/, namaste/namaska:r/a\textipa{r}/da\textipa{r} ari\textipa{z}
- ma\textipa{s}t\textipa{r} ji\textipa{r}:/, namaska:r/a\textipa{r}/da\textipa{r}(ari\textipa{z})/sa\textipa{l}:a:m (a\textipa{l}:aikum)
- ba\textipa{y} sa\textipa{b}/, namaska:r

**Verbal Greetings + Modes of Address**

- namaska:r ma\textipa{h}:ra:/ma\textipa{s}t\textipa{r} ji:\
- a\textipa{r}/da\textipa{r} ari\textipa{z} jina\textipa{b}/ha\textipa{z}:u\textipa{r}
- asla:m a\textipa{l}:aikum jina\textipa{b}

Modes of greetings and address are used as opening phrases for conversations too. The opening phrases in Kashmiri may be of the following type:

- to\textipa{h}i kot ta\textipa{m} chu gatshun
  you-dat where up to is go-inf
  ‘Where do you intend to go?’

- kats ma\textipa{h}:ra:/jina\textipa{b} baje:yi
  how much Hon.strurck-time
  ‘What is the time, please?’

- az ma\textipa{y} ru\textipa{d}
  today possible-part fall-fu rain
  ‘It looks like rain today.’

---

### Reduplication

1. **Introduction**

In linguistic studies, the term Reduplication is generally used to mean repetition of any linguistic unit such as a phoneme, morpheme, word, phrase, clause or the utterance as a whole. The process of Reduplication at all these levels is very significant both from the grammatical as well as semantic point of view. The repetition types of these linguistic units may be broadly classified under two categories: repetition at the (a) expression level, and repetition at the (b) contents or semantic level. The reduplication of these linguistic units is a very common feature in Kashmiri. The repetition at both these levels is mainly used for emphasis, generality, intensity, or to show continuation of an act. In certain cases, the repetition of a particular linguistic unit is obligatory. Here an attempt is made to indicate the process of Reduplication at the grammatical level as well as at the semantic level. Complete reduplication of morphemes, words and phrases are discussed first. This is followed by a discussion of partial reduplication of words, which are best known as Echo-words, Onomatopoeic words, which involve complete reduplication.

2. **Repetition at the Expression Level**

At the expression level, the word classes, which are repeated include nouns pronouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. The repetition of single morphemes or words of all form classes are frequently used in utterances. The examples of these repetition types are given below:

2.1. **Nouns and pronouns**

A number of nouns and pronouns are repeated in utterances very frequently:

1. šur’ šur’ a\textipa{y} s\textipa{\alpha}:ri\textipa{y} va\textipa{p}as
   children children came all back
   ‘All the children returned.’

2. su chu sombra\textipa{v}:a\textipa{n} tilimi tilimi
   he is collecting pieces pieces
   ‘He is collecting by pieces.’
3. me gav zari zari tamis vuchith
   I-erg was pained he-dat see-cp
   'I was pained to see him.'

4. prath kâ:h chu pa:nas pa:nas va:tâ:n
   everyone is self-fat take care-pr
   'Everybody takes care of himself.'

5. pâ:si pâ:si korith sombra:v’ tom’ va:riyah d’a:r
   paisa paisa do-cp collected he-erg much money
   'He raised a lot of money penny by penny.'

6. yus vus tsi:r’ a:v su su tuliv athi thod
   who who-nome-rel late came he cor raise hands up
   'Those who came late may raise their hands.'

7. yemis yemis sku:l chu gatshun tamis tamis pazi basi khasun
   who -dat rel school is go-inf cor-dat should bus-dat board-inf
   'Those who have to go to school should board the bus.'

In the example given above, repetition in the sentences 1, 6 and 7 is used for emphasis and generality.

2.2. Adjectives

Reduplication of adjectives is very frequently used in a number of cases for emphasis.

Examples:

8. ja:n ja:n tsû:th’ tsariv
   good good apples sort out
   'Please sort out good apples.'

9. yi v’âth v’âth ku:r cha ka:lji pari:an
   this fat-f fat-f girl is college-abl read-pr
   'This fat girl studies in a college.'

10. yimi cha lôkci lôkci kô:ri
    these are small small girls
    'These are small girls.'

11. pâ:sh pâ:sh thul di prath kô:si
    five five eggs give everyone-dat
    'Give five eggs each to every one.'

12. me chu tot tot bati khâš kara:n
    I-dat is hot hot food like do-pr
    'I like hot food.'

13. yi z’u:th z’u:th lađkî chu m’a:ni ga:muk
    this tall tall boy is my village-gen
    'This tall boy belongs to my village.'

14. yim tshô’ lađkî chi yetî para:n
    these short short (statured) boys are here-loc study-pr
    'These short stature boys do study here.'

   Repetition in the sentences 8 and 11 is obligatory. The Reduplication in these sentences indicate plurality.

2.3. Verbs

In a number of grammatical constructions, the repetition of verbs is obligatory. Verbs also are reduplicated optionally in certain constructions. Following are examples of sentences where verbs are obligatorily repeated:

15. me bu:z re:diyo bati kh’ava:n kh’ava:n
    I-dat listened radio food eat-pre eat-pr
    'I listened to radio while eating my meals.'

16. asa:n asa:n tsol tamis oś ni:ri:th achwak in’
    laugh-pr laugh-pr fled him tears came-cp eyes through
    'His eyes were filled with tears while laughing.'

17. tamis log dab do:ra:n do:ra:n
    he-dat had fall run-pr rum-pr
    'He fell down while running.'

18. su a:v garî vada:n vada:n
    he came home cry-pr cry-pr
    'He came home while crying.'

19. phut ba:l ginda:n ginda:n log tâmis khâras
    football play-pr play-pr hurt he-dat foot-dat
    'While playing football he hurt his foot.'

20. ca:y cava:n cava:n o:s su ma:ji si:th’ kathi kara:n
    tea drint-pr drink-pr was he mother-dat talk do-pr
    'While drinking his tea he was talking with his mother.'
21. təm’ kor panun pən kharəb philm vəch’ vəch’
   he-er did self’s self spoil films having seen seen
   ‘He ruined himself by watching movies.’
22. hatibazi kita:bi pər’ pər’ ti chuni tas tasle: yıvə:n
   hundreds books read too isn’t he-dat satisfaction come-pr
   ‘He does not feel satisfied even after reading hundreds of books.’

Repetition of verbs in the sentences is obligatory. The sentences will
be ungrammatical if repetitions of the verbs are deleted.

Adverbs
The repetition of some adverbs is compulsory and it is optional in some
cases:

23. yi bu:dί chu paka:n va:ri va:ri
   this old man is walk-pr slow slow
   ‘This old man walks slowly.’
23a. *yi bu:dί chu paka:n va:ri

24. rəmι chu asa:n zo:ri zo:ri
   Ram is laugh-pr loud loud
   ‘Ram laughs loudly.’
24a. rəmι cha acə:n zo:rt

25. bi tsa:s kuthis manz lətι lətι
   I entered room-dat in slow slow
   ‘I entered the room slowly.’
25a. *bi tsa:s kuthis manz lətι

26. suban suban cha ti:r asa:n
   morning-abl morning-abl is cold be-pr
   ‘It is cold in the mornings.’
27. bi chus tər gatsha:n şəman şəman
   I am there go-pr evening-abl evening-abl
   ‘I go there in the evenings.’
27a. *bi chus tər gatsha:n şəman

28. su kapər’ kapər’ a:əv tə?
   he where from-abl came
   ‘Where from did he come?’
29. yot yot gə:s, tati tati bu:dί me təm’isind’tər:i:p
   wherever 2 went there-abl heard l-erg his/her praise
   ‘Wherever I went, I heard his/her praise.’
30. yapər’ yapər’ əs’ chi paka:n tim ti chi tapər’ paka:n
   wherever-abl we are walk-pr they also are there-abl walk-pr
   ‘Wherever we walk, they also take the same root.’
31. su chu manzi manzi yo:r yıvə:n
   he is sometimes 2 here come-pr
   ‘He comes here sometimes.’

2.4. Adverbs
The repetition of some adverbs is compulsory and it is optional in some
cases:

23 yi bu:dί chu paka:n va:ri va:ri
   this old man is walk-pr slow slow
   ‘This old man walks slowly.’
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   ‘Wherever we walk, they also take the same root.’
31. su chu manzi manzi yo:r yıvə:n
   he is sometimes 2 here come-pr
   ‘He comes here sometimes.’

Some types of one-word utterances may also be repeated in Kashmiri.
Repetition, here, is only for emphasis or persuasion. One-word utterances,
comprising the imperative forms of the verbs are often reduplicated.
Repetition of these items indicates an extra urge or persuasion of an act.
Examples are as follows:

32. gatsh gatsh ‘go’
   getshiv gatshiv ‘(Please) go.’
   an an ‘bring’
   aniv aniv ‘(Please) bring.’
   ni ni ‘take’
   niyivy niyivy ‘(Please) take.’
   di di ‘give’
   diyivy diyivy ‘(Please) give.’
   chal chal ‘wash’
   chalivy chalivy ‘(Please) wash.’

Question particles are also repeated in certain situations where the
person is curious to know about complete details. Examples:

33. kə: kə: ‘what’
    kus kus ‘who’
    kar kar ‘when’
    kus kus ‘who’
    kə: kə: ‘what’

2.5. Clauses and Phrases

Certain clauses or phrases are repeated in long utterances or narration by
both speaker and the listener. The repetition of such utterances breaks the
monotony of the narration, allows a pause for the listener to comprehend the situation, and also provides an opportunity for the speaker to express the facts and to change the style of narration. Examples:

34. torva: phikri?
   ‘Did you understand?’
35. buz:iva: toh?
   ‘Did you listen?’
36. tami patri k’a: sapud?
   ‘What happened afterwards?’
37. beyi k’a: sapud?
   ‘What else did happen?’

Clauses or phrases of the above type vary with the situation, context and persons involved in conversation.

3. Repetition at the Semantic Level

Repetition at the semantic level is not an unknown feature of the Kashmiri language. Different types of expressions involving repetition at the semantic level are used to express generality. Examples are as follows:

2.1 A number of synonymous compounds illustrate the phenomena of repetition at the semantic level as given below:

   pō :si ṭū:k
   ‘money in general.’
   kōḍ kaː th
   ‘work in general.’
   palav poːšak
   ‘dress.’

38. vōsi drōsi
   ‘hustle and bustle.’
   tsur: tsheph
   ‘theft.’
   yatsh patsh
   ‘belief’
   baːy baː rin’
   ‘brothers.’
   ts5zi daːyi
   ‘female servants.’
   bān bāː dav
   ‘relatives.’
   hakh hamsaːyi
   ‘neighbours.’
   bāni bāṭhi
   ‘pots.’
   šeːrun pāː run
   ‘to decorate.’

4. Reduplication of Words

Besides the reduplication types indicated above, reduplication may be studied with reference to the words, which form the basic unit for the process of reduplication. It is necessary to study all types of repetitions, which take place within the word as a unit. Repetition of a sequence of phonemes of the word stem may form either complete reduplication or partial reduplication. Examples of the complete reduplication within the word are as follows:

39. garigari
   ‘from house to house.’
   kharikhari
   ‘patting on animals.’
   vuzivuzi
   ‘temptation.’
   tharitthari
   ‘trembling.’
   maːtimāti
   ‘patting in praise or appreciation.’

In certain cases vowel /i/ is inserted before the word which is reduplicated, e.g.,

   tshraːtiːshraː’t
   ‘to be in trouble.’

In the study of the internal composition of the word, reduplication of phonemes is very crucial. If the stem is repeated completely it is called complete reduplication and if stem is repeated partially it is called partial reduplication.
5. Echo-Words

Reduplication in echo-words is always partial. In Kashmiri, the process of echo-formation is very common and simple. At the semantic level, echo-words give an additional meaning indicating ‘generally’ or the meaning of similar indicating, action, manner and quality etc., which is indicated by the original word stem. Therefore, we may add ‘and the like’ in the gloss of the echo-words. For example: po:n’ water, po:n’ vo:n’ ‘water and the like’. In the examples given below meanings of the original words have been given.

Echo-words are formed mainly by altering the first phoneme of the stem in the reduplication of the stem. This is a very common type of echo-word formation in Kashmiri. The following changes in vowels may be noted in the echo-formation:

(i) The Initial /v/ of the word stem is replaced by /p/ in the echo-word as in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Stem</th>
<th>Echo-Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>va:j po:j</td>
<td>ring vath path way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va:zi pa:zi</td>
<td>cook va:n pa:n shop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vā:gun pā:gun</td>
<td>egg plant va:zul pa:zul red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vuchun puchun</td>
<td>to see vaguv paguv a straw mat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va:dī pa:dī</td>
<td>promise vo:n’ po:n’ shopkeeper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) The initial /p/ and /ph/ of the word stem is replaced by /v/ as in the following examples of echo-words:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Stem</th>
<th>Echo-Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>po:n’ vo:n’</td>
<td>water po:š vo:š flower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pal va:</td>
<td>stone phal va:r fruit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phot vo:t</td>
<td>basket phand va:n deceit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phar vo:r</td>
<td>fur pho:n vo:n phone</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iii) The initial consonants other than /v/, /p/ and /ph/ of the word stem may be replaced by /v/, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Stem</th>
<th>Echo-Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kskur vskur</td>
<td>cock k:ur va:r girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kan’ van’</td>
<td>stone khar va:r donkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kh:am va:n</td>
<td>raw khor va:r foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gor va:r</td>
<td>watch gagur va:gar mouse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gulab vulab</td>
<td>rose co:r vo:r dumb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca:y va:y</td>
<td>tea co:n’ vo’n to drink</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iv) The initial consonant cluster is replaced by a single consonant /v/ in the echo-word. Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Stem</th>
<th>Echo-Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chalun va:</td>
<td>to wash cha:n va:n carpenter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cho:n vo:n</td>
<td>empty tshur va:r thief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsatun va:</td>
<td>to cut tshal va:r deceit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tshor vo:r</td>
<td>empty tsha:d v:ād search</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jom vo:m</td>
<td>Jammu ja:y va:y place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jy va:y</td>
<td>stream zor vo:r deaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zar va:r</td>
<td>money za:n va:n acquaintance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t’o:th v’oth</td>
<td>bitter t’hu: va:l egg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>th:mi va:ni</td>
<td>lid dan:di va:nḍi stick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dar va:r</td>
<td>fear to:ti vo:ti parrot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ta:j va:j</td>
<td>crown ta:r va:r wire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tha:l va:l</td>
<td>plate tham va:m pillar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>than’ va:n’</td>
<td>butter da:n va:n:i paddy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dəd va:d</td>
<td>milk da:s va:s servant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nalki valki</td>
<td>tap na:s va:s nose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bar va:r</td>
<td>door bat:i vati food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bas va:s</td>
<td>bus mo:zi vo:zi socks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mas va:s</td>
<td>hair ya:r va:r friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yad va:d</td>
<td>belly yec: v:ṛ wool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rath va:h</td>
<td>blood r:az va:r rope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rus’ va:r</td>
<td>Russia lu:r va:r stick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lot vo:t</td>
<td>tail shur vur child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ši:n vi:n</td>
<td>snow ša:m va:m evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sa:z va:z</td>
<td>music sir vir secret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soth voth</td>
<td>bund ha:š va:s mother-in-law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has vo:s</td>
<td>elephant ha:r va:r necklace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūma:ṭa;r va:m</td>
<td>tomatoes t:ṭh va:ṭh mat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(v) If the word stem starts with a vowel, /v/ is inserted in the initial position of the echo-word. Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Stem</th>
<th>Echo-Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>oḥ va:ch</td>
<td>eye as vo:s mouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amb vamb</td>
<td>mango ao:ni va:n:i mirror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:dath va:dath</td>
<td>habit isla:h visla:h shave</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Onomatopoeic Words

There exists an important referential relationship between the form and meaning of lexical items. In certain cases the sound sequence of the word in itself denotes the particular meaning of the form. In such examples the utterances of lexical items by themselves sound the meaning they stand for. Such forms of lexical items are known as onomatopoeic. In the ono-word, the sound of the word has a special significance which illustrates the meaning. The onomatopoeic words represent an imitation of a particular sound or imitation of an action along with the sound, etc. Some ono-words are reduplicated and others are not. Here are the examples of those, onomatopoeic words which are reduplicated. In the following examples, there is a complete reduplication:

- kir kir squeak of doors, windows etc.
- gir gir noise of the running of a vehicle
- thin’ thin’ noise of a bell
- gith gith noise of the running of a vehicle
- ci:riv ci:riv twittering of birds
- tik tik the ticking of watch
- ɗum ɗum beating of drums
- pir pir unnecessary talking
- pã: pã: noise of horn
- thu: thu: spitting
- bak bak unnecessary and constant talking
- vɔph vɔph barking of a dog.

7. Conclusion

As in other Indo-Aryan languages, Reduplication is a very productive process at both the grammatical as well as semantic levels in Kashmiri. We have illustrated the phenomenon at the expression as well as at the semantic levels. The reduplication is of two types: (i) complete reduplication of the morphemes, words, phrases etc. or (ii) partial as in echo-words. As indicated above, the reduplication is mainly used for emphasis, generality, intensity, or to show continuation of an act.
The lower-mid vowel /a/ changes into /a:/ if it is followed by a consonant and the vowel /i/ or /i:/.

(i) The low central long vowel /a:/ changes into mid central vowel /a/ in the final position of words:

a:ba:bi:  a:bad:i:  'population'
ta:ri:kh  ta:ri:kh  'date'
a:jiz  a:jiz  'fed up'
ta:ki:d  ta:ki:d  'to insist'
ta:vi:z  ta:vi:z  'amulet'
xa:tir  kha:tir  'treatment'
xa:li:  kha:li:  'empty'
ja:gi:r  ja:gi:r  'estate'
na:zir  na:zir  'an official'
ma:liš  ma:liš  'massage'
ra:zi:  ra:zi:  'willing'
ha:zir  ha:zir  'present'
va:ris  va:ris  'heir'
xalisi  khalisi  'only'
xariš  khar:riš  'a skin disease'
Galiban  ga:liban  'probably'

(ii) The high back vowel /u/ changes into back vowel /v/ in the initial position:

usta:d  yusta:d  'master'
umid  yumid  'hope'

(vii) The diphthong /au/ is replaced by the vowel /o:/

mauqa:  mo:ki  'opportunity'
da:r  do:r  'period'
naukar  no:kar  'servant'

2.1.2. Consonant changes

The following changes in consonants may be noted in Persian borrowed lexical items in Kashmiri:

(i) The uvular stop /q/ is replaced by velar stop /k/:

qad  kad  'height'
qara:r  kara:r  'rest'
qalam  kalam  'pen'
naqıl  nakıl  'copy'

(iv) Front vowels /i/ and /e/ changes into /yi/ and /ye/ respectively in the initial position:

isba:t  yisba:th  'prove'
itiba:d  yitiba:d  'unity'
itifa:q  yitipha:kh  'chance'
istima:l  yistima:l  'use'
imka:n  yimka:n  'possibility'
etiba:r  ye:tiba:r  'belief'

(v) The high back vowel /u/ changes into back vowel /v/ in the initial position:

xuda:  khoda:h  'God'
guna:  gona:h  'sin'
muhta:j  moh:ta:j  'needy'
Gula:m  gola:m  'servant'
surma:  surmi  'collyrium'
gula:b  gala:b  'rose'

(vi) The high vowel /u/ changes into /v/ in the initial position:

usta:d  yusta:d  'master'
umid  yumid  'hope'

(vi) The high back vowel /u/ changes into /v/ in the initial position:

usta:d  yusta:d  'master'
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(i) The uvular stop /q/ is replaced by velar stop /k/:

qad  kad  'height'
qara:r  kara:r  'rest'
qalam  kalam  'pen'
naqıl  nakıl  'copy'
The velar fricative /x/ is replaced by velar stop /kh/:

- xa:\ri\sh \kh\ri\sh 'itch'
- xa:s \kh\a:s 'particular'
- za:k \kh\a:k 'dust'
- xa:ka: \kh\a:ki 'a sketch'
- xa:m \kh\a:m 'raw'
- xa:mo:\$ \kh\a:mo:\$ 'silent'
- xabar khabar 'news'
- xara:b kharab:b 'bad'
- xu\$ kho\$ 'glad'

The voiced velar fricative /G/ is replaced by velar stop /g/:

- Gula:m gola:m 'servant'
- Gari:b gari:b 'poor'
- ba:G ba:g 'garden'
- Gam gam 'sorrow'
- Gali:z gali:z 'dirty'
- da:G da:g 'spot'

The voiced labio-dental fricative /f/ changes into voiceless aspirated bilabial stop /ph/:

- afsar a\fhsar 'officer'
- faqi:r phaki:r 'beggar'
- daftar daphtar 'office'
- Gaflat gaphlath 'neglect'

The voiceless unaspirated dental stop /t/ is replaced by /th/:

- Galat galath 'wrong'
- zahmat zahmath 'trouble'
- tija:rat tija:ratth 'business'
- minnat minath 'obligation'
- a:dat a:dath 'habit'
- šarbat šarbath 'juice'

(ii) The velar fricative /x/ is replaced by velar stop /kh/:

- xa:ri\$ kh\a:ri\$ 'itch'
- xa:s \kh\a:s 'particular'
- za:k \kh\a:k 'dust'
- xa:ka: \kh\a:ki 'a sketch'
- xa:m \kh\a:m 'raw'
- xa:mo:\$ \kh\a:mo:\$ 'silent'
- xabar khabar 'news'
- xara:b kharab:b 'bad'
- xu\$ kho\$ 'glad'

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- Gula:m gola:m 'servant'
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- ba:G ba:g 'garden'
- Gam gam 'sorrow'
- Gali:z gali:z 'dirty'
- da:G da:g 'spot'

(iv) The voiced labio-dental fricative /f/ changes into voiceless aspirated bilabial stop /ph/:

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- zahmat zahmath 'trouble'
- tija:rat tija:ratth 'business'
- minnat minath 'obligation'
- a:dat a:dath 'habit'
- šarbat šarbath 'juice'

The voiceless unaspirated velar stop /k/ is replaced by /kh/:

- na:zuk no:zukh 'delicate'
- šari:k šari:kh 'partner'
- maza:k maza:kh 'joke'
- ca:la:k ca:la:kh 'clever'
- po:ša:k po:ša:kh 'dress'
- pa:k pa:kh 'pure'

The dental unaspirated voiced stop /d/ is inserted in the following examples:

- bara:bari: bara:bardi 'equality'
- tanu:r tandu:r 'oven'

The dental unaspirated stop /t/ is lost when it is preceded by alveolar fricative /s/ or palatal /š/:

- a:bgo:št a:bgo:š 'meat soup'
- ka:ška:r ka:ška:r 'peasant'
- ya:da:št ya:da:š 'memory'
- mast mas 'intoxicated'
- daat khat dakhath 'signatures'
- zabardast zabardas 'strong'

The bilabial semi-vowel /v/ is lost if it is preceded by a consonant:

- darkhva:st darkha:s 'petition'
- barkhva:st barkha:s 'adjourn'
- khva:b kha:b 'dream'

The last consonant in a lexical item followed by a vowel /i:/ is palatalized and the vowel /i:/ is later dropped:

- ba:zi: ba:z 'game'
- sava:ri: savar 'ride'
- kursi: kurs 'chair'
- niša:ni: niša:n 'betrothal'

3. **Morphology**

Two main devices of affixation and compounding of the Persianized Kashmiri word-formation are briefly indicated here.
3.1 Affixation

Affixation of the morphemes may be divided into two categories: (1) prefixation of morphemes and (2) suffixation of morphemes.

3.1.1 Prefixation

Persian prefix + Kashmiri stem:

- be- (in the sense of ‘without’):
  - bepatsh ‘untrustworthy,’ bezuv ‘without life’ bevātir ‘without manners’
- ba- (in the sense of ‘with’):
  - ba:darim ‘with religious piety’
- har- (in the sense of ‘every’):
  - harkā:h ‘every one’ harja:yi ‘every place’
- bad- (in the sense of ‘bad’):
  - badzath ‘bad character’
- kam- (in the sense of ‘little’):
  - kamza:n ‘a little acquainted person’
- bar- (in the sense of ‘on’):
  - barz’av ‘on the tip of the tongue’

Kashmiri prefix + Persian stem:

- -da:r (in the sense of ‘with’):
  - lātida:r ‘with tail,’ chitida:r ‘with prints’

3.1.2 Suffixation

Persian stem + Kashmiri suffix:

- -an (locative case marker):
  - saha:ran ‘in the early morning,’ ša:man ‘in the evening’
- -as (dative case marker used with mas. sg. subjects):
  - maridas ‘to the male,’ a:mi:ras ‘to the rich,’ me:zas ‘to the table’
- -i (dative case marker used with feminine subject):
  - kita:bi ‘to a book’
- -an (dative case marker used with mas.pl. subjects):
  - gari:ban ‘the poor people’
- -vo:l (in the sense of ‘the person who owns’):
  - duka:nivol ‘the owner of a shop,’ kita:bivol ‘the owner of books’

PERSIAN LEXICAL BORROWINGS

- -pat’ (indicates particular ‘time’):
  - ša: mipat ‘in the evening’
- -tal (in the sense of ‘under’):
  - nazari:tal ‘under the sight’
- -gor (indicates ‘occupation’):
  - nakSIGOR ‘one who makes maps’

Kashmiri stem + Persian suffix

Persian provides model for deriving some grammatical forms in Kashmiri. Nouns of agency are formed at the Persian model by adding the suffixes –gor and –ci:; e.g.,

- g’avangor ‘one who sings’
- gindangor ‘one who plays’
- natsangor ‘one who dances’
- tabalci: ‘one who plays on tabla’
- a:phi:mc: ‘one who is addicted to opium’

Suffix -gi: is used to form abstract nouns, e.g.,

- ga:nigig ‘the act of procurer’
- badma:šigigi ‘the act of a rogue’.

Suffixes -ba:z, -mand and -za:di are used in forming modifiers from nouns, e.g.,

- do:khab:z ‘deceitful’
- ca:lda:z ‘crafty’
- pha:dy:mand ‘useful’
- a:ki:mand ‘wise’
- do:latmand ‘rich’
- darza:di ‘an offspring of Dars’.

Abstract nouns are formed from nouns of agency by adding i:

- ma:stari ‘teacher’
- ma:stari: ‘teachership’
- a:phsar ‘officer’
- a:phsari: ‘officership’
- da:ktar ‘doctor’
- da:ktari: ‘medical practice’
- ci:n ‘China’
- ci:ni: ‘Chinese’
### 3.2. Compounding

There are many examples of compounds formed by the combination of Persian and Kashmiri words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Persian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tsok a:taš</td>
<td>‘sour’</td>
<td>a:taš ‘fire’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modur kand</td>
<td>‘sweet’</td>
<td>kand ‘sugar candy’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>darim i:ma:n</td>
<td>‘faith’</td>
<td>darim ‘religion’ i:ma:n ‘faith’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kruhun siya:h</td>
<td>‘black’</td>
<td>siya:h ‘black’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mo:m ba’t</td>
<td>‘candle’</td>
<td>ba’t ‘a lamp’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### b. Persian + Kashmiri word compounds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Persian</th>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bakhiti bo’d</td>
<td>‘fortunate’</td>
<td>ba:kh ‘luck’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>di:n darim</td>
<td>‘faith’</td>
<td>di:n ‘faith’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saphe:d si:n</td>
<td>‘snow-white’</td>
<td>si:n ‘snow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mo:m vo:x</td>
<td>‘vax’</td>
<td>vo:x ‘vax’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4. Lexical Transfer

A large number of lexical items of Persian are transferred to Kashmiri and are used in the same sense as they are used in Persian. A partial list of such lexical items is given below:


### 5. Semantic Changes

A number of Persian borrowed lexical items in Kashmiri are semantically different in their use. In general, changes of meaning are of three types: expansion, contraction and totally different. Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persian</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alma:s</td>
<td>diamond</td>
<td>alma:s</td>
<td>sharp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:šna:i:</td>
<td>acquaintance</td>
<td>a:šna:i:</td>
<td>relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kahva:</td>
<td>coffee</td>
<td>kahvi</td>
<td>Kashmiri tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xala:s</td>
<td>free</td>
<td>khalasi</td>
<td>sorry, free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ga:v</td>
<td>ox, cow</td>
<td>ga:v</td>
<td>cow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zar</td>
<td>gold</td>
<td>zar</td>
<td>money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zang</td>
<td>belt, rust</td>
<td>zang</td>
<td>bag, rust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zabar</td>
<td>a vowel sign</td>
<td>zabar</td>
<td>accent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>za:r</td>
<td>weeping, groan</td>
<td>za:r</td>
<td>gambling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tar</td>
<td>wet, moist</td>
<td>tar</td>
<td>bud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ta:b</td>
<td>heat</td>
<td>ta:b</td>
<td>patience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da:s</td>
<td>sickle</td>
<td>da:s</td>
<td>threshold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dali:l</td>
<td>argument</td>
<td>dali:l</td>
<td>matter, story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da:d</td>
<td>justice</td>
<td>da:d</td>
<td>request</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da:m</td>
<td>snare, trap</td>
<td>da:m</td>
<td>sip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>darba:r</td>
<td>court</td>
<td>darba:r</td>
<td>office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na:saza:</td>
<td>improper</td>
<td>na:saza:</td>
<td>abuses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nam</td>
<td>dew moisture</td>
<td>nam</td>
<td>a nail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dargah</td>
<td>court</td>
<td>dargah</td>
<td>shrine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parta:</td>
<td>ray, light</td>
<td>parta:</td>
<td>influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma:h</td>
<td>month, moon</td>
<td>ma:h</td>
<td>a kiss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rasad</td>
<td>troop</td>
<td>rasad</td>
<td>ration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lab</td>
<td>lip, edge</td>
<td>lab</td>
<td>a wall</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following Persian borrowed lexical items in the register of law are frequently used in judicial contexts:

- jal:us ‘sitting’, jal:us ‘procession’
- na:q ‘change’, na:q ‘copy’
- pa:band ‘foot tied’, pa:band ‘punctual’
- rasu:x ‘firmness’, rasu:x ‘influence’
- sa:phi ‘filtering cloth’, sa:phi ‘turban’
- silsila: ‘chain’, silsili ‘connection’
- sirf ‘pure’, siriph ‘only’
- tafsi:l ‘distance’, tafsi:l ‘details, list’
- tarki:b ‘mixture’, tarki:b ‘method’
- vaki:l ‘agent’, vaki:l ‘lawyer’
- zabt ‘control’, zabt ‘confiscation’
- zulm ‘darkness’, zulm ‘cruelty’

6. Registers

Three main types of registers of Persianized Kashmiri have developed: (1) Register of Religion, (2) Register of Law, and (3) Register of Business. These registers are highly influenced by the borrowing of a number of lexical items from Persian.

6.1. Register of Religion

A number of lexical items borrowed from the Persian language are used in the religious register of Muslims. Examples:

- kabar (qabr), ‘a grave’, korba:n (qorba:n) ‘sacrifice’, k’obul (qibla:)

These registers are highly influenced by the borrowing of a number of lexical items from Persian.
STUDIES IN KASHMIRI LINGUISTICS


6.3. Register of Business

The following lexical items borrowed from Persian are used in the register of business:


7. Conclusion

The Kashmiri language has come in contact with the Persian language right from the 14th century with the Muslim rule in the valley. Persian was the official language of the state and its use was patronized by the alien rulers. The Persian language and literature had a tremendous impact on the Kashmiri language and literature at various levels. Kashmiri borrowed a large number of lexical items in various domains. The Persian literary genres had an impact on the Kashmiri literary genres too. A large number of Persian legends and other literary forms were translated into Kashmiri. The borrowings have undergone certain phonological changes. The Persian borrowings have influenced the language at the morphological and lexical levels too. We have illustrated the Persianisation of Kashmiri at the levels of word-formation in the use of affixes and compounding. We have also indicated the lexical transfer, and semantic changes. Persian has widely influenced the development of registers of religion, law, and business.

Standardization of Kashmiri Script

Introduction

The standardization of the writing system of a language is considered an important aspect of the language development process. The writing system includes orthography as well as the spellings. Standardization needs to be study from the points phonological characteristics of the language, modern technology such as computerization, printing process, use of symbols for science and technology etc. Here an attempt will be made to discuss main issues related to the standardization of the Perso-Arabic script as used for Kashmiri and to provide some suggestions.

The writing system consists of orthography and spellings. Orthography includes various aspects of script; alphabet inventory, alphabet arrangement, writing conventions, etc. Script is independent of any specific language. Different language may use the same script at of time. There are basically three scripts systems: Alphabetic, which takes segments as the units for visual symbols; syllabic, which takes syllables as the unit; and logographic, which tales the morpheme as the unit. Writing conventions include use of different shapes of symbols in different modes of writing such as handwriting and printing. The spelling system is dependent on words. It is an agreement of visual symbols to represent the words of language.

Language can be seen at two levels: spoken and written. Written language is not always and need not be the exact replication of the spoken language. It has its own structural and functional characteristics. The writing system is not only the mode of communicating through the visuals medium but also has a social value attached to it. It serves as symbol for an identity of the group of people using the particular script . The language planner who is involved in the standardization of the script must keep in view the communicative as well as social aspects of it.

The standard writing system is an important component of the development of a language. This facilitates the teaching and/or learning of the written skills of a language. It is ideal to have a writing system closely related to the phonetic and phonological systems of a language, and which suits the modern technology such as typewriter, computerization and printing process. The issues related to the standardization of the
the shapes of letters is concerned. This also applies to the use of diacritic markers devised for the additional Kashmiri vowels, consonants, and other phonetic characteristics like palatalization. Here the complete vowel signs are used in the initial position and their signs are used in the medical positions.

The standardization of Kashmiri script can be looked in terms of its use in (1) representation of phonetic and phonological characteristics of the language, (2) use of transliteration, technical symbols used in science and technology, abbreviations, punctuation marks, numerals etc. and (3) use of modern technology such as typewriting, computerization, printing process etc.

**Representation of Phonetic and Phonological Characteristics**

Keeping in view the phonetic and phonological characteristics of the Kashmiri language, the script has been modified to include some additional diacritic markers for representing various vowels: Front unrounded vowels: \( /i/ , /i:/ \), back unrounded vowels \( /u/ , /u:/ \), central vowels \( /o/ , /o:/ \), and \( /a/ , /a:/ \). The vowels \( i \), \( i \), \( o \), \( o \) are not found in Urdu or Hindi. Additional diacritics markers have been devised for representing these vowels as \( /i/ , /i:/ \), \( /o/ , /o:/ \), and \( /a/ , /a:/ \). The central vowels are represented by the extra signs written above and underneath the letter \( \text{alif} \). The back low rounded vowel is written by alternating the symbol used for \( /i/ \) \( /o/ \). The short vowels \( /e/ , /o/ \) are represented by adding a diacritic sign on the top of the letters of \( /e/ \) \( /o/ \) and \( /a/ \) \( /a/ \). The signs for representing other vowels are already in the Perso-Arabic script used for Urdu.

There is a lack of rationale in some cases. For instance, following the conventional use of Perso-Arabic vowels signs, full graphemes are used in the initial position. But the vowel sign devised for central mid long vowels \( /a/ \) is used in complete form even in the medial and final positions along with \( \text{alif} \).

In consonants, Kashmiri has two dental affricate sounds \( /ts/ \) and \( /tsh/ \) which are not found in Urdu-Hindi. The symbols suggested and used for these sounds are \( /ts/ \) and \( /tsh/ \). The first symbol represents the palato-alveolar fricative \( /dz/ \) in Urdu. Using of these symbols create some confusion for the readers when they are familiar with their use in Urdu differently. The palatalization is an important phonological characteristic of Kashmiri. All the consonants expect the palatal ones can be palatalized. Two signs for the palatalization have been devised which appear at the middle and final positions of words. These signs are often mistaken for the signs of \( /e/ \) in the middle position and \( /i/ \) in the final position.
Though attempts have been made to provide for additional symbols for some vowels and consonantal sounds, but the script is not comprehensive in accounting for all the phonetic and phonological characteristics of the language. For example, there are no symbols for representing the diphthongs /u:/, /u:/, and /o:/ as in the following pairs of words:

- gur ‘horse’ guir ‘mare’
- šur ‘child’ (m) šuir ‘child’ (f)
- gu:r ‘milkman’ gu:ir ‘milkmaid’
- tsur ‘thief’ (m) tsuir ‘thief’ (f)
- gob ‘heavy’ (m) goob ‘heavy’ (f)
- moṣ ‘thick’ (m) moṣṭ ‘thick’ (f)

It is not possible to use the diacritic markers already devised in the writing of the extra vowel signs in combination appropriate to the pronunciation. Currently, these distinctions in the writing are not made. This creates a confusion for the second language learners of Kashmiri.

The Kashmiri language does not have voiced aspirated sounds of /bh/, /dh/, /d̪h/, /gh/, /jh/, and /r̪h/ as they occur in Hindi-Urdu. The words borrowed from Hindi-Urdu into Kashmiri undergo phonetic changes accordingly. Examples are as follows:

- HU: bhagva:n ‘God’ Kash: bagva:n
- HU: ḍhol ‘drum’ Kash: doṣal
- HU: ghar ‘house’ Kash: gari
- HU: jhand ‘flag’ Kash: jandi

The symbols for the voiced aspirated sounds need not therefore be used in Kashmiri.

In the Perso-Arabic script for representing these sounds need not therefore be used in Kashmiri. In the Perso-Arabic script, there are more than one allographs for representing particular sounds. For instance, the sound /z/ is presented by four allographs ( ), /h/ by two ( ), /s/ by three ( ), /a/ by two ( ), and /t/ by two ( ). Ideally speaking, allographs need not be used in the Kashmiri script. But keeping in view the historical development of language, its lexiconal and socio-cultural aspects, any process towards the standardization in this direction needs serious thought.

In Kashmiri, the voiceless unaspirated sounds /k/, /p/, and /t/ in the borrowed words are aspirated in the word final position in all the borrowed words. Examples:

- HU: mulk ‘country’ Kash: mulukh
- HU: pa:k ‘pure’ Kash: pa:kh
- HU: ra:t ‘night’ Kash: ra:th
- HU: dava:t ‘inkpot’ Kash: dava:th

The Kashmiri writers do not always write these words as they are pronounced but follow their writing conventions in Urdu.

The vowels /i/, /i:/, /e/, /e:/ and /u/ are not used in word-initial position. In the borrowed words from Perso-Arabic sources either the glides /y/ and /v/ are added or they are replayed by permissible vowels in the initial position. Examples are as follows:

- PA: i:d ‘Eid’ Kash: yi:d
- PA: intiza:r ‘wait’ Kash: yintiza:r
- PA: ehsa:n ‘obligation’ Kash: yehsa:n
- PA: iba:dat ‘praying’ Kash: yiba:dat
- PA: urdu: ‘Urdu’ Kash: ordu:
The writers are not consistent in using the symbols which represent the Kashmiri pronunciation but tend to use the spelling system of their original forms used in Urdu. The Urdu educated speakers try to retain their original pronunciation in their formal speech. The original forms are considered more prestigious than their changed ones.

There are no geminates in Kashmiri. The geminates in borrowed words are reduced to single consonants. Examples are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindi-Urdu</th>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>khaddar</td>
<td>khadir</td>
<td>‘cotton cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bacca</td>
<td>baci</td>
<td>‘child’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ganna</td>
<td>gani</td>
<td>‘sugarcane’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of only those consonant clusters in the medial and final positions are possible, where the first member is a nasal and the second member of the cluster are: /bh/, /dh/, /d/, /g/ and /z/. In the initial consonant cluster, the second member is always /r/. Examples are given as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bondu:kh</td>
<td>‘gun’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ðandì</td>
<td>‘stick’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amba:r</td>
<td>‘heap’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manzas</td>
<td>‘in the centre’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nangi</td>
<td>‘naked’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amb</td>
<td>‘mango’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>band</td>
<td>‘closed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kond</td>
<td>‘thorn’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rang</td>
<td>‘colour’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bran</td>
<td>‘name of a tree’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pra:n</td>
<td>‘soul’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phras</td>
<td>‘popular’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grand</td>
<td>‘count’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tre:n</td>
<td>‘train’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tre:š</td>
<td>‘drinking water’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Epenthetic vowels /i/ and /i/ are usually inserted for breaking consonant clusters. This applies to the borrowings as well. Examples are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kashmiri</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>intzà:r</td>
<td>yintzà:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rassm</td>
<td>rasim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bhasm</td>
<td>basim</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In writing the above words, under the influence of Urdu, the epenthetic vowel signs are not used. This does not make the distinction clear. Most of the problems related to inconsistencies are as a result of the borrowings from the Perso-Arabic sources and their conventional original forms in Urdu. There are other inconsistencies too. An important one is the representation of /e/ in the final position in the words like /chal/, /me/, /tse/ etc. They are written like:

It is recommended to adopt the shorter forms.

**Transliteration and technical symbols**

The Perso-Arabic script with the additional diacritics can successfully be used in the transliteration of the language texts from other languages into Perso-Arabic. With the use of Urdu as the medium of instruction at the school and collage levels, a large number of terms and symbols used in the areas of science and technology are being used. No efforts have yet been used in using Kashmiri as the medium of instruction at the school or collage levels for teaching other subjects. Therefore, the process of the coinage of terms used in science and technology has not yet taken place. No symbols have been devised in the Perso-Arabic script used in Kashmiri. It is believed that whenever there is an opportunity for using the Kashmiri script in this area, the symbols devised in the Perso-Arabic for Urdu can be used for Kashmiri with little or no modifications. The symbols used in science and technology are generally kept very close to their international forms. The process of standardization has to ensure that the symbols devised do not create any confusion and are easily understood by the readers.

**Abbreviations**

The standardization of abbreviations and punctuation marks also need a serious attention. No standard forms of abbreviations used in the Kashmiri script have emerged so far. The writers use different forms following the guidelines used in writing of abbreviations in the Urdu script. There are two conventions of abbreviations. The native words are usually abbreviated...
by taking the initial letters following the models used in Urdu. Variation in pronunciation of the words are sometimes ignored and the conventional Urdu abbreviated forms are imposed on the Kashmiri script. The abbreviations borrowed from other languages are mostly translated. The examples of such words are UNESCO, UNO, USA, etc. Standardization of the abbreviations is important in both modes of handwriting as well as printing. The inconsistencies cause problems in reading and comprehension of such words.

**Punctuation marks**

The standardization of punctuation marks in the Kashmiri script has also not taken place so far. Punctuation marks are symbolic representations of various linguistic boundaries related to words, clauses, sentences and paragraphs. Most of the Indian languages have developed punctuation marks under the impact of the Western languages. The punctuation marks in the Perso-Arabic script used for Indian languages have also been influenced by this impact. The symbol devised for Urdu script are used for the Kashmiri as well. Keeping in view the structure of the Perso-Arabic script, attempts have been made to devise the symbols which look distinct and are recognizable in reading. This necessitated the use of the dash sign for a full-stop and a reverse shape of a comma sign for a comma. Most of the punctuation marks devised for the script are ignored and are not used consistently.

**Printing and Computerization**

It is important to look at the efficiency or standard of writing system from the point of view of modern technology such as typewriting, computerization, printing processes, etc.

As pointed out above, there are two modes in Perso-Arabic script: 

- **nasx** and **nastaliix**. The nasx is a type of script which is frequently used in the printing of Persian books in Iran. Though occasionally, some books and journals in Urdu are printed using this mode, it has not gained popularity. The nasx fonts have been improved substantially in the computerization of this script. The fonts are certainly much better than those available for hand composing. The design of fonts for printing is open to innovations and a continuing process which will bring it aesthetically close to nastaliix mode.

- The GIST technology development by the Centre for Development of Advance Computing (CDAC) Pune, has created history as far as the Kashmiri script is concerned. There are no typewriters in Kashmiri. No attempts have ever been made in devising nasx type mode for Kashmiri before the recent computerization. The modern technology has an immediate impact on the standardization of the script. The C-DAC has not yet prepared the nastaliix script for Kashmiri, but a private venture has been made successfully in this regard. Now the nastaliix software is prepared and is used for the composing of Kashmiri for printing. The InPage software provides the nastaliix fonts which are now widely used for Kashmiri. There are, however, certain problems in the conjoining of the letters, and in the representation of the palatal sound in the medial position. There is a need to standardize it and to prepare a spell check for it.

To sum up, the standardization of the Kashmiri script needs a serious attention of the language planners. The symbols devised for representing the additional vowels, consonants, and other peculiar phonetic and phonological characteristics need to be used consistently. Suggestions for their standardization need to be considered seriously. The same is true about the use of transliteration, symbols for the scientific and technological terms, abbreviations of the Kashmiri script will go a long way in the standardization of the orthography and spelling system. The language planners have a prominent role in making the Kashmiri script able to face the challenges of the modern technology in printing.
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Studies in Kashmiri Linguistics is a collection of papers related to linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of Kashmiri. The papers deal with the structure of Kashmiri language, language and society, personal names, kinship terms, modes of greetings, modes of address, lexical borrowings, and standardization of Kashmiri script.

The students, researchers, teachers of the Kashmiri language, and linguists working in the area of South Asian languages especially in Kashmiri will find this volume useful.