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# A GRAMMAR

OF THE

# SGAW KAREN

BY REV. DAVID GILMORE, M. A.,

Of the American Baptist Mission in Burma.

RANGOON:

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### PREFACE.

This book has been called forth by the needs of the American Baptist Karen Mission in Burma. For many years there has been in print no book from which a beginner could learn the grammatical principles of the Karen language. Dr. Mason's Anglo-Karen grammar has long been out of print; and even when a copy could be secured, it was (owing to the incomplete state in which it was left) very perplexing to a neophyte, though very valuable to the more advanced student. Dr. Wade's Karen Vernacular Grammar does not begin to be of much assistance until the student is able to read Karen, although the English remarks interspersed throughout it may be used at an earlier period.

The book here offered students of Karen does not pretend to be an exhaustive grammar of the language. The author's aim has been to introduce beginners to the principles of Karen grammar. He has not attempted to account for every idiom of the Karen language; still less has he aimed to do the work of a lexicographer.

The author acknowledges heavy indebtedness to the works of Dr. Mason and Dr. Wade. He has drawn upon these sources with less scruple as they are not generally available to beginners in Karen. His thanks are due to the Rev J. N. Cushing, D. D., and the Rev. D. A. W. Smith, D. D., for encouragement and assistance in the inception of the work, and to the Rev. W. F. Thomas. M. A., for a critical reading of the manuscript.





# A GRAMMAR OF THE SGAW KAREN.

# INTRODUCTION.

- 1. The Karen language, in its grammar, presents striking analogies to the English. Like the English, it depends mainly on the order of words for expressing its syntactical relations, and the order of words is much the same as in English.
- 2. The Karen differs from the English in being a monosyllabic language. Its words, with some real and some apparent exceptions, are monosyllables. The accidents of case, gender, person, number, time, etc., are expressed, some (as the person of the pronouns and the gender of certain nouns) by the intrinsic signification of the words, some (as the case of nouns) by the position of the words in the sentence, and some (as the accidents of verbs) by certain particles prefixed or affixed to the root.
- 3. The two grand principles of Karen grammar are enunciated with substantial correctness, though not with perfect accuracy, by Dr. Wade: "1st, Any root or combination of roots, becomes a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition or conjunction, according to the office it performs in a sentence. 2nd, Each syllable, or root, has a signification of its own, and a grammatical relation to one or more of the other syllables in every compound part of speech."

#### THE ALPHABET.

4. The Karen Alphabet is derived from the Burmese. It consists of 25 consonants and 10 vowels, with 6 tones, the character  $\infty$  appearing among both consonants and vowels.

## THE CONSONANTS

5. The consonants, with their names and powers, are as follows—

	90 •	7
က	ကႏ <sup>ခြ</sup> ဉ်ထံး	k
ຈ	ခႏကဗြၤ	kh
0	ဂ $\delta$ ကျ $1$ လ $\epsilon$ ၤ	gh
ಬು	ဃး <sup>ရှ</sup> ဉ်	ch
С	ငးခူဉ်ချာ	ng
O	စးတဖျာဉ်	8
ဆ	ဆးတဘံ	hs
ด	ରୁଃ-8ଧିବ	sh
	ည္မႈညီ $oldsymbol{\beta}$ န	ny
<u>න</u> ග	တးဝါစု	t
$\infty$	ထးတဃိ	ht
3	ဒးတဒါ	d
ş	<b>န</b> းတဆိ <sub>း</sub>	n
$\circ$	ဂးတ <sup>ခ္ထ</sup>	p
O	ပ <sup>္</sup> ပဝံ	hp
ဘ	ဘ <b>းတ</b> ကူး	b
<b>⇔</b>	မးဦးသ	m
ಯ	ကးညွှဲထို	y
ବ୍	ရးက္နှ	7.
လ	<b>လးက္</b> ဉ်က်ိဉ်	l
0	ဝးကဗ်	w
သ	သး <sup>ရှ</sup> ဉ်ဃီး	th
ဟ	<b>ပားကဲ့</b> ဉိလ် <sup>င</sup> ်း	h.
အ	အႏိုဆ်	
C	ဖၤကတၫိ	hh

6. The powers assigned to the consonants in the above table do not in all cases perfectly represent the sounds of the Karen letters. The following remarks may assist the learner in acquiring such sounds as cannot be represented

exactly in English, though his main reliance must be upon the living teacher.

 $\infty$  has a sound intermediate between k and g.

- $\mathfrak{p}$  is the aspirate of  $\mathfrak{m}$ . It is pronounced like kh as heard in the phrase  $brick\ house$ , or in Bokhara.
  - o has no analogue in the European languages.
- $\omega$  is pronounced like ch in the German bach, or the Scottish loch.
  - c is pronounced like ng in sing, or n in ink.
  - o has a sound intermediate between s and z.
- $\infty$  is the aspirate of o. It has the sound of ssh, as heard in the phrase  $hiss\ him$ .
  - a is pronounced like sh in shun.
  - $\mathfrak{Z}$  is pronounced like  $\tilde{n}$  in cañon, or ny in lanyard.
  - $\infty$  has a sound intermediate between t and d.
- $\infty$  is the aspirate of  $\infty$ . It is pronounced like th as heard in the phrase hot house.
  - $\circ$  has a sound intermediate between p and b.
- $\circ$  is the aspirate of  $\circ$  It is pronounced like ph as heard in the phrase  $hap\ hazard$ .
  - $\infty$  is pronounced like th as heard in thin.
- as a consonant has no sound of its own; it is a mere stem to which vowel signs are attached.
  - c has no analogue in the European languages.

When any one of these consonants stands alone it is pronounced with the sound of the short vowel a, as in quota.

If the learner will remember to breathe hard in pronouncing the aspirates  $\mathfrak{D}$ ,  $\mathfrak{D}$ ,  $\mathfrak{D}$  and  $\mathfrak{D}$ , he can hardly fail of getting the correct sound.

#### DOUBLE CONSONANTS.

7. When one consonant follows another with no vowel sound intervening, the second consonant is represented by a

symbol, which is joined to the character representing the first consonant. The consonants capable of such combination, with their symbols, and illustrations of their combination with the consonant  $\infty$ , will be found below.

0	J	3	bgh
ယ	-6	သိ	by
ବ୍	Ć	<u>ල</u> ි	br
co .	J	<u>ગ</u>	bl
0	0	3 <u>3</u>	bw

# VOWELS.

- 8. As has already been said, every consonant, when written alone, is understood to be followed by the short sound of a, as heard in quota.
- 9. This sound, when standing alone, is represented by the character  $\infty$ .
- 10. Other vowel sounds are represented by symbols joined to the consonants which they follow.
- 11. When such vowel sounds stand alone, their symbols are joined to the character  $\mathfrak{P}$ .
- 12. The vowel symbols alone, and in combination with  $\infty$  and  $\infty$ , are shown below.

	အ	$\alpha$	ဘ ·	ba
1	အါ	et.	ဘ	ba
•	ಣಿ	i	ဘံ	bi
٦	ອລາ	ö	ဘၤ	$b\ddot{o}$
t	အု	ü	ဘု	$b\ddot{u}$
ŧ	အု	u	ဘူ	bu
	သို သိ	e	သံ့	be
`	ઝે	è	3	$b\grave{e}$
0	3S	0	නි	bo
9	· 38	aiv	නි	baw

- 13. The subjoined table explains more definitely the powers of the vowels.
  - so, a in quota.
  - തി, a in father.
  - ಣೆ, i in machine.
  - son, German ö in Göthe, or u in Turkey.
  - $\mathfrak{P}_{0}$ , German  $\ddot{u}$  in Glück, French u in lune.
  - 37, u in rule, oo in moon.
  - 3, approximately a in rate.
  - 3, French è in Molière, or e in met.
  - தி, o in note.
  - B, aw in raw.

#### TONES.

- 14. In Sgaw Karen, every syllable consists of a vowel, either alone, or preceded by a single or double consonant. A syllable always ends in a vowel. Every syllable may be pronounced in six different tones of voice, the meaning varying according to the tone in which it is pronounced.
- 15. Where no tone is marked, the syllable is pronounced with a rising inflection.

A syllable marked with (mుప) is pronounced with a heavy falling inflection.

A syllable marked with  $\delta$  ( $\infty$ :  $\delta$ ) is pronounced abruptly, at a low pitch.

A syllable marked with : (915 t) is pronounced abruptly at an ordinary pitch.

A syllable marked with  $\beta$  ( $\infty$ : $\infty$ ) is pronounced with a falling circumflex inflection.

A syllable marked with  $\iota$  ( $\mathfrak{S}$ ) is pronounced with a prolonged even tone.

16. When the above mentioned signs follow 1, the 1 is omitted for the sake of brevity; e. g., instead of  $\mathfrak{mll}$  we write  $\mathfrak{mll}$ .

#### SUPERNUMERARY CHARACTERS.

17. A few characters not belonging to the Sgaw Karen alphabet have been introduced, and are occasionally used in transliteration from English into Karen.

The Burmese  $\alpha$  (pronounced z) is sometimes used to

represent the English j or soft g.

The Pwo Karen inflection  $J(\alpha, \beta, \hat{\omega})$  is sometimes used to represent a final l in an English syllable. It is pronounced like  $\beta$ .

# ARBITRARY CHARACTERS.

18. § is generally pronounced like \$:, and \$ like \$:; but at Tavoy and Mergui they are sometimes pronounced like \$: and \$\omega\$ respectively.

#### PUNCTUATION.

19. English punctuation marks are used. The comma, period and quotation marks are commonly used, the exclamation point and semicolon less commonly, the colon and the interrogation point not at all.

#### FIGURES.

20. The Numerals are as follows-

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 5 7 7 7 8 9 6 7 6 8

The Arabic system of notation is used.

#### THE STRUCTURE OF THE SENTENCE.

21. The order of words in Karen may be illustrated by the following simple sentence: διοί η βουβως δι, Saw Wa builds a house. διοί, Saw Wa, subject; φδ, builds, predicate; ούδ, house, object; ως, a particle used to mark the close of a declarative sentence.

A Karen sentence, therefore, resembles an English sentence in two particulars—

- (1) The order of words is: subject, predicate, object.
- (2) The subject and object are recognized by their position in the sentence.
- 22. Modifiers may be added to the above sentence as follows: တဘိုဘိုစီးပါသးမှ ໂန ဂိုသူဂိုထီဂိုတံ့ဂိုချုချက်ီး, Sometimes old Saw Wa builds a house quickly. တဘိုဘို, sometimes, adverbial modifier; သးမှ ໂ, old, adjective modifying ຮືເວົ້າ; နှုဂို, demonstrative adjective modifying ຮືເວົ້າ; ຊູຊຸ, quickly, adverb modifying သုဂိုထီဂို

In a Karen sentence, therefore—

- (1) An adjective modifier follows the noun which it modifies.
- (2) An adverbial modifier stands after the verb and its object if it have one; but—
- (3) An adverbial modifier denoting time may stand at the beginning of the sentence.

#### PARTS OF SPEECH.

- 23. The Karen language has the nine following parts of speech: Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections and Particles.
- 24. But it must be understood that the distinction between the different parts of speech is by no means so sharply preserved in Karen as in English. The same word will appear now as this, and now as that part of speech, according to the office it performs in its sentence. Thus, in the phrase Φβωθβ, a big house, θβ appears as an adjective; in Φβββδ, the house is big, θβ appears as a verb; in Φβωσβββ, the bigness of the house, θβ forms a noun.

#### COUPLETS.

25. Among the most striking peculiarities of the Karen language are its paired words, or couplets. Where the English would use a single word to express an idea, the

Karen often joins two words to express the one idea, thus forming a couplet. Sometimes two words of analogous signification are united to form a word of slightly different meaning from either; sometimes the couplet consists of two synonomous words; sometimes it consists of a significant root joined to a root which, out of the couplet, has no meaning. Couplets are found among nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

#### NOUNS.

- 26. Karen Nouns, like those of all other languages, can be divided into Common and Proper Nouns.
- 27. A proper noun is usually preceded by the name of the class to which the individual belongs; e. g., βδύτιβι, Burma, (βλ meaning country); ολοσηδ, Rangoon, (ολ meaning city). Names of men are preceded by the particle 8ι; e. g., 8ι βββ, Saw Shwe Yaw. Names of women are preceded by the particle 3λ; e. g., 3λθώ:, Naw Hpo Hsi.
- 28. Common nouns may be divided into Primitive Nouns and Derivative Nouns.
- 29. Primitive nouns are roots which are nouns by virtue of their intrinsic signification; e. g.,  $\phi \delta$ , a house,  $\delta \delta$ , a book,  $\varphi$ , gold,  $g \delta \delta$ , an ox.
  - 30. Derivative nouns are such as are derived from—
  - (1) Verbal roots,
  - (2) Adjectival roots,
  - (3) Other noun roots.
- 31. Nouns are formed from verbal roots in the following ways—
  - (1) Abstract nouns of action are formed—
    - (a) By prefixing the particle  $\mathfrak{S}$  to the verbal root; e. g., from the root  $\mathfrak{S}_{\mathfrak{I}}$ , to go, is formed the noun  $\mathfrak{S}_{\mathfrak{S}_{\mathfrak{I}}}$ , going, journey.

Nouns. 13

(b) By simply using the verbal root as a noun, qualifying it by a demonstrative adjective; e. g.,  $\partial \Omega$   $\mathfrak{S}_{3}$ , to g0.

(2) Nouns of agency are formed by prefixing 91, person, to the verb, and at the same time affixing 8; e. g., 9101 0018, a traveller. Sometimes the affix 8 is omitted.

(3) Instrumental nouns are formed by prefixing \$\\$ to

the verbal root; e. g., of, to paddle, \$\$05, a paddle.

(4) Nouns denoting the place where an action is performed are formed by prefixing 38, place, to the verbal root; e. g., i, to sleep, 38i, a bed.

32. Nouns are formed from adjectival roots in the fol-

lowing ways—

(1) Abstract nouns of quality are formed by prefixing  $\infty$  to the adjectival root; e. g., or, good,  $\infty$  for, goodness.

(2) Nouns denoting persons are formed by prefixing to the adjectival root the particle o, which is a contraction of  $g_1$ ; e.  $g_2$ ,  $g_3$ ,  $g_4$ ,  $g_5$ ,  $g_6$ ,  $g_7$ ,  $g_8$ ,

33. Nouns are formed from other noun roots in the fol-

lowing ways-

(1) Diminutives are formed by adding  $\Im$ , young, little, to the noun root; e. g.,  $\Im \Im$ , a dog,  $\Im \Im \Im$ , a little dog, a puppy.

- (2) Gentile nouns, and all nouns expressing residence, are formed by affixing 3 to the name of the place; e. g., of, city, of 3, citizens. The particle of is generally prefixed as well; e. g., ordin, Burma, ordinars, Burmans.
- (3) Two or more noun roots may be combined; e. g., ထံကျ, river, နှော်လူနီနီနီ, knee.
- 34. Noun couplets are formed by the combination of two noun roots, each of which is generally followed or preceded by a particle, which serves to connect them; e. g., ຜຽຣແດ້ງຮະ, or ຜຽຣແດ້ງຮະ, birds, ວາວຖະຫາຮູ້, grace, ວາວຸເ ວາໂດາ, goodness, ພວຍວະເຄົ້າ, my country, ຊຸຮູ້ຊຸດຳ, your de-

scendents, အတံနာဆီ, his buildings. In the last three examples the connecting particle is a personal pronoun in the possessive case.

#### GENDER.

- 35. The Karen language recognizes only natural gender, not grammatical gender.
- 36. Nouns denoting objects without life are neuter. Abstract nouns may also be considered as neuter.
- 37. A few nouns, mostly expressive of human relationship, are masculine or feminine by their signification; e. g., or, father, 98, mother, or, husband, or, wife, 8881, man, 8898, woman.
- 38. The great body of names of living creatures are of common gender; e. g., βωβ, child, ωωβ, horse.
- 39. The gender of such indeterminate nouns may be distinguished by the following affixes—

88న1, or న1, masculine, applied to human beings.

8εφβ, or φβ, feminine, applied to human beings.

ol, masculine, applied to animals.

89, feminine, applied to animals.

E. g.,  $\Im \omega \beta$ , child,  $\Im \omega \beta \Im \delta \delta \beta \beta$ , boy,  $\Im \omega \beta \Im \delta \delta \beta \delta$ , girl;  $m \omega \beta$ , horse,  $m \omega \beta \delta \delta$ , stallion,  $m \omega \beta \delta \delta \delta$ , mare.

#### NUMBER.

- 40. Karen nouns convey of themselves no idea of number; e. g., the noun  $\dot{\sigma} \beta$  may mean house or houses. The number is often left to be inferred from the context. When, however, it is desired definitely to mark the number, this can be done.
- 41. The singular is denoted by the numeral  $\sigma$ , one; e. g., σροφης, a house.

- 42. The plural may be denoted in the following ways-
- (1) By the use of a numeral adjective; e. g., တံနိခံရာန်, two houses, တံနှိအားမျာန်, many houses.

(2) By any one of the following affixes—
σοδ, the usual affix; e. g., σδροσδ, houses.

మ్మ్, used with the vocative, or with pronouns; e. g., g., g., g., g., g., g., g.

သူ့ နီတဇန, used principally with pronouns; e. g., အဝဲသူနိ

တဖ $\beta$ , they.

တမှ, တဖဉ်မှ, and သူ့ဉ်တဖဉ်မှ, used occasionally.

- (3) The plural, when used to convey the idea of generality, is often expressed by a couplet; e. g., & βειωθι, houses or buildings in general.
- (4) တက္ခါသူနီ may be used at the end of a sentence which has a plural subject; e. g., ဒီးထဲဝဲဆူ ကားကြာရှာနီအပူးတကျဉ်သူနီလား, And they came into the land of Goshen.

#### CASE.

- 43. Five case constructions may be recognized: Nominative, Possessive, Objective, Vocative and Absolute. The first three correspond to those of the same name in English, and the vocative is the case of direct address.
- 44. What is here called the absolute case is peculiar to Karen. Its function is to name prominently at the begining of the sentence, and thus to emphasize, the person or thing about which some statement is made in the remainder of the sentence.
- 45. In Karen, as in English, the case of the noun is indicated, not by inflection, but by the position of the word in the sentence. Where this is not sufficient, recourse is had to particles.
- 46. Regularly, the subject precedes the verb, and the object follows it; e. g., శ్రీం ఎస్టర్లో స్ట్రిస్ స్ట్రిస్ స్ట్రిస్ Wa builds

a house. Sion, the subject, precedes the verb, αβωβ; and ωβ, the object, follows it.

- 47. Karen nouns, like English nouns, are often governed by prepositions; e. y., ωὰιποίρση, I go to Rangoon. Here οίσης is governed by the preposition  $\mathfrak{A}$ . Nouns tollow the repositions by which they are governed.
- 48. Where in English a verb has two objects, or one direct and one indirect object, the Karen may place either one as the direct object of the verb, and the other will then be governed by the preposition  $\omega_1$ ; e.g., where the English says, I give Saw Wa a book, the Karen may say,  $\omega_2$  διωιώδο  $\omega_2$  δια  $\omega_3$  δια
- 49. In Karen, verbal nouns as well as verbs may take objects; e. g, ωλωβρι, love (for) you.
- 50. A noun in the possessive construction is joined to the name of the thing possessed by the particle  $\mathfrak{P}$ ; e. g., Fig.
- 51. A noun in the vocative case is followed by the particle 21; e. g., Stolen, Saw Wa.
- 52. Substantives in the absolute construction stand first in the sentence, free of all grammatical relation thereto, and are usually followed by the demonstrative adjective သံ၊ or နှို ; e. y.. တံခုအစ်နှဲ ခု, ຮາດ သူ ခုထိခု အီး လီး, That house, Saw Wa built it. Here တံခို is in the absolute construction, followed by နှို ခို, that. Occasionally the particle ຂຶ້າ takes the place of the particle သံ၊ or နှို More commonly it follows one of them; e. y., တံခုအစ်နှဲ့ ခုံင်းရှိ နာဝါသူ ခုထိခုအားသီး.

#### PRONOUNS.

- 53. Karen Pronouns are principally Personal, though Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns exist.
- 54. There are no Relative Pronouns in Karen. Relative clauses are common; but they are connected with the nouns

which they modify by means of the conjunction  $\infty_1$ , the pronouns used being personal pronouns of the third person.

#### PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

55. In Karen, as in English, the personal pronouns are declined, the cases being marked by case forms. The following tables exhibit the three personal pronouns in their various numbers and cases. Gender is not distinguished.

	Singular.	Plural.	
	First Person.		
Nom.	ယ, စ	ပ	
Poss.	య, ల	O	
Obj.	ယၤ	gı	
	Second Person.		
Nom.	7	သု	
Poss.	<b>5</b>	သု	
Obj.	ą.	သု	
Third Person.			
Nom.	<b>39</b>	အ	
Poss.	<b>39</b>	33	
Obj.	જીય	3 <b>5</b> 1	

- 56. The form  $\mathfrak{B}$  for the nominative case of the pronoun of the third person is confined to subordinate clauses. In principal clauses this pronoun appears in the singular as  $\mathfrak{Bd}$ ,  $\mathfrak{Bdg}$ , or occasionally  $\mathfrak{Bdg}$ , and in the plural generally as  $\mathfrak{Bdg}$ .
- 57. After the verb ອຸໂ, to be, the objective forms of the personal pronouns are used instead of the nominative forms; e. g., ອຸໂພນເຮີເ ( not ອຸໂພເຮີເ), It is I.

- 58. Besides the regular pronouns, the Karen possesses a pronominal affix, δ. This is affixed to verbs in the third person, particularly in subordinate clauses. It is also affixed to pronouns of all persons in forming compounds. When δ follows a verb it is never an object, although it often looks like one, but always refers to the subject; e. g., & com a social social than the teacher wrote, have jou seen it? Here δ refers to the subject, was, and not to the object, ws. In this construction δοβ is often used like δ.
- 59. The simple forms tabulated under § 55 form a base from which a number of pronominal forms are built up, by means of the particles  $\delta$  and  $\mathfrak{IS}$ , the word  $\mathfrak{IS}$ , self, and the demonstrative adjectives,  $\mathfrak{II}$ , this, and  $\mathfrak{IS}$ , that. Such forms are generally self-explanatory. Their cases are indicated like those of nouns. For a complete table of all the possible forms of the personal pronouns, with exemplifications of their use, the reader is referred to Dr. Wade's Karen Vernacular Grammar, pp.34-39. The more common forms are noted below.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st pers.	$\varphi$ e $\delta$ $\omega$	ζεδυ
2nd pers.	နှစ်ခန့်, နဲခန်	သုဝဲခ
3rd pers.	නර්, නර්3β,	အ ဝိဒဝိ

- 60. When used absolutely, the personal pronouns appear in the forms noted under §59. The contracted forms  $\partial \beta$  and  $\beta \beta$  are the ones in common use, the primitive forms  $\partial \beta$  and  $\beta \partial \beta$  being seldom met with in this construction.
- 61. In the ploral forms the plural affix  $\mathfrak{D}\beta$  may be substituted for the particle  $\mathfrak{D}\beta$ ; e. g.,  $\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\beta$  may be substituted for  $\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\beta$ . To any form so arising the plural affix  $\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\beta$  may be added, giving such forms as  $\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{D}$ .

- 62. The absolute forms of the pronoun (like the absolute forms of the noun) are generally followed by one of the demonstrative adjectives vi and \$β, and sometimes by the particle & ; e. g., & shap, monopoly shap, and shap.
- 63. In the absolute forms,  $\mathfrak{S}$  is often omitted; e. g.,  $\mathfrak{S}$ .  $\mathfrak{S}$  wහිාන නාති, As for me, I cannot go.
- 64. In the first and second persons, the objective form often takes the place of the proper absolute form; e. g., si, smarror documents. As for you, you will have to go.
- 65. The use of the absolute form is illustrated in the following sentences: ωρβώι,ωωισων β, As for me, I cannot go, ωρωβωρωβεριορωμβωριώι, As for them, their house is in Rangoon.

#### INTENSIVE PRONOUNS.

66. Intensive forms of the personal pronouns are formed by adding to the possessive case the word mos, or mosqu, self, and the particles oso. They are as follows:

	Singular.	Plural.
1st pers.	ယက္ေရးထဲ	ပတစ႑ဒနိပဝဲ
	ယက္ခေါ်ဂျာမည္က	ဝပင်ဒေဝနှစ်ထာ
2nd pers.	နက္ေရဒနိန	သက္ကေရးသည္မသည
	န်င်္ဂေးပါ့ ဖွဲ့ထာန	သူကစ႑ၦၤႜၣသူဝဲ
3rd pers.	တိုင်း ဖြင့်	စပ္ေနတေဇ
	တိုင်းပုံဖေတစ	အကစ႑ၦၤ၁႙ဝ

- 67. These forms are used in apposition with a substantive, for emphasis; e. g., 8ιο1 m moloβδακαι, Suw Wahimself will go, ωποιωποίοβωβι, I will do it myself.
- 68. The same thing may be indicated by affixing the forms 3βω,3βυδ, etc. to the verb; e. g., γοω ειβγοθί, You will go yourselves.

69. The forms mentioned in § 68, affixed to nouns which follow a substantive in the possessive, convey the same idea as the English word own; e. g.,  $\omega \delta \epsilon \delta \omega$ , my own book.

#### REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

70. Reflexive forms of the personal pronouns are formed by affixing to the possessive case the word  $\infty$ : self. They are as follows—

	Singular.	Plural.
1st pers.	ယသး	ပသး
2nd pers.	နုသႏ	သူသး
3rd pers.	အသႏ	အသး

- 72. The Pronoun തി may also be classed among the reflexives. It takes the place of the personal pronoun of the third person in indirect discourse, referring to the speaker; e. g., 8ാറിര്ജവതിനാൽ പ്രദേശ Wa says that he (Saw Wa) will come.

### POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

- 73. The possessive pronouns mine, thine, etc. are formed by affixing d or of to the possessive forms of the personal pronouns; e. g., ສd. ຊຸວິພາພວ, ສd. ຊຸວິພາພວາ, That is mine.
- 74. d and of may be similarly used with nouns in the possessive case; e. g., ລາລູຄຸພຸໂອເດໂລວ ຜີເ, or ລາວູສຸຄຸພຸໂອເດໂລລວາດ ສາດຄົວເ, That is Saw Wa's.

## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

75. Properly speaking, the Karen language has no demonstrative pronouns. Their place is supplied, however, by combining the demonstrative adjectives, si, this, and \$\beta\$, that, with the personal pronoun of the third person; soi, this, soi, that.

#### INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

- 76. The interrogative adjectives described in §§ 101, 102 are used also as interrogative pronouns; e. g., ξωιωξιάδ. What are you doing? ξάβωσισσιάδ Whom do you see? ωιαδίσερε βερδοδοσοβάδ, Which of the two books do you wish?
- 77. The interrogative possessive pronoun, whose, is formed by affixing အd or အတາ to the interrogative pronoun မတາ; e. g., ໝໍຽສdສຳລຸໂພວາເສdຝຸ່ງ, Whose is this book?

#### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

- 78. ຫາ is used as the subject of impersonal verbs; e. g.. ຫາວວ່າເຮົາ, It rains.
- 79. gr or ຫາ is often used as an indefinite subject to a verb in the third person singular, when we do not know, or do not wish to express, the subject of the verb; e. g., ຫາ (or q) ອາສາສະເສ, Somebody beat him.
- 80. gi is often used indefinitely in the objective case, to express people in general.
- 81. ອາໂ is used as an indefinite object to verbs which require one, but to which no definite object can be assigned; e. g., ພະລາດ ເປັນ I see, literally, I see things.
- 82. ພາ and ພວາ are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns: e. g., ພວາເວດເວີຣີາ, A certain person came.

83. Many of the indefinite adjectives described under § 99 are also used as indefinite pronouns; e. g., နမ္ှာ်ထံနိထိန် ခွန်မီးများနှိုယားလာတဘာ့န်တက္ခရီ, If you see any ducks, buy me une.

#### ADJECTIVES.

84. Most of the roots which in English would be regarded as essentially adjectival in their signification, are in Karen considered as verbs. Under this head come all the roots expressive of quality; e. g., the root on expressive of goodness, means, not good, but to be good. So with many roots expressive of quantity; e. g., 85 means, not great, but to be great. And such words are constantly used as verbs, the verbal meaning being the primitive one.

# ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY.

85. Adjectives of quality are really adjective (relative) clauses in an abbreviated form. "A good man" would originally be expressed by growing, a man that is good. But it is commonly expressed in an abbreviated form, gran, the relative conjunction, on, being omitted. It is sometimes still further abbreviated by omitting the pronoun a, when it would stand simply grow.

# ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

- 86. Adjectives of quantity in mass are largely expressed by abbreviated relative clauses, like adjectives of quality; e. g., యస్త్రిపత్తిక్కి a great house.
- 87. Some adjectives expressive of magnitude are formed by prefixing the particle or to verbal roots. Such adjectives immediately follow the nouns which they modify; g, \$\phi\$0:8\$, a great house.

#### NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

88. The following table shows the cardinal numerals.

1	Э	တၢ
2	J	<b>ំ</b> ុ
3	9	သၢ
4	9	જુંધ
5	ģ	య్య
6	8	ಬ್ಗ
7	q	
8	0	ခံ မား
9	e	<b>.</b> 8
10	20	တဆံ
11	၁၁	တဆိုတၢ
19	၁၉	တဆီခွီ
20	٥١	ခံ ဆုံ
90	e o	<b>ခိုဆိ</b>
100	,200	တကယၤ
200	100	ခံကယၤ
1,000	2000	တကထိ
10,000	20000	တကလး
100,000	200000	တကလိုး
1,000,000	2000002	တကကွဲရိ
10,000,000	20000000	ထကဘိ

- $E.\ g.,\ 13,297,652$  would be written ၁၃၂၉၅၆၅၂ and read ဘကဘိသ၊ကကွဲဂ်ခံကလီးခွံကလးနှံကထိဃုကယာယ်ဂ်ဆီခံ.
- 89. A numeral adjective almost invariably follows the noun which it modifies, and is itself followed by an auxiliary word expressing some quality of the noun to which it refers; e. g., giàoi, two men. or is a numeral affix used in speaking of rational beings. Soofia, four dogs. a is a numeral affix used in speaking of quadrupeds.

90. The following table, adapted from a similar one in Mason's Karen grammar, gives a list of numeral affixes with a statement of their uses, and examples.

ကတြူရှိ, applied to things in bundles; e. g., လိၵိတကတြူရှိ,

a boo $\overline{k}$ .

mon, applied to things conceived of as existing in a successive series; e. g., ωβômon, two blankets.

ကဘုံး, applied to things conceived of as existing in thin laminae; e. g., စး<sup>9</sup>ခံကဘုံး, two sheets of paper.

တရာ, applied to companies of persons or animals; e. g., တန်အနီရှိန်တကရာ,  $a \ church.$ 

ကဗီး, applied to plots of ground; e. g., စံဂ်ကကဗီး, a field. ဤန, applied to logs, felled trees etc.; e. g., သူနိတကျိန်. a log of wood.

മി, applied to traps and snares; e. y., തുതാി, a trap.

\$ \$, applied to things conceived as proceeding from one head; e. g.  $\circ \$ \$ \$$ , a bamboo tree.

3, applied to sides of things; e. g., 938, two hands.

വ, applied to rational beings; e. g., നയുമവ, two angels. പ്രാത്രമാവ, three men.

వి, applied to vehicles; e. y., య్గిపేవి, two carts.

တီန်, applied to the eyes, and to large seeds; e. g., ပန္ရဲန် ချံခံတီန်, two jack-fruit seeds.

တီး, applied to things occurring at intervals; e. g., လံ စီဆိုတတီး, a chapter of the Bible.

ထံး, applied to trees; e. g., ωθιωρωιώι, three mango trees.

 $\mathring{\infty}$   $\mathring{\beta}$ , applied to words or sentences; e. g., σλοκονοφ $\mathring{\beta}$ , a word, a saying.

φβ, applied to trees, posts, etc.; ρ. g., ωβυυβωραρ. three teak posts.

າ, applied to bird's nests, e. g., ສີຽສສູ່ລໍສາ, two bird's nests.

- ရ, applied to quadrupeds; e. g., ကသ္နှာ်ရ, two horses.
- a, applied to bamboos and small trees; e. g., of so, one bamboo.
- 8, applied to leaves of the palm and plantain families; e. g., ωκοδωβ, a plantain leaf.

ပူး, applied to places; e. g., အလိ ်ာတပူး, a place.

S: or S:, applied to flowers; e. g., ອີກາໝຸβລໍອີະ, two roses. of applied to large bodies of men and animals; e g., ສີລຸດ, two flocks of sheep.

ရှ, applied to felled trees; e. y., သ္ဂိပတ်ဉ်တရှ, a teak loy.

ဈာ $\beta$ , applied to things conceived of as spherical;  $e.\ g.$ , သ<sup>S</sup>းသ $\beta$ လွ်ာ်ရျာ $\beta$ ,  $two\ mangoes$ .

ഴി. applied to openings; e. g., d නිද්ගු, two doors.

- ဘေ့ $\beta$ , applied to things conceived of as flat ; e. g., ဆီတဘေ့ $\beta$ , a foul.
- 3, applied to things conceived of as cylindrical; e. g., 913013, three snakes.
- ൽ, applied to blows, words and sentences; e. g., തിനരി തൽർൻ, a word or two.

ບໍາ, applied to things referred to in an indefinite manner; e. g., ດາໃຈບໍາລາບໍາ, two or three things.

ωု, applied to songs and poems: e. g., တင်္ဂသားဝံဂိုခံယုန်, two songs.

cos applied to places; e. g., όδος s, a field.

- 91. There are a number of words denoting portions, quantities or collections, which are used in a similar manner to the numeral auxiliaries; e. g., ထံတကွဲး, a drink of water, ຈຸຈະດອຣີ, two bunches of rattans, ຕຸບໍລິດວຽ, a handful of mud.
- 92. When there is no numeral affix proper to a noun, and sometimes even when there is a numeral affix which might be used, the noun itself is repeated after the numeral;

- e. g., ဘီမျာတဘီမျာ, a kingdom. ကြီးတဘ္နာ, or ကြီးတကြီး, a country.
- 93. Sometimes there is a choice of numeral affixes for the same noun; e. g., 380085, or 380915, an eye.
- 94. Numerals are sometimes prefixed to the nouns which they modify; e. g., ອວ່ຽກຄົວຮ້າ, from house to house, ວ່ວລິນາວີ, two or three days.
- 95. The numeral affixes regularly follow the numerals with which they stand. But when the numeral is ten or a multiple of ten, the affix precedes the numeral, and is itself preceded by the particle  $\mathfrak{P}$ ; e. g., Rio:  $\mathfrak{P}$ , twenty cattle.
- 96. The formation of the ordinal numerals will easily be understood from the following examples—

ສອີຊິວໍະວາດາ, first (man); ສອີຊິວໍະ means beginning. ສອີຊິວໍະເກ ຍ້າ. first (thing). ອຳເກດເ, second (man) ໝາຍໍາດ ຍ້າ, third (thing). ຜູ້ໂຊດຊ, fourth (quadruped).

- 97. The ordinal adjectives ສະສິກຫາາ, first, and ສຳກ ຫາາ, last are exceptional in their formation. See § 112.
- 98. Multiplicatives are formed by affixing o: to the cardinal numerals: e. y., so:, twofold.

#### INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES.

- 99. The numeral affixes form the basis of a number of common idioms expressing ideas of number or quantity.
- (1) Certain indefinite numeral adjectives are combined with the numeral auxiliaries, in the same manner as the cardinal numerals. These are  $\mathfrak{I}$ , many,  $\mathfrak{I}$ , few, and  $\mathfrak{I}$ , several: e. g.,  $\mathfrak{I}$  grador, many men;  $\mathfrak{I}$   $\mathfrak{I}$

- (2) The numeral  $\infty$ , one, with an appropriate sumeral affix, often has the sense of the English indefinite article; e. g.,  $\mathfrak{S}$   $\mathfrak{S}$
- .(3) The numeral ത, one, with a reduplicated numeral affix is used in referring indefinitely to one person or thing; e. g., വതവാ, some man, തമ്തുട്ട, some elephant.
- (4) The indefinite adjective of quantity,  $\infty$ , some, is formed from the numeral  $\infty$  by means of the particle 3.
- (5) The reduplicated form  $\infty$  \$1\$1, is used in referring indefinitely to more than one person or thing; grossist, some men.  $\infty$  \$0\$1\$1, some books.
- (6) In a similar way are formed නමා. a little, නමානු and නඉනු, a great deal.
- (7) Universality is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between  $\sigma$  and  $\omega$ າວາ: e. g., gເວດເພາວາວາ, every man.
- (8) The same idea is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between S: and d:: e. g., ຜຽດປະສຸຊິນ: every bird.
- (9) Completeness is expressed by placing a numeral affix between 8 and మై; e. g., ఆస్థిక్షిక్షిక్షిస్తు, the whole earth.
- (10) A complete number may be expressed by affixing  $\mathcal{B}$ 5, രാ§ or ക്രി to any one of the ordinal numerals; e. g., ചാവര്§, ചാവരും, ചാവക്വ, all three (men).
- (11) Singularity is expressed by placing the numeral  $\infty$  with a suitable affix between  $\infty$  and  $\mathfrak{E}_1$ ; e. g.;  $\infty \infty \mathfrak{onl} \mathfrak{E}_1$ , only one (man).
- (12) Identity is expressed by placing the numeral affix between  $\infty$  and  $\vartheta$ ; e. g., တံခဲ့တကျခဲ့သီ, the same house.
- (13) Utter non-existence of a thing is expressed by affixing a numeral auxiliary to နှီတ : e. g., လံဂါတအီဂိုန်တ်ဘဲ့နီ ဘာနီ, There is not a single book

100. Certain other indefinite adjectives of quantity are formed independently of the numeral system. Such are— ວິດເຊັ, ວິດເຊັ້ວສຸ, all, which follows its noun; e. g., ຊເວີດເຊັ, all men.

ຜີຊື່າ, every, which generally precedes its noun. The noun may be followed by the number one, and this may in turn be followed by ພາດາ; e. g., ຜີຊື່າງາ, ຜີຊື່າງາວດາ. ຜີຊື່າງາວດາດາດາດາດາດ, every man.

89\$, whoever, or whatever, which precedes its noun: e. g.,

33βgr, whatever man.

# INTEROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

102. An interrogative adjective with a selective force is formed by prefixing రిటిక్ to the ordinal numeral  $\infty$ , one, which is in its turn followed by the appropriate numeral affix; e. g., శివ్వకించకుర్మన్నవ్వాన్లున్న, Which book do you wish?

103. Interrogative adjectives of quantity are made by prefixing သံး to indefinite adjectives of quantity; e g., သံး $\S$ , how great, သံး $\S$ ), how much, how many, ႏ  $\mathfrak{p}$   $\S$   $\S$   $\mathring{S}$   $\mathring{S}$ , How much money have you? These are used both in direct and indirect discourse. In indirect discourse they sometimes suffer reduplication: r. g., ယ $\mathfrak{p}$   $\mathfrak{p}$   $\S$   $\mathfrak{p}$   $\mathfrak{p}$ 

104. Interrogative adjectives of number may be formed by prefixing § or § to the numeral affix; e. g., ລຸກວັນ ຽເດເວັ\$, How many of you will go? These also may be

used in indirect discourse.

#### DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

- 105 The Karen language has two definite demonstrative adjectives, så, sså, this, and ξ, sså, that. They may modify any substantive element, be it noun, pronoun, phrase or clause.
- 106. နှံ, and occasionally si, is used to mark the end of a noun clause, or of a series of adjectival modifiers of a noun; e. g., gເລະງໂສດຸເພາສສີຊີວິສະວັດເວົ້າວາຕຸຊີສູຊເວດເຊີຊີ, The good old man who lives in Rangoon.
  - 107. 35 is often used with the force of a definite article.
- 108. <sup>3</sup>β is commonly used in referring again to something which has just been mentioned.

#### ADJECTIVAL COUPLETS.

109. Adjectival couplets are affixed to the nouns which they modify. Such a couplet consists of two adjective-verbal roots, each of which is preceded by the particle see. g., quantum on, a good man.

#### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

- 110. The comparative degree is expressed by affixing ວາກຸຈິ to the adjective; e. g., ດຸເ, good, ດຸເວດກຸຈິ, better.
- 111. Where the object of comparison is expressed, the adjective is followed by ຈຸຖ instead of တက္<sub>ເ</sub>ຖິ; e. g., ດຸເຊົາພາ, better than I. In such cases, the object of comparison is generally followed by တက္<sub>ເ</sub>ຖິ; e. g., ດຸເຊົາພາວກຸຖິ, better than I.
- 112. The superlative degree is formed by affixing monit or σηδ to the adjective; e. g., σιασοί or ςιαδ, best.

#### VERBS.

- 113. Karen verbs express actions, states or qualities:  $e, g, \delta v, to go, \mathfrak{S}, to be, ov, to be good.$
- 114. Karen verbs may be divided into transitive and intransitive verbs. Many verbs which in English are regarded as intransitive, in Karen are regarded as transitive, and take an object; e. g., the verb  $\delta i$ , to go, is often used with the object  $\infty i$ .
- 115. In Karen, a verb which can take an object generally does take one. When no definite object can be assigned, the indefinite object  $\infty$  is frequently used; e, g,  $\omega$   $\infty$   $\delta$   $\infty$   $\delta$ , I see. See §81.
- 116. Karen verbs have no inflections, properly so called. The accidents of voice, mood, tense, person and number, are expressed by particles connected with the verb, or are left to be inferred from the subject.

#### VOICE.

- 117. Three voices may be recognized in Karen; Active, Passive and Middle.
- 118. The verb in its simple and primitive form is in the active voice; e.g., in the sentence  $\omega \omega \beta$  is in the active voice.
- 119. The formation of the passive voice is peculiar. A few examples will make it clearer than any explanation.

The following entences exhibit the passive of the verb  $\mathring{\infty}\beta$ , to see—

ယာာဉ်ထရ်ထံခိုယာလိုး, နဘဉ်တရ်ဆံခိုန်းလိုး, ဗြီးဝါဘခ်တရ်ထံခိုမြီးလိုး.

I am seen. You are seen. Saw Wa is seen.

120. In the last sentence,  $3 \cdot 3$  is the subject,  $3 \cdot 5$ , encountered, the predicate,  $3 \cdot 3$ , the seeing, the object of  $3 \cdot 5$ , and  $3 \cdot 5$  the object of the verbal noun  $3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ .

- 121. Occasionally, in the above mentioned form of the passive voice, the reflexive pronouns was, sas, etc., take the place of the simple personal pronouns.
- 122. When it is desired to convey the idea that the subject voluntarily submits to an action, the passive voice is differently expressed. In this case, the verbal root is preceded by 3: or op? and followed by a reflexive pronoun; e. g., ωθιώβωωι, I am seen, I permit myself to be seen, 8100 op? & βωωι, Saw Wa is seen, submits to being seen.
- 123. Closely allied to this second form of the passive voice is a form used to convey the idea that a thing is in a certain state as the result of an action which has been performed upon it; e. g., orses in the second form of the passive voice is a form used to convey the idea that a thing is in a certain state as the result of an action which has been performed upon it; e. g., orses in the second form of the passive voice is a form used to convey the idea that a thing is in a certain state as the result of an action which has been performed upon it; e. g., orses in the second form of the passive voice is a form used to convey the idea that a thing is in a certain state as the result of an action which has been performed upon it; e. g., orses in the second form of the passive voice is a form used to convey the idea that a thing is in a certain state as the result of an action which has been performed upon it; e. g., orses in the second form of the passive voice is a second form of the passive voice in the second form of the passive voice is a second form of the passive voice in the second form of the passive voice is a second form of the passive voice voice
- 124. The middle voice expresses the idea that the subject performs an action upon himself. To express this the active form of the verb is followed by the particle &1, and a reflexive pronoun; e. g., 8101 &5 &1 saw Wa sees himself.

#### MOOD.

- 125. There are only two moods in Karen, the Indicative and the Imperative.
  - 126. The primitive form of the verb is indicative.
- 127. The primitive form of the verb may be used in the imperative; e. g.,  $\mathfrak{sg}$ , Run.
- 128. When a verb is in the imperative mood the sentence (if expressing a command) commonly ends with the particle တက္နາ; e. g., ພຸໂတက္နာ, Run, ထဲဆူယဆီန်တက္နာ, Come to me.
- 129. The particles  $\infty$  and  $\infty$  are sometimes affixed to the verb in an imperative sentence where the idea is that of entreating a superior; e. g., ສຽດເສົາດໃນເທດກຳ, Lless us.

- 130. In giving permission, ຕາໃຈ້ຽ or ຕາໃຈ້ຽ sometimes takes the place of ຫາງໃຊ້ e.g., ထဲးຕາໃຈ້ຽ, Go.
- 131. A sentence expressing a prohibition ends in σοι; e. g., δισοι, Do not go. In such cases the verb may be preceded by φ and the negative particle σ; e. g., φοδισοι, Do not go.
- 132. A precative sentence is introduced by the particle  $\delta$  and otherwise has the form of a sentence expressing command or prohibition; e. g.,  $\delta$ odioof, Let us go,  $\delta$ od odioof, Let us not go.

#### TENSE.

- 133. The verb standing by itself conveys no idea of time. It may refer to past or present time according to the context. E. g.,  $\omega \approx 100$  may mean I go, I am going, or I went.
- 134. An action the performance of which is contemplated, is expressed by prefixing the particle  $\infty$  to the verb. This form is commonly used to express a future action; e. g.,  $\omega \infty \lambda$ , I shall go, I will go.
- 135. The idea of intention or desire is brought out more strongly by prefixing ചി to ന; e. g., ജാറിച്ചതർവരു, Saw Wa desires to go, intends to go.
- 136. Completed action is indicated by affixing the particle  $\omega$  to the verb; e. g.,  $\omega \delta \iota \omega$ , I have gone.
- 137. The same idea is more emphatically expressed by introducing on before o; e. g., ພວກວ່າວ.
- 138 The Karens sometimes use both  $\infty$  and  $\infty$  with the same verb to express an intention to perform an action immediately; e. g.,  $\omega \alpha \delta \omega$ , I will go at once.
- 139. To mark the completion of an action previous to a certain moment of past time, ວຸາໂ is affixed to the verb, and is often followed by &: e. g., ພວກຖະນີອໍະລາຊິຣີເສອີຊຸ

ຕຸເວົ້າວ່, Before I came he had returned. This usage is analogous to the English pluperfect.

140. An action dependent upon a supposed condition contrary to fact is sometimes expressed by prefixing က to the root and affixing တ္ ໂ or တ္ໂလံ ; e. g., နှစ္ໂတဘဲဘာဂိုဒီးယက ထဲးတ္ဂါလံလီး, If you had not come I should have gone by this time.

## PERSON AND NUMBER.

141. The person and number of the verb are to be inferred from those of the subject: but a verb in the third person sometimes takes d after it; e. g., \$10100081, The king comes.

## COMPOUND VERBS.

- 142. Besides the simple verbs, each of which consists as a rule of a single syllable, there are compound verbs formed by combining simple verbs with particles, or with other verbs.
- 143. A verbal couplet is formed of two verbal roots, each of which is followed by a particle; e. g., afagisfor, to believe, βρωβωωβ, to grow up, ω΄ εθισικό, to decrease, ωιωβωικό, to direct, βρωβο, to be holy.
- 144. The Karen language possesses a number of particles which are combined with simple verbs to make new verbs of kindred signification. Many of these particles were originally verbal roots, and are sometimes used as verbs; but in the connection under discussion they are to be considered as particles.
- 145. The following particles are prefixed to the verb— $\Re \beta$ , prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g.,  $\Re \beta \delta \iota$ , to stir up.
- q: has a permissive or causative force; e. g., q:δι, to dismiss, to send.

G 3

od denotes a representing of the action as if done, often only in appearance; e. g., ບຽວລ່ອວະ, to assume the appearance of death.

 $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ , prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g.,  $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ న్ఫ్ఫ్స్స్, to inform.

ພາ has a causative force; e. g., ພາ ໝໍ, to kill.

రు, prefixed to verbs with the negative, indicates that the act is performed imperfectly, or in a slight degree;  $e.\ g.$ , wo సిబ్బాఫ్స్మ్మ్మ్మ్మ్స్స్, I scarcely know.

So indicates that the subject falls into the state indicated by the verb; e. g., So;, to become tired.

Si has also a causative force; e. y., Sizi, to make one laugh.

όβ, prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g., όβωιωιβ, to raise up.

တ္ရန္နီ has a permissive or causative force; e. g., ဟာ့နီ၏ထီနီ, to increase (transitive).

146. The following particles are affixed to the verb— നദീ has a sense of return, retaliation or opposition; e. g., മൂനദിമൂ, to return.

ကခန့်, or ကခန့်ယာဝီ, has a concessive force; e. g., မှာ်ကခနိ စီနှာန်လီး, admitting it to be so, နှစ်းတရန္ဒာမ်ာ့ကခန်ယာဝီ, admitting the truth of what you say.

ກອື: indicates that the same action has been performed before; e. g., သະເວັດກອື:, sing again.

ອາ indicates returning, or repetition of an action, or the performance of an action which there had been a previous unwillingness to perform; e. g., တဲတုံး, come back, နຽတုံး, believe.

જુ indicates that the act is performed by way of trial; e. g., ωι κ, to try, κρα, to taste.

స్తార్ denotes that the action results in a separation; e. g., రర్వార్, to put away.

ພຽ denotes that the action results in making secure; e. g., ວາພຽ, to tie.

ωδ denotes that several persons or things act together; e. g., διωδ, to go together.

ജ denotes that the act is done straight forward, literally or figuratively; e. g., തുടിയ, to look off.

8 indicates that the action is performed from an elevation; e. g.,  $\infty$ 98, to look off (as from a height).

on denotes that the action is performed by way of assistance; e. g., wooding, I will help you paddle.

 $\mathfrak{B}$  denotes that an act is done before some event takes place; e. g.,  $\mathfrak{SB}$ , to see before.

თολ, affixed to verbs in the negative, indicates that the action is imperfectly or slightly performed; e. g., ωωρδωολωβ, I do not put much faith in it.

တု denotes that the action results in arriving; e. g., ဘဲတု to arrive.

တွင်္ဂ shows that the action is hastened; e. g., တဲတ္ရရိတဲးတဲး, Come along quickly.

ని8 is affixed to a few words denoting separation; e. g., రికి off.

တီနံ indicates self-originated action; e. g., အဝဲကလဲးတီနံ ၁နီတန်, He will go of his own accord. Occasionally it denotes certainty; e. g., တန်ကမ်းတီနံဒန်ဘာသမီးနှန်လီး, It will be sure to happen so.

B indicates an upward motion; e. g., &i&, to go up.

&\$\beta\$ indicates an upward motion, literal or figurative; e. g., &1&\$\beta\$, to ascend, \$\sin \&\beta\$, to increase. It often denotes incipient action; e. g., \$\$\beta &\beta\$, to come into being.

9 $\S$  indicates independent action; e. g., ωπωι εβώ, I will do it myself.

ခန်ကယာဂ, or ခန်ကလီး, indicates that the subject defers some other action to perform the one indicated by the verb; e. g., အနာဒီးခန်ကလီး, Wait a bit, ယကအနာခုခန်ကယာန်မှာ, I will eat rice first.

indicates that the action results in obtaining; e. g.,  $\mathfrak{CSAR}$ , to find.

 $\S \S$  indicates that the action results in observing; e. g.,  $\S \S \S$ , to remember.

υδ, or υδοιι, indicates that the action is done before some other event; e. g., ὁ:υδοιι, to promise, to foretell.

oil indicates that the action reaches unto its object;  $e.\ g.,\ \text{divil},\ to\ go\ unto.$ 

q: denotes that the act was done unintentionally, 8:9:, to utter an involuntary cry.

લુ indicates that the action results in going through; e. g., તેરાલ, to go through.

ສະ indicates that the action results in an ascent; e. g., &  $\beta$ ສະ, to ascend.

ဘေးနာ indicates that the action passes over onto an object; e g., ယကတဲ့ဘာနီအီး, I will tell him.

φι denotes that the act is performed by way of assistance; e. g., ωιόδωι, to sing together with one.

c8 indicates that the act is performed by or for imitation; e. g., c8, c0 to teach, c6, c9, to learn.

లోకి indicates reciprocal action; e. g., క్రైనిర్మాణపుస్థిలోకి అమిక, Brothers should love one another.

& indicates a downward motion, literal or figurative; e. g., & w. to descend, grant, to decrease.

യങ്ങൾ enotes that several persons or things act in company; e. g., പ്രാനം: to go together.

သက္ကາ indicates that the act is performed from a distance; ໝໍລິລາກູາ, to behold afar off.

သອβ indicates that the action results in forsaking; e. g., διωοβ, to forsake.

න් indicates an incipient action; e. g., တုအစ်ခေန်ကဲනි හි ပးနှုန်, when he had just become king.

φ $\beta$  denotes that the action is done carefully or stealthily; e. g.,  $\gamma$   $\beta$   $\beta$ , to watch closely.

#### DEPENDENT VERBS.

- 147. A verb depending on another follows it immediately, without undergoing any change of form; e. g., ພຸດຕັງ: ຄາະພາສາປະເທດ I will try to do it. This is the common construction for expressing suitibility, necessity, etc.; e. g., ສາປາຊົດຕົງ: ພໍດີຊາ, He should come, ພຸລາຊົດຕາເປັດ, I must go.
- 148. Where in English two verbs are connected by the conjunction and, in Karen the second verb may immediately follow the first, without a conjunction; e. g., ພກວ່າ ພຸສາເຮົາ, I will go and seek it.

#### IDIOMS IN THE USE OF VERBS.

- 149. The causative verb ຜາ and the permissive verb ຢຸ permit the dependent verb to be preceded by a subject; e. g., ປຸນວາດຊາ, Let me go, ສາວພານວາດຊາ, He caused me to go. The dependent verb and its subject may be regarded as a substantive clause, forming the object of the causative or permissive verb.
- 150. Verbs expressing ability stand at the end of the sentence (or clause) preceded by the verb expressing the act in question, with its subject, and object if it have one; e. g., wordsage, I can read. The verb and its subject may be regarded as a substantive clause forming the subject of the verb of ability.

- 151. The following list exhibits the common verbs of ability, with their meanings, and examples of their use.
- သူ, ability considered with reference to skill, also the generic expression of ability; e. g., ယထဲးမာလိတ်ကိုတာမျိန်းယဖေး တံသိသွင်း, I went to school once, and I can read.
- ത്, ability considered with reference to physical health, or inclination; e. g., ധ $\S$ \$യി, ധഗഃര്&ത്യാത്തെ\$, My head aches, I cannot go to walk.
- ຊຸຣິ, ability considered with reference to effectiveness of effort; e. g., ထဲးသမဂ္ဂအာဂြီးတရိမ်း, ພငါအေးတန္ခဏ္ဌာန, The carpenter has work, I cannot hire him.
- ချုႏ, ability considered with reference to leisure; e.~g., ယဘ $\beta$ မေးလိတ $\beta$ ခဲ့ဆီး, ယဟ $\alpha$ းလိ $\beta$ ကွဲးတရားက $\beta$ , I~must~study~now, I~cannot~go~to~walk.
- ဘβ, ability considered with reference to accomplishing the end proposed; e. g., ດຳວັກວ່າວຸໂກວນາ, ພະກວກβກβ, This book is Talaing, I cannot read it.
- ຽາ, ability considered with reference to the sufficiency of the subject; e. g., တາຍາສາດຊີສະເພຍາອຽເລຊ, The work is too great, I cannot do it.
- 152. The ideas of suitability, agreeableness etc., are often expressed in a similar manner to that of potentiality; e. g., န9ະກວນຸຊິກູຊິຣ໌ໄ, Dare you ride a horse? ພອະກວສິ ຫຊຽກຊິ, I do not like to ride an elephant, ບວ່າວາງວາງວາງວາງຊິດໄ, IIad we not better go to worship? ພຊາສີກໍລວວິຊິເຕີເຮີຣ໌ໄ, Is it proper for me to buy a silk jacket?
- 153. The verb \$\$\\$, expressing desire, takes \$\oints\$\$ for its subject, and is followed by a verb denoting that act the performance of which is desired. This latter verb is followed by \$\oints\$; self, with the possessive case of a pronoun denoting the person who desires to perform the action. Then comes the object of the verb of action, generally introduced by \$\oints\$; e. g., \$\oints\$\$\Sigma\Sigma\sigma

- to see you, သရှားနှာ်တရဲမြိန္များသားလုံးပြဲတေဘာ့နှာကြီး, The teacher wishes to buy a book.
- 154. Possession is expressed by the verb  $\Re \beta$ , to be, in the three following ways—
  - (1) The possessor stands as the subject, and the thing possessed follows the verb, with which it is connected by the preposition 3: e. g., యావ్స్ కించనీరాన్స్, I have a book.

(2) Or possessor and thing possessed may change places;

e. g., လံဉ်တဘ္ ဉိအီဉိဒီးယာ,  $I have \ a \ book.$ 

(3) Or the thing possessed, modified by the possessive case of a noun or a pronoun denoting the possessor, may stand as the subject of the verb; e. g., అయర్యం స్ట్రాన్స్ స్ట్రెస్, I have a book.

#### ADVERBS.

155. Karen adverbs are mostly derived from other roots, though a few strictly adverbial roots exist.

## ADVERBS OF MANNER.

156. Adverbs of manner are regularly formed by duplicating adjective roots; e. g.,  $g_{s}$ ,  $g_{s}$ ,

157. Adverbs so formed very commonly take the affix

ကလိ $\delta$ ; e. g., ဆူဉ်ဆူဉ်ကလဲ $\delta$ .

- 158. Sometimes an adjectival root is used in an adverbial sense. This is commonly the case when it is itself modified by another adverb; e. g., ອາວານຸຊິພະ, Saw Waruns very fast, ກວນຊີລຸກຸກຸ, He runs not swiftly.

160. Occasionally adverbs of manner are formed by prefixing \$\epsilon\$ to an adjectival root; e. g., \$\epsilon\$00, well.

161. Many adverbs of manner are irregular in their formation; e. g., ఆయికు, openly, ఆమోగ్రిక్స్, exactly

162. Demonstrative adverbs of manner are formed by combining the preposition  $\delta$ , like, with the demonstratives si and  $\delta$ , or with  $\delta \delta$ ; e. g.,  $\delta$ si,  $\delta$ 

## ADVERBS OF PLACE.

163. Adverbs of place may be formed from the demonstrative adjectives  $\sin$  and  $\beta$  in combination with the prepositions  $\delta$ ,  $\cos$  and  $\alpha$ . They are exhibited in the following table.

don, here, daβ, there, doβ, where, dondan, here and there.

လာအံး, here, လာနှံန်, there, လာလဲန်, where, whence, လာအံးလာနှံ၊, here and there.

apå, hither, apβ, thither, apòβ, whither, apåiap, hither and thither.

164. The prepositions condot and condot form adverbs of place in combination with such roots as condot, front, dots, dots,

#### ADVERBS OF TIME.

165. Certain adverbs denoting past time are formed by the prefix  $\omega$  (or  $\varphi$ ?) in combination with roots denoting time, as follows—

မကားန်, မကီန်, just now, မဆါ, to-day, မရိုး, this morning, မရုံး, lust night. မဘါ, yesterday. မဘါတာ, the other day. မကာန်တဘာရှိ, မကိန်တဘာရှိ, lust time (in the immediate past). မတ္တါတာရှိ, last time (in the more remote past). യറിനു്, last week.

မါထါတန်, " "

• യറിതയി, last month.

ധിയിതയി, ", ", မငါတနံ့န်, last year.

166. Adverbs expressing future time may be formed in two ways-

(1) By the prefix  $\delta$ , as follows—

ວ່າ, ວິດວ່າວິດ, now, denoting the immediate future, or the present.

ລິພະກາ, to day, second, this evening, with verbs of future time.

381. to-morrow.

3081, the day after to-morrow.

388, in the future.

ခဲကSတော်ရှိ, next time.

ansoi, next week.

ခဲ့က်လေတွေ, next month.

ansonis, next year.

(2) By the use of the prepositions ω1 and ω. Cf. §164. The most common of these are-

໙າວໍ, ໙າວໍຕຸາ, afterwards.

ဆူညါ, ဆူညါ3, in the future.

တျားဆိုသူညို, henceforth.

167. On is prefixed to some temporal adverbs when the idea of futurity is not implied; e. g., ໝາຊາສາຊີ, by day, လးများလာကစား, of old.

168. Another class of temporal adverbs is formed by using temporal nouns like numeral auxiliaries, as follows—

သူတန်းကျား, all day.

യ്യൂപ്പു, all night.

သူသူတန်း. daily.

သိသိတန္း, nightly.

ອື່າໝີ, all day, (similarly ອີາໝີ, ອີ່ສູ້ໝີ, etc).

ຕະພາຈຳວະ, every day, (similarly ຕະພາຈາວະ, ຕະສູອະ etc).

- 169. Many adverbs of time are not formed in accord with any law; e. g., ച്ലയാട്ട, quickly, &8, always.
- 170. The roots ຈໍາ, still, yet, and ໝາ, any more, are adverbial by virtue of their intrinsic signification. The following examples will illustrate their use: ພະສິກຊີໂດເ ພາກວ່າຈໍາວາຊຸເຊີເຊີເ, I think I shall still go several times, ສຽວວ່າຈໍາວຸຊີ, He has not yet come, ພຸວຸລະຊີດນາລຸຊີ, I have no more money.

#### NUMERAL ADVERBS.

- 171. Adverbs denoting how many times are formed from the cardinal numerals, in combination with the affix ဘို or q; e. y., అందే, once, పేషే, twice, ముq, thrice.
- 172. റ്റി and a are treated like numeral auxiliaries, and may enter into all the combinations of which numeral auxiliaries are capable; e. y., തര്വിയ, simultaneously, at once, തര്വിറ്റി, തമുമ, sometimes, റിട്റ്റിട, every time, വാമലി, as many as three times.
- 173. Adverbs denoting which time are formed like ordinal numerals: c. y., නම්විස්ගෙන්ට්, the first time, ්නේනන්ට්, the second time.
- 174. The particles q and ജി enter into certain irregular formations; e. g., വുദാർ; വുദാജി, then.

## ADVERBS OF DEGREE.

175. Some adverbs of degree are formed like the adverbs of manner described in §§ 156 and 157: e. g., පිරිපිරිතන්රි, greatly, නම්නා ගන්රි, much.

177. The following adverts are intensive:  $\omega_1$ ,  $\infty_1$ ,  $3^{\circ}$  (used with adjectives denoting disagreeable sensations), and  $\infty$  (used with adjectives denoting smallness or fewness).

178. A moderate degree is expressed by coupling two contradictory roots, each of which is modified by a negative; e. g., တ8ຽກ ໝໍາກຽ, ດາສໂດຊາກຽ, moderately.

179. Other adverbs of degree are irregularly formed; e. g., φισφι, not at all (with negatives), ωβωβ, about, αβωβ, too.

#### ADVERBS OF COMPARISON.

- 180. Equality is expressed by δສະສະ, equally; e. g., ສຽວຽະກິບາຈິບໍາຜົເອີະບາດສີ່ຽີລີເສະຜິເ, He understands Burmese and Karen equally, ສຽວຽດດອີເບໍ່າຜົເອີລີເສີະບາດສີ ຜິເ, He speaks Burmese equally with Karen.
- 181. Inequality is expressed by a combination of two contradictory roots expressive of quantity; e. g., သရဉ်တကြား ခံနည်နှိန်နိုင်း၏ ၅ ເຊເພດ (၁၈) ရှိသည်, A teacher should not judge his pupils unequally.

#### INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

- 182. Interrogative adverbs of time and place may be formed from the interrogative particle  $\alpha\beta$ ; e. g.,  $\beta\alpha\beta$ , where, when,  $\alpha\beta$ , where, whence,  $\alpha\beta$ , whither.
- 184. Interrogative adverbs of quantity are formed by prefixing &: to adjectives of quantity; e. g., &: ε, bow much.

- 185. These are also repeated in indirect discourse; e. g., ယင်္ဘာနီအီးဆီး၏ဆီး၏လိန်နှီနီယတ်တသဲ့ဘန်, I cannot tell how much I like it.
- 186. The interrogative adverb of reason is πρωμι, why? e. g., πρωμιωιμοδιωμδθεωιπροδρ, Why do not you go with me?

## ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION.

- 187. Assent is expressed by ອຸໂ or ສາຽ.
- 188. Negation is expressed by prefixing  $\infty$  to the verb, and affixing  $\infty\beta$ ; e. g.,  $\infty \delta \infty \delta \infty \beta$ , He does not come.
- 189. A denial is expressed by a negative sentence; e. g., 8ເດໂວຣ໌ໂ, တထိဘ္ဂိ, Has Saw Wa come? No—literally, Not come, ຕອຸໂລຊິ, No—literally, It is not.

#### ADVERBS OF PROBABILITY.

190. These are irregular in formation; e. y., ωρωωρ, ωρωρ, perhaps, ωρρωίλ, certainly.

#### CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

191. The following are conjunctive adverbs of time— ຕຸາ, when; e.g., ຕຸາພວ່ງ ຊີເສັ້ງພຸດວັນ ລຸກີສີເຮົາ, When I see him I will tell him.

တချုး, before; e. g., ပတ္ချုးလဲးခံးဘ $\beta$ ဒီးပက္အ $\beta$ ဒ $\beta$ က္လ $\beta$ ဝှင္ကလ $\beta$ ၃. We will eat rice before we go.

ສອາຊາ, ສຸດສຳຊາ, while; e. y., ສຸດສຸດສອາຊາີສະກຸລິດກຳ ສາດສາ, He fell sick while he was coming. See also § 222.

192. పి: is used as a correlative conjunctive adverb;  $e.\ g.$ , అపింబంటియేన్ అపిక ప్రవిణ్ణంటే నిర్మిక్స్  $The\ more\ I\ study,\ the\ more\ I\ wish\ to\ study.$ 

#### ADVERBIAL COUPLETS.

193. Adverbial couplets are common; e. g., ໙າໝໍເພາລີ, in the beginning, ຯສຳຈຸາ, here and there, ຕວິໂຕຜິໂ, slowly.

## COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

194. Adverbs which are derived from adjectival roots are susceptible of comparison. An adverb in the comparative or superlative degree is in form exactly the same as the corresponding adjective in the same degree; e. g., ອືເວງ ພຸຊີຊູຊີ ຈີສວີ ຈີກວາຊີ, Saw Wa runs faster than his brother.

#### · PREPOSITIONS.

195. The Karen language has seven prepositions, 3, α, ω, δ, ωηι, οισή, and δ.

196. 8:, means with: it governs the objective case.

197.  $\infty$  means to or towards: it governs the objective case; but often, instead of governing the noun directly, the aid of a secondary noun is brought in. See §§ 198, 199.

198. On means at or from, according to the context. It seldom governs a substantive directly, but usually governs a secondary noun, which is modified by the principal substantive, in the possessive case. On in itself is extremely indefinite, and these secondary nouns are brought in to make the meaning more definite.

199. The more common of the secondary nouns are exemplified below—

လာပဗိန်အအိန်, လာထူနိဝါအင်းထံး, လာစီးပးအ<sup>ချိ</sup>န်ထံး, လာယဃး၊, လာတံန်အမွန်ညြ, လာတံန်အလိန်နံ, လာထူလးအချာသံ, လာတိန်နိုန်ချာ, လာယာလိုး, လာဟံန်အပူး,

from the Governor.

by or near Htu Wa.

at the king's feet.

by my side.

in front of the house.

behind the house.

behind Tun Hla.

on the earth.

on me-literally, on my surface.

လာဟံ $\beta$ အပူး, in the house. လာစ္ပွဲအဖြင့္ပြဲလာစပ္သြားမွာ  $\beta$ , လာစပ္သြားနှင့် on the table.

တာအဦန, on his head. လာဟံဉ်အဖြဲလဉ်, under the house. လာဟံဉ်အကျို, among the houses. လ၊ ဟံ ဉိအဘ႑ဉ်စ႑ၤ, between the houses. round about the house. လ၊ တံဉ်အဃၢၤဝးဝး, for my wife's sake, for my wife. လာယခါ အင်္ဂြာ, လာတရုံအီးအည်, on account of this, because of this. **ນາ** ທີ່ ໃບໍ່ເພີເສດ ໂ, လาหรึ่งเห็นของริง  $\langle about \ Burma. \rangle$ വാന്റിറ്റുത്യുക്കറ്റിക്കുന്നു. on the surface of the water. လာထံဉ်မံးမြှန်,

200.  $\delta$  means in. It may govern the objective, or may be used with a secondary noun, like  $\infty_1$ .

201. ລຖາ, throughout, and oະສໍາ, round about, govern the objective.

202. §, like, as, always governs the secondary noun ສະ, the object of comparison being placed in the possessive case; e. g., ສາງໂພເຣີລລຸລິສລະສຸລິສາ, The pupil acts like the teacher. Sometimes the object of comparison is a noun clause, when § corresponds in meaning to the English as; e. g., ສາງໂພເຣີລລຸລິພເລສະສຸລິສາ, The pupil does as the teacher does. See §§ 211, 228.

#### CONJUNCTIONS.

203. The Karen language has few conjunctions, supplying their place with phrases which are equivalent to conjunctions. A classified list of the conjunctions, together with the more important conjunctive phrases, will be found below.

#### COPULATIVE.

204. 82, and, connects words, phrases or clauses. It may stand at the close of the preceding clause, or at the beginning of the following one.

 $\mathfrak{F}:-\mathfrak{F}:$ , both-and; e. g.,  $\mathfrak{S}:$   $\mathfrak{S}:$ 

હૈમે— હૈમે, and also; e. g., કેહેમે8ઈફ્રો, એહેમે8ઈફ્રો, ပတલાંજફે, You are a man and I also am a man, we are not afraid.

မေးကဗြီးတေဘာ် ( or တစု ), again. လေးအီး ( or နှာန်) အမြန်ညာ၊, moreover. လေးအီး ( or နှာန်) အမြန်န, moreover. အမြန်တလိန်, not only so. တစ္နေထဲ, not only so.

# ADVERSATIVE.

မှာဂိဂ္ဂၤ—မှာဂိဂ္ဂၤ, either—or; e. g., ဆီမှာဂိဂ္ဂၤထြန်မှာဂိုမှာဂိဂ္ဂၤပ္ဖားနှာကား လာတဘာ့ခိုတကွာရှိ, Buy me either a fowl or a duck.

# ILLATIVE.

206. မိခ်ိန္နာဗိုဒီး, ພຸຈິອີနှာဗိုဒီး, အကူရိယ္ရာခ်ိန္နာဗိုဒီး, မှယ္ရာခ်ိန္နာဗိုဒီး, မာသးခိန္နာဗိုဒီး, အအုန္ဂဒီး, and a few other phrases, take the place of the illative conjunction therefore.

207. The temporal adverbs ભારાળવ and ભારાળગી, then, sometimes have the force of illative conjunctions.

#### CAUSAL.

208. ສຸດຸາຣິສຳ, ສຸດຸາຣິ $\alpha$ ຊິ, ພຸາສຸດຸາຣິ $\alpha$ ຊິ, because. ອຸາອຸາໜາ, ສຸດຸາລຸາຄູາໜາ, because.

သတ:8:, because. This stands at the end of its clause; e. g., ယ $\mathfrak{p}$ 9:သတ:8:ယမ္မာအီကံတသ္ဘ $\mathfrak{S}$ , I cannot buy a jacket because my money is scant.

## HYPOTHETICAL.

209. gr, when.

 $σιο<math>^{5}$ , if.

 $\mathfrak{S}$ , if. In this sense  $\mathfrak{S}$  stands stands immediately after the subject. See § 223.

 $\mathfrak{S}\mathfrak{D}$ , though, stands, in this sense, at the end of the clause it modifies.

နှစ်သက္, သန္ဝိက္စ္တ, though, stands at the end of its clause; e. g., အမွှားမြိန်နစ်သက္ (or ဘာရိုဆရိုဒီး) ယကမ္ဘာအီးလီး, Although the price is high, I shall buy it.

မ္ ရန်ဂ်သက္ခရိန္အ နိုင္ပါး, nevertheless.

#### TELIC.

210. on, that. See § 220. SS:, \$S:3:, in order that. See § 225, 226.

# COMPARATIVE.

211. The preposition  $\S$ , governing the secondary noun  $\mathfrak{S}_{\sharp}$ , performs the function of a comparative conjunction. See  $\S\S$  202, 228.

## INTERJECTIONS.

212. The Karen language has numerous interjections, for which consult the dictionary,

#### PARTICLES.

213. Most of the particles have been treated under the various parts of speech. A few which cannot be so treated to advantage are described here. They are used at the end of sentences to indicate the character of the sentence.

# AFFIRMATIVE PARTICLES.

214. So is used with simple affirmatives.

wish implies that the statement is a matter of course. with implies assent or concession.

\$8, αβ\$8, or αβ\$8 is generally used in reply to questions.
 ω:δβ has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

## NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

215.  $\mathfrak{P}(\text{colloquially, }\mathfrak{P})$  is used at the close of a negative sentence.

qδωδ, ωδωδ imply that the statement is probably not true.

ω: ωβ has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

### INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

216 c) is used after a direct question; e. y., φωρω, Are you well?

 $\delta \beta$  is used after an indirect question; e. g., ఫిబ్బానీస్, Where are you going? In conversation  $\delta \beta$  often takes the place of  $\delta \beta$ . It may also enter into any of the combinations into which  $\delta \beta$  enters.

၏ —၏ are used in an alternative question; e. g , နာဘဲ နာ၆း သက္လွံသန်၏သဃီးသန်၏, Do you want a plantain or a mango?

ရေ—ထဲနှိ are used in alternative questions, especially in indirect discourse; e. g., အစ်တဲ့လာပသံနှိ၏လာဟာကားထဲနှံနှိ သဘသန်ညာဘန်, I do not know whether he comes from Bassein or Henzada.

ခွေန is equivalent to ဘန်၏.

# IMPERATIVE PARTICLES.

217. σφη marks a command, σφι, a prohibition, ση εδ, or ση ελ, a permission or a somewhat urgent request.

G 4

#### PRECATIVE PARTICLES.

218.  $\$ \S$ , at the end of a declarative or imperative sentence, asks for consent. Hence it softens a command into a request. E. g., ດຕາລາຊບໍ່ \$ \$ \$ \$, We will go home, shall we not? ອາວາເພາດຖາ \$ \$ \$ \$, Help me, won't you?

#### SYNTAX OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

- 219. Subordinate clauses are not only introduced by a conjunction or some equivalent part of speech, but where they do not stand at the end of the sentence they are also terminated by a conjunction or other particle.
- 221. Adjective clauses are introduced by ωι and terminated by \$\beta\$; e. g., ώδωιω ηδηλεδ \$\beta\$δωιο βωβδωιο βωβδωιο βωβδωιο που the book which the teacher wrote is on the table.

- 224. မှ s is occasionally used to introduce a concessive conditional clause ending in သနင်းကို, or ဘာနိဆန် ; e. g., တင်္ဂြာလော့ရသည်ကိုမကဘန်ထားလီး, Even though it rains we shall have to go.
- 226. Negative clauses of purpose take the form of a prohibitory clause preceded by δω; and terminated (when necessary) by 8:; e. g.. δω: ξωρων ββρουιθ: ξωρων ββδωνιφ, In order that you may not get wet, you must carry an umbrella.
- 227. Negative clauses of purpose are sometimes left without an introductory particle, and are terminated by  $\mathfrak{S}$   $\mathfrak{S}$
- 228. Clauses of comparison are introduced by § and terminated by ສວະຊຸຣ, e. g., ຈີ່ອາດາພາວສວະຊຸຣ, ໝວຣຸພາຣິຊຸຣີ ສວະເຈົ້າເຮົາ, As Saw Wa does, so does Tun Tha also. See § 202, 211.





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