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# A GRAMMAR 

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# SGAV IKAREN 

By Rev. Davit, gilaiore. M. A.,

Of the American Baptst M/ssion<br>in Burma.

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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 Engli:h, 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 intrincic 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 pẻfect 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 $\wp$ appearing among both consonants and vowel's.

## THE CONSONANTS

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

| $\infty$ | m8จิ¢0： | $k$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ว | ว：m82 | $k h$ |
| $\bigcirc$ |  | $g h$ |
| w | พะ\％§ | ch |
| c | c： | $n g$ |
| 0 | 0：0squ | s |
| $\infty$ | 2：00 | $h s$ |
| 9 | 9จ๐口ิ | $s h$ |
| 20 | 2．ల్రీ\％ | $n y$ |
| $\infty$ | $\infty$ of？ | $t$ |
| $\infty$ | －\％ow | $h t$ |
| $\bigcirc$ | 3：03ை | $d$ |
| \＄ | \＄：00 $0^{\text {a }}$ | $n$ |
| ， | －\％os | $p$ |
| $\bigcirc$ | ט：uอ์ร | $h p$ |
| $\infty$ | かっロ๓ะ | $b$ |
| $\omega$ | ๒ะ8์： 50 | $m$ |
| $\omega$ | 以：3\％8 | $y$ |
| ๑ | ๑：mฺ | ？ |
| co | งะm $\uparrow$ ¢ | $l$ |
| $\bigcirc$ | 0：m82 | $w$ |
| 00 |  | th |
| い | u：n¢ fogr | $h$. |
| ๑ | ๙：ว่ญ8 | － |
| $\bullet$ | umolf | $h h$ |

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 $g$.
$\partial$ is the aspirate of $m$. It is pronounced like $k h$ as heard in the phrase brick house, or in Bokhara.

- has no analogue in the European languages.
$\omega \sim$ is pronounced like ch in the German bach, or the Scottish loch.
c is pronounced like $n g$ in sing, or $n$ in $i n k$.:
- has a sound intermediate between $s$ and $z$. ",
$\infty$ is the aspirate of 0 . It has the sound of $s s h$, as heard in the phrase hiss him.

๑ is pronounced like sh in shun.
$\bigcup_{0}$ is pronounced like $\tilde{n}$ in cañon, or $n y$ 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.
$\checkmark$ has a sound intermediate between $p$ and $b$.
$\bigcirc$ is the aspirate of 0 It is pronounced like $p h$ as heard in the phrase hap hazard.
$\omega$ is pronounced like th as heard in thin.
$\wp$ as a consonant has no sound of its own ; it is a mere stem to which rowel 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 $2, \infty, \infty$ and 0 , 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．

| $\bigcirc$ | ， | $\bigcirc$ | $b g h$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ט | － | \％ | by |
| ๑ | O | 5 | $b r$ |
| $\bigcirc$ | 3 | 0 | $b l$ |
| $\bigcirc$ | － | 8 | 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 $\mathfrak{\Omega}$ ．

10．Other vowel sounds are represented by symbols joined to the consonants which they follow．

11．When such vowel somnds stand alone，their s．mbols are joined to the character $\mathfrak{\infty}$ ．

12．The vowel symbols alone，and in combination with $\circledast$ and $\infty$ ，are shown below．

|  | ค | a | $\infty$ | $b a$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | ร2 | a | $\infty$ | $b a$ |
|  | ฉ๐ | $i$ | か | $b i$ |
| 1 | 321 | \％ | か） | $b \ddot{\partial}$ |
| 1 | 39 | i | $\sim$ | $b u ̈$ |
| 1 | 3 | $u$ | $\sim$ | bu |
|  | $\bigcirc$ | $e$ | 0 | be |
| $\stackrel{\square}{1}$ | ふ | i | $\geqslant$ | bè |
| $\bigcirc$ | 3 | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | bo |
| － | 8 | av | 6 | baw |

13．The subjoined table explains more definitely the powers of the vowels．
$\infty, \quad a$ in quota．
ふી，a in futher．
ふ่，$i$ in machine．
ふr，German ö in Göthe，or $u$ in Turkey．
so，German $\ddot{u}$ in Glück，French $u$ in lune．
s，$u$ in rule，$o \infty$ in moon．
®，approximately $a$ in rate．
ふ，French $\grave{e}$ in Molière，or $e$ in met．
ふ，$o$ in note．
s，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 vary－ ing 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 $f(ふ ฺ)$ is pronounced with a heavy falling inflection．

A syllable marked with $\delta\left(\infty: 5^{\circ}\right)$ is pronounced abruptly， at a low pitch．

A syllable marked with ：（q）$\{\infty \times 8$ ）is pronounced abruptly at an ordinary pitch．

A syllable marked with $\oint(\omega: 05)$ is pronounced with a falling circumflex inflection．

A syllable marked with $2(\infty \oint 8)$ is pronounced with a prolonged even tone．

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

## 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 a (pronounced $z$ ) is sometimes used to represent the English $j$ or soft $; \cdot$

The Pwo Karen inflection, ( $¢$ S $\mathrm{D}^{\circ}$ ) is sometimes used to represent a final $l$ in an English syllable. It is pronounced like $\$$.

## ARBITRARY CHARACTERS.

18. $\delta$ is generally pronounced like $\delta^{\circ}$, and $\oint$ like $\mathcal{Q}_{2}$; but at Tavoy and Mergui they are sometimes pronounced like $\omega_{r}$ 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 | $S$ | 9 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\circ$ | 0 | $\mathcal{J}$ | P | G | 9 | 6 | $\imath$ | 0 | E |

The Arabic system of notation is used.

## THE STRUCTURE OF THE SENTENCE.

21. The order of words in Karen may be illustrated by
 builds a house. Eৃol, Saw Wa, subject; ग̧§, builds, predicate; $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{p}}$, house, object; $\mathfrak{c}_{2}$, a particle used to mark the close of a declarative sentence.

A Karen senteuce, 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



 adverb modifying :

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 modifer 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 ly 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 uspr8 $\uparrow$, a big house, $8 \uparrow$ appears as an adjective; in cospid, the house is big, 8 个 appears as a verb; in mpsocs 8 , the bigncss of the house, 8 , 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 Noms, 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.: BSiciuç, Burma, (ß\{ meaning country); ofosmp, Rangoon, (\% meaning city). Names of men are preceded by the particle Br; e.g., Brapus, Surw Shuce Yaw. Names of women are preceded by the particle sps; e. g., \$\$800ః, 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. y., cip, a house, o3S, w book, cq, gold, लीf, un or.
30. Derivative nouns are such as are derived from-
(1) Verbal ronts,
(2) Adjectival roots,
(3) Other noun roots.
31. Nouns are formed from verbal roots in the following ways-
(1) Abstract uouns of :ation are formed-
(a) By pretixing the particle of to the verbal root: c. g., from the ront cor, to go, is formed the noun osicol, going, journey.
(b) By simply using the verbal root as a noun, qualifying it by a demonstrative adjective ; e. g., do of âp, to go.
(2) Nouns of agency are formed by prefixing $\mathrm{y}^{2}$, person, to the verb, and at the same time affixing \&; e. g., groor $\infty\{8$, a traveller. Sometimes the affix $\&$ is omitted.
(3) Instrumental nouns are formed by prefixing $\$_{S}$ to the verbal root; e. g., of, to paddle, 影of, a paddle.
(4) Nouns denoting the place where an action is performed are formed by prefising ふో, pluce, to the verbal root ; e. g., $\dot{\dot{b}}$, to sleep, $\mathrm{c}^{\circ} \dot{\dot{\varphi}}$, a bed.
32. Nouns are formed from adjectival roots in the following ways-
(1) Abstract nouns of quality are formed by prefixing $\infty$ of to the adjectival root; c. g., ก. good, ofin, goodness.
(2) Nouns denoting persons are formed by prefixing to the adjectival root the particle 0 , which is a contraction of yz; e. g., 8 p, great, 08 , a ruler, literally a great man.
33. Nouns are formed from other noun roots in the following ways-
(1) Diminutives are formed by adding \&, youny, little, to the noun root; e. g., óp, a doy, $\dot{q} \dot{\beta}\}$, a little dog, a puppy.
(2) Gentile nouns, and all nouns expressing residence, are formed by affixing \& to the name of the place; $\epsilon . g$., $\circ\left\{\right.$, city, $0\left\}\right.$, citizens. The particle $y^{2}$ is generally pre-

(3) Two or more noun roots may be combined: ". \%.,

34. Noun couplets are tormed 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.,
 ofol, goodness, woivç\{, my cmuntry, ฐ̊ocir, your de-
 amples 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 expresiive of human relationship, are masculine or feminine by their signification ; e. g., טf, father, 8§, mother, 02, husband, ט7, wije, 8887, man, $8 \delta \varphi \hat{q}$, woman.
38. The great body of names of living creatures are of common gender; c.g., \&oup, child, mơp, horse.
39. The gender of such indeterminate nouns may be distinguished by the folluwing affixes-

8ร̊า, or $\frac{8}{}$, masculine, applied to human beings.
$8 \varepsilon q\}$, or $q$, feminine, applied to human beings.
(1), masculine, applied to animals.
\$\{, feminine, applied to animals.
 horse, mo्ppol, stallion, mopp\$\{, mure.

## NUMBER.

40. Karen nouns convey of themselves no idea of number ; $\because y$., the noun usp may mean house or houses. The number is ofte, left to be inferred from the context. When, how. ever, it i, desired definitely to mark the number, this can be done.
41. The singular is denoted by the numeral $\infty$, one; e.g., viposirp, a house.
42. The plural may be denoted in the following ways-
 two houses, ט่โซาตู1న, many houses.
(2) By any one of the following affixes-
osop, the usual affix ; e. g., טsposop, houses.
û, used with the vocative, or with pronouns; e. g.,

 osop, they.
os, $\infty$ opq, and د.posupq, used occasionally.
(3) The plural, when used to convey the idea of generality, is often expressed by a couplet; e. $y$., vip\&rv88z, houses or buillitings in general.
(4) onfoup may be used at the end of a sentence which
 And they came into the land of Goshen.

## CASE.

43. Five case constructions may be recognized: Nominative, Possessive, Ubjective, Vocative and Absolute. The first three correspond to those of the same name in English, and the vocative is the case of direct aldress.

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., 8ิชา
a house. ©irol, the subject, precedes the verb, ગ્pळీ§; and טS, the object, follows it.
47. Karen noums, like English nouns, are often governed by prepositions; e. !., wèrå:\{osmp, I go to Rangoon. Here ofon mp is governed by the preposition 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 ther be governed by the preposition © ו ; e.g., where the English says, I give S'sub $\mathbb{F}^{(a)}$ a book, the Karen may say, wusper

49. In Karen, verbal nouns as well as verbs may take

50. A noun in the po sessive construction i , joined to the name of the thing possessed by the particie $\boldsymbol{\infty} ; \rho$. g., 8. Br oosp, Suw II't's houser.
51. A noun in the rocative case is followed by the par-

52. Substantives in the absolute construction stand tirst in the sentence, free of all grammatical relation thereto. and are usually followed by the demoustrative adjective さar or
 built it. Here cos is in the absolute construction, followed. bv sp, that. Occasionally the particle $8 f$ takes the place of the particle $\mathfrak{r}$ or $\$ \mathfrak{\$}$. More commonly it follows one of


PRONOUNS.
5.3. Karen Pronouns are principally Personal, though In. terrogative and Indefinite Pronouns exist.

5ł. There are no Relative Pronouns in Karen. Relative rlauses are common: but they are connected with the nouns
which they modify by means of the conjunction $\boldsymbol{\infty}_{\text {ו }}$ ，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 follow－ ing tables exhibit the three personal pronouns in their various numbers and cases．Gender is not distinguished．

Singular．
First Persou．

| Nom． | w， 0 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Poss． | $\omega, 0$ |  |
| Obj． | wr |  |
|  |  | Second Person． |


| Nom． |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Poss． | i |  |
| Obj． | it $^{2}$ |  |
|  |  | Third Person． |

Nom．๑ ．$ァ$
Poss．$\infty \quad \infty$
Obj．ふิ2 ふ2

56．The form $\boldsymbol{\infty}$ 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
 ally as ఇdưp．

57．After the verb of，to be，the objective forms of the personal pronouns are used instead of the nominative

58. Besides the regular pronouns, the Karen possisses a pronominal affix, $\partial$. This is affixed to verbs in the third pérson, particularly in subordinate elaiuses. It is also affixed to pronouns of all persons in forming compounds. When $\partial$ follows a verb it is never an object, although it often looks like one, but always refers to the subject; c. g., 0 §
 have jou seen it? Here $\partial$ refers to the subject, 0 Q not to the object, oó $\delta$. In this construction $\partial_{o} \oint$ is often used like $\delta$.
59. The simple forms tabulated under $\S 55$ form a base from which a number of pronominal forms are built up, by means of the particles $\partial$ and $0 \uparrow$, the word mof, sclf, and the demonstrative adjectives, $\mathfrak{\circ} 1$, this, and sp, thut. 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. | wdop, 心.0\% | udop |
| 2nd pers. | p ${ }^{\text {dop, }}$ \$ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | د903 |
| 3rd pers. |  | ヶ๐3ई |

60. When used absolutely, the personal pronouns appear in the forms noted under $\$ 59$. The contracted forms $\omega$. and $\$ 0\}$ are the ones in common use, the primitive forms wdo $\{$ and qodo $\{$ being seldom met with in this construction.
61. In the plural forms the plural affix ơ§ may be substituted for the particle op; e. g., odos may be sub. stituted for udoई. To any form so arising the plural affix ळop may be added, giving such forms as romp

62．The absolute forms of the pronoun（like the abso－ lute forms of the noun）are generally followed by one of the demonstrative adjectives $\mathfrak{\circ} \mathfrak{i}$ and $\$ \mathcal{S}$ ，and sometimes by


63．In the absolute forms，$\bigcirc \mathfrak{\beta}$ is often omitted；e．g．，心．


64．In the first and second persons，the objective form often takes the place of the proper absolute form ；e．g．，$\$$ ． smळईへेっ82．As for you，you will hare to go．

65．The use of the absolute form is illustrated in the following sentences：山ిsporr，
 for them，their house is in Rangoon．

## INTENSIVE PRONOUNS．

66．Intensive forms of the per．onal pronouns are formed by adding to the possessive case the word mof，or mofyr， self，and the particles opo．They are as follows：

| 1st pers． | Singular． | Plural． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | cumofoful vomofyropu | umofspud umofyrapud |
| 2nd pers． | smosiss | د¢mofopud |
| 3rd pers． | \＄mofyrusp | unofyra§ud |
|  | mmofopo | হmof3¢d |
|  | sonofyropo | samofyropd |

67．These forms are used in apposition with a substan－
 himself will go，cumorcumofo̧clçı，I will do it myself．

68．The same thing may be indicated by affixing the forms उरut，， You will go yourselies．
69. The forms mentioned in $\$ 68$, affixed to nouns which follow a substantive in the posessive, convey the same idea


## REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

70. Reflexive forms of the personal pronouns are formed by affixing to the possessive case the word $00 \%$, self. They are as follows-

Singular.

| 1st pers. | ט0: | -00: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd pers. | \$0: | ఖ్ర: |
| 3rd pers. | ®23: | ฉ0ัะ |

71. These forms are used as the objects of verbs, when the person affected by the action is the same : $s$ the persor:
 himself. These forms always appear as direct objectives, while the intensive forms previously described are generally used in apposition. An intensive pronoun, however, sometimes takes the place of a proper reflexive.
72. The Pronoun 20 may also be elassed among the reHexives. It takes the place of the personal pronoun of the third person in indirect discourse, referring to the
 (Savi Wa) will come.

## POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

73. The possessive pronouns mine, thine, etc. are formed by affixing $\partial$ or os $\mathfrak{f}$ to the possessive forms of the personal

74. $\delta$ and os may be similarly used with nouns in the
 ฉos\{3々, That is Saw Wa's.

## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS．

75．Properly speaking，the Karen language has no de－ monstrative pronouns．Their place is supplied，however， by combining the demoustrative adjectives，æファ，this，and ${ }_{i}^{3}$ S，that，with the personal pronomn of the third person：


## INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS．

76．The interrogative adjectives described in $\$ \$$ 101， 102 are used also as interrogative pronouns；e．g．，soroşc̀s． What are you doing？\＄oćpboronncol？Whom do you see？ טוcosjorpspa sop you wish？

77．The interrogative possessive pronoun，whose，is formed by affixing ふठ or sof to the interrogative
 book？

## INDEFINITE PRONOUNS．

78．of is used as the subject of impersonal verbs ；e．g．．


79．yr or of is often used as an indefinite subject to at verb in the third person singular，when we do not know， or do not wish to express，the subject of the verb；e．g．，


80．$y^{2}$ is often used indefinitely in the objective case， to express people in general．

81．of is used as an indefinite object to verbs which require one，but to which no definite object can be assigned ： e．g．， $\mathbf{\omega c}$ ciposforz，I see，literally，$I$ see things．

82．Us̨ and vos are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns：e．g．，மoromnicrofr，A certain person came．
83. Man! of the indefinite adjectives described under § 99 are also used as indefinite pronouns; e. g., $\$ 0\left\{0^{\circ}\{\infty\}\right.$
 one.

## ADJEC'TIVES.

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 or, expressive of goodness, means, not good, but to be good. So with many roots expressive of quantity ; e. g., $8 \uparrow$ 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 groimor, a man that is good. But it is commonly expressed in an abbreviated form, graon, the relative conjunction, © , beius omitted. It is sometimes still further abbreviated loy omitting the pronoun $\curvearrowleft$, when it would stand simply gion.

## AD.IECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

86. Adjectives of quantity in mass are largely expressed by abbreviated relative clauses, like adjectives of quality; e. g., 0 ojpr8p, a yreat louse.
87. Some adjectives expressive of magnitude are formed by prefixing the particle os to verbal roots. Such adjectives immediately follow the nomus which they modify; -. a. uspos Ş, a great house.

## NUMERAL ADJECTIVES．

88．The following table shows the cardinal numerals．

| 1 | $\bigcirc$ | 0） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | J | 3 |
| 3 | p | 21 |
| 4 | 9 | 88 |
| 5 | 9 | $\omega$ ¢ |
| 6 | $\varepsilon$ | 4 |
| 7 | ？ | j |
| 8 | $\bigcirc$ | ひ3： |
| 9 | ¢ | 8 |
| 10 | ว० | かが |
| 11 | 30 | めがos |
| 19 | วセ | ¢ $2 \dot{8}$ |
| 20 | 10 | ว $\mathfrak{0}$ |
| 90 | ¢0 | 8̇ロ |
| 100 | 500 | osmur |
| 200 | ر 00 |  |
| 1，000 | 2000 | ¢mo8 |
| 10，000 | 20000 | ¢mo： |
| 100.000 | 200000 | ¢m®\％r |
| 1，000，000 | 2000000 | ¢mis |
| 10，000，000 | 20000000 | coms |

E．$g$ ．， $13,297,652$ would be written コロ」enGgs and read ๓ாริวుル

89．A numeral adjective almost invariably follows the noun which it modifies，and is itself followed by an aux－ iliary word expressing some quality of the noun to which it refers；e．g．，gran，two men．$\Omega$ is a numeral affix used in speaking of rational beings．ogisgं\｛9，four dogs．\＆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．
 a book．
$\infty \infty$ ，applied to things conceived of as existing in a successive series；e．g．，$\omega$ §るm⿻ו，two blankets．
mojo，applied to things conceived of as existing in thin


๓๑，applied to companies of persons or animals ；e． $\mathfrak{y}$ ．，


 a $\log$ of wood．

วา，applied to traps and snares；e．\％．，œ๐：こา，a trap．
$⿰ 冫 欠$ ，applied to things conceived as proceeding from one head ；$\rho . g . \quad$ oरos§ ，a bamboo tree．

9，applied to sides of things；e．g．，qコロタ，tuo hands．
 yimpर్రైו，three men．

28，applied to vehicles；f．！．，copaz8，two curts．
OS，applied to the eyes，and to large seeds；e．g．，udf ขูว่อ8ई，two juck fruit seeds．
\＆々，applied to things occurring at intervals；e．g．，coi 8 8்o 882，a chupter of the Bible．
 trees．
$\infty$ © ，applied to words or sentences ；e．$y$ ．，ofmosıoso $\uparrow$ ， a word，a saying．
â\｛，applied to trees，posts，etce；p．g．，د． three teak posts．

31，applied to bird＇s nests，e．！．，08§эมม่วา，two bird： neste．

9，applied to quadrupeds ；e．g．，mopsja，two horses．
i，applied to bamboos and small trees；e．g．，oईos， one bamboo．

8，applied to leave：of the palm and plantain families； e．g．，دుగ்ธయo8，a plantain leaf．


$\varphi$ applied to large bodies of men and animals；e $g$ ．， －3ay，two flocks of sheep．

Q，applied to felled trees；e．y．，ưpuooipose ，a teak loy．
gip，applied to things conceived of as spherical；e．g．，


ற§，applied to things conceived of as flat ；e．g．， $280 \mathfrak{p} \uparrow$ ， a foul．
$ふ$ ，applied to things conceived of as cylindrical ；e．g．，


भิ，applied to blows，words and sentences ；e．g．，மimosr దぶว่ภి，a word or two．
$\dot{\dot{\theta}}$ ，applied to things referred to in an indefinite manner ； e．g．，$\varnothing\{\dot{\mathfrak{b}} \dot{\mathrm{O}} 501 \dot{\mathrm{~b}} 2$ ，two or three things．
 two songs．
© 3 applied to places；c．g．，ฮ̊§oçf，a ficld．
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．，$\infty \infty \infty n^{\circ} \circ$, a drink of water， ก\｛am8§，two bunches of rattans，mósosd，a handful of mud．

92．When there is no numeral aftix 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 ；
 country．

93．Sometimes there is a choice of numeral affixes for the same noun；e．g．，bsonosp，or $\partial \delta \infty 0$ gir，an eye．

94．Numerals are sometimes prefixed to the nouns which they modify ；e．I．，$\infty$ on §o


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
 cattle．

96．The formation of the ordinal numerals will easily be understood from the following examples－


ふ๖osor，seconl（mun）

ช̊โจosя，fourth（quadruped）．
97．The ordinal adjectives ァ28monf，first，and ふom onf，last aro exceplional in their formation．See $\S 112$.

98．Multiplicatives are formed by affixing o：to the cardinal numerals ：e．I．， $20 \circ$ ，twofold．

## INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES．

99．The numeral aftixes 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 $\mathfrak{\Omega}$ ，many， $9^{2}, f e w$ ，and ळェચ：several：e．g．，gisln，many men；osinosigis． fere words．
（2）The numeral $\infty$ ，one，with an appropriate ：umeral affix，often has the sense of the English indefinite article； e．g．，insongil，a house．
（3）The numeral $\infty$ ：one，with a reduplicated numeral affix is used in referring indefinitely to one person or thing ； e．g．，yronorn，some man，noosps，some elephant．
（4）The indefinite adjective of quantity，©景2，some，is formed from the numeral os by means of the particle $\$_{\text {p }}$ r．
（5）The reduplicated form $\infty$ 是影々，is used in referring indefinitely to more than one person or thing；yros旱最2， some men，ciSoss？${ }^{2}$ 旱，some books．


（7）Universality is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between os and cofof：e．y．，yromorofoof，every man．
（8）The same idea is expressed by placing a numeral

（9）Completeness is expressed by placing a numeral
 earth．
（10）A complete number may be expressed by affixing


（11）Singularity is expressed by placing the numeral $\infty$ with a suitable affix between of and $\varepsilon_{2} ; e . g .:$ © 0 orit． only one（man）．
（12）Identity is expressed by placing the numeral affix

（13）Utter non－existence of a thing is expressed by
 ळई，There is not a single hook
100. Certain other inderinite adjectives of quantity are formed independently of the numeral system. Such are-
 all men.

8क्ष्य, every, which generally precedes its noun. The noun may be followed by the number one, and this may in
 ©备ryrosorofof, every man.
dos, whoever, or whatever, which precedes its noun: e. !. . dopyr, whatever man.

## INTTEROGATIVE $\backslash D J E C T I V E S$.

101. The common interrogative adjectives are oos, referring to persons, and $\omega s^{2}$, referring to things; $\because g$. ,

 and usz are often followed by onoz and oo่ respectively ;

102. An interrogative adjective with a selective force is formed by pretixing dod $\rho$ to the ordinal numeral $\infty$, one, which is in its turn followed by the appropriate numeral
 wish?
103. Interrogative adjectives of quantity are made by prefixing $\infty$ : to indefinite adjectives of quantity: $e \quad y$,
 खึटर, How much money hutw you! These are used both in direct and indiret discourse. In indirect discourse they


104. Interrogative adjeetives of number may be formed by prefixing ofl or $\dot{g} t$ to the umeral affix ; e. g., دุmcor grooc̀s, How mony of you will !ro? These also may b , used in indirest discourse.

## DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

105 The Karen language has two definite demon:tra-
 may modify any substantive element, be it noun, pronoun, phrase or clause.
106. $\$\{$, and occasionally $\mathfrak{2}$, is used to mark the end of a noun clause, or of a series of adjectival modifiers of a
 The good old man who lives in Rangoon.
107. $\dot{q} \hat{\gamma}$ is often used with the force of a definite article.
108. $\$\{$ is commonly used in referring again to something which has just been mentioned.

## ADJECTIVAL COUPLET'S.

109. Adjectival couplet, are affixed to the nouns which they modify. Such a couplet consists of two adjectiveverbal roots, each of which is preceded by the particle ァ e. g., gianir2ol, a good man.

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

110. The comparative degree is expressed by affixing

111. Where the object of comparison is expressed, the
 better than I. In such cases, the object of comparison is
 than $I$.
112. The superlative degree is formed by affixing mosif or oq§ to the adjective ; e. g., กımonif or ؟ roqs, best.

## VERBS．

113．Karen verbs express actions，states or qualities： e．g．，dur，to go，ふ̊ફ，to be，？r，to be good．

114．Karen verbs may be divided into transitive and intransitive verbs．Many verbs which in English are re－ garded as intransitive，in Karen are regarded as transitive， and take an object；c．g．，the verb 心े，to go，is often used with the object osf．

115．In Karen，a verb which can take an object gener－ ally does take one．When no definite object can be as－ signed，the indefinite object on $\mathfrak{i s}$ frequently used；c．$g$ ．， woiponf，I see．Sce §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
 $\infty \hat{\beta}$ 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 $\infty$ © to see－

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 山ఎ }
\end{aligned}
$$

120．In the last sentence，8ৃo）is the subject，$\wp \mathfrak{\text { ，}}$ encountered，the predicate，$\infty\{c \propto\{$ ，the seeing，the object of $\omega \mathfrak{p}$ ，and $\mathrm{s}^{3} \mathrm{z}$ the object of the verbal noun $\infty\{\infty 0 \%$ ．
121. Occasionally, in the above mentioned form of the passive voice, the reflexive pronouns $\omega 00 \%$, $\$ 02 \%$, 5200 , 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 8: or of and followed by a reflexive pronoun;


123. Closely allied to this stcond 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

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 8 8 , and
 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., ల్ڭई, Run.
128. When a verb is in the imperative mood the sentence (if expressing a command) commonly euds with the
 to me.
129. The particles of and of are sometimes afixixed to the verb in an imperative sentence where the idea is that
 us.
130. In giving permission, $\infty\{\hat{q} \oint$ or $m \oint \oint \oint$ sometimes takes the place of ळmf; c.g., curmfìs, Go.
131. A sentence expressing a prohibition ends in $\infty$ os ; e. g., लेखoñ, Do not go. In such cases the verb may be preceded by pq and the negative particle $\infty ; e, g$., ఖ઼cుః ळธฺะ, Do not go.
132. A precative sentence is introduced by the particle $\mathcal{S}$ and otherwise has the form of a sentence expressing command or prohibition ; f. g., Succrooo̊, Let us go, Suఖ̨ ゆले宀osกr, 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
 or $I$ weret.
134. Au action the perlormance of which is contemplated, is expressed by prefixing the particle $m$ to the verb. This form is commonly used to express a future action ; e. g., cumc̀ı, I shall go, I will go.
135. The idea of intention or desire is brought out
 $،^{\prime}$ aw W'a desires to go, intends to go.
136. Completed action is indicated by affixing the particle as to the verb;e.g., wcoras, I have gone.
137. The same idea is more emphatically expressed by


138 The liareus sometimes use both $m$ and $\infty$ with the same verb to express an intention to perform an action immediately : e. g., cunclıc̊, I will go at once.
139. To mark the completion of an action previous to a certain moment of past time, $\sigma_{0}\{$ is affixed to the verb,


ฒrofos, 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 $\infty$ to
 टృఃీయేయి, 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 oे after it; e. g., 8ivuçòçı, 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



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-
$\infty \beta$, prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force ; e. $g$., opscı, to stir up.
$\mathfrak{q}$ : has a permissive or causative force ; e. g., q.ले2, to dismiss, to send.
us denotes a representing of the action as if done，often only in appearance；e．g．，טઈ0ㅀovs，to assume the ap． pearance of death．
$\Re_{8}$ ，prefixed to a few verbs，has a causative force；e．$g$ ．，

$\omega_{2}$ has a causative force；e．g．，טr๗，to kill．
$\mathcal{E}_{2}$ ，prefixed to verbs with the negative，indicates that the act is performed impertectly，or in a slight degree；e．g．，

$\mathrm{C}_{2}$ indicates that the subject falls into the state indica－ ted by the verb；e．g．，ऊrof：to become tired．
 laugh．
¿ $\$$ ，prefixed to a few verbs，has a causative force；e．g．， ôpmicolp，to raise up．
 to increase（transitive）．

146．The following particles are affixed to the verb－
mol has a sense of return，retaliation or opposition ；e．g．， ฒฺைภาฒั，to return．

 ting the truth of what you say．
$\infty 88$ indicates that the same action has been performed

$\wp_{\imath}$ indicates returning，or repetition of an action，or the performance of an action which there had been a pre－ vious unwillingness to perform；e．g．，ゆゝゝっ，come back， \＄$\delta$ os r ，believe．
$\mathrm{Z}^{\text {\｛ indicates that the act is performed by way of trial ；}}$ e．g．，טוßf，to try，ఇfpŋf，to taste．

గో טઈふંઈ，to put away．

బో denotes that the action results in making secure； e．g．，olvు§，to tie．

ల్ઈ denotes that several persons or things act together； e．g．，心ेruई，to go together．
\％r denotes that the act is done straight forward，liter－ ally or figuratively；e．g．， $\mathrm{Bf}_{\mathrm{B} \text { 亿，to }}$ look off．

8 indicates that the action is performed from an eleva－ tion；e．g．，$B^{〔 8,}$ to look off（as from a height）．

0,2 denotes that the action is performed by way of assistance；e．I．，山ుmoforspu，I will help you paddle．

28 denotes that an act is done before some event takes place；e．g．，$\infty$ 〇28，to see before．
$\infty \circ$ ，affixed to verbs in the negative，indicates that the action is imperfectly or slightly performed；e．g．，


Qur denotes that the action results in arriving；e．g．，心opr，to arrive．
 Come along quickly．

ळS is affixed to a few words denoting separation；e．g．， ほていうs，to fall off．
 oposf，He will go of his own accord．Occasionally it denotes certainty；e．g．，ळ\｛mbrosios be sure to happen so．
$\propto 8$ indicates an upward motion；e．g．，टेıô，to go up．
$\infty$ indicates an upward motion，literal or figurative； e．$g$ ．，टेıิई，to ascend，ञlळิફ，to increase．It often de－ notes incipient action；e．g．， $\mathfrak{\Im \beta} \mathrm{B}$ ，to come into being．
sई indicates independent action；e．g．，cumbropuc，I will do it myself．
s $\uparrow \infty \omega 1 \delta$ ，or s $\$ \infty<3 \delta$ ，indicates that the subject defers some other action to perform the one indicated by the verb；
 eat rice first．
$\$$ indicates that the action results in obtaining ；e．g．， $\infty^{\circ} \uparrow \mathfrak{q}$ ，to find．
\＄p indicates that the action results in observing ；e．g．， ufpp，to remember．
uf，or uforr，indicates that the action is done before some other event；e．g．，ס̊．ひ§，©ं：u§orr，to promise，to foretell．
$01 f$ indicates that the action reaches unto its object； e．g．，ट्यulf，to go unto．
$q^{\circ}$ denotes that the act was done unintentionally，கை：q．， to utter an involuntary cry．
of indicates that the action results in going through ； e．g．，cोıf，to go through．

ふะ indicates that the action results in an ascent；e．g．， $\infty$ ®ోかっ，to ascend．
$\infty \oint$ indicates that the action passes over onto an object； e g．，山ుmosゃうssı，I will tell him．
upz denotes that the act is performed by way of assist－ ance；e．g．，$ల:$ oipur，to sing together with one．
© indicates that the act is performed by or for imita－

 ๗ఎ：，Brothers should love one another．
$\mathfrak{Q}_{2}$ indicates a downward motion，literal or figurative； e．g．，cेıßr，to descend，großr，to decrease．

ఎைB：denotes that several persons or things act in com－ pany；e．g．，むుroc̊：，to go together．
$20.8^{2}$ indicates that the act is performed from a distance； oopvort，to behold afar off．
$0_{3} \uparrow$ indicates that the action results in forsaking ；e．g．， Clıonsp，to forsake．
 utsp，when he had just become king．
upp．denotes that the action is done carefully or stealthily； e．g．，ฤ\｛up̧p，to watch closely．

## DEPENDENT VERBS．

147．A verb depending on another follows it immediate－ ly，without undergoing any change of form；e．g．，wnmej）： $01: \omega \mathrm{g}$ なิ，$I$ will try to do it．This is the common con－ struction for expressing suitibility，necessity，etc．；e．g．，


148．Where in English two verbs are connected by the conjunction arul，in Karen the second verb may immediate－ ly follow the first，without a conjunction；e．g．，cumed ひ్మిఁชิ々，I will go and seek it．

## IDIOMS IN THE USE OF VERBS．

149．The causative verb on and the permissive verb of permit the dependent verb to be preceded by a subject；
 me to go．The dependent verb and its subject may be regarded as a substantive clause，forming the object of the cuusative 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；
 may be regarded as a substantive clause forming the sub－ ject of the verb of ability．
151. The following list exhibits the common verbs of ability, with their meanings, and examples of their use.

O, ability considered with reference to skill, also the



ल, ability considered with reference to physical health, or inclination; e. g., $\omega$ §§20), $\mathbf{\omega}$ aches, I cannot go to walk.
\$\{, ability considered with reference to effectiveness of
 penter has work, I cannot hire him.

શ1: ability considered with reference to leisure; e. g.,
 I cannot go to walk.

๗, ability considered with reference to accomplishing
 This book is Talaing, I cannot read it.
$\phi_{2}$, ability considered with reference to the sufficiency
 is too great, I cannot do it.
152. The ideas of suitability, agreesoleness etc., are often expressed in a similar manner to that of potentiality:


 (Masçicl, Is it proper for me to buy a silk jacket?
153. The verb Q\$, expressing desire, takes of for its subject, and is followed by a verb denoting that act the performance of which is desired. This latter verb is followed by wa, olf, with the possessive case of a pronomn denoting the parson who desires to perform the action. Then comes the object of the verb of action, generally

 wishes to buy a book.
154. Possession is expressed by the verb $\mathfrak{s \beta}$, 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

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

(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., vucs\&oms $I$ have a book.

## ADVERBS.

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

## ADVERBS OF MANNER.

156. Adverbs of manner are regularly formed by dupli.

157. Adverbs so formed very commonly take the aftix

158. Sometimes an adjectival root is used in an adverbial sense. This is commonly the case when it is itself


159. Some adverbs of manner are formed from verbal
 moos, silently, ひ๐mosf, still.
160. Occasionally adverbs of manner are formed by prefixing © $\{$ to an adjectival root; e. $y$, © \{or, well.
161. Many adverbs of manner are irregular in their

162. Demonstrative adverbs of manner are formed by combining the preposition $£$, like, with the demonstratives



## ADVERBS OF PLACE.

163. Adverbs of place may be formed from the demon. strative adjectives $\mathfrak{\circ} \mathrm{r}$ and ब्षे $\{$ in combination with the prepositions $\dot{b}$, following table.
 there.
 cols, here and there.
 hither and thither.
164. The prepositions $\mathcal{N}_{1}$ and $\propto_{Q}$ form adverbs of place in combination with such roots as থِ , front, ః, back, $\infty$ :, above, cu§, below, ○f, and $\infty ః$, beyond, and 8, side; e. g.,


## ADVERBS OF TIME.

165. Certain adverbs denoting past time are formed by the preñx $\varphi$ (or $Q \oint$ ) in combination with roots denoting time, as follows-


- \$2, lust night.

๗๐วา, yesterday.
凶๐า>0), the other day.
umisocif: unsomof. lust time (in the immediate past).
() ©losơ, last time (in the more remote past).
－0070 \％ㅇ，last week．

凶๐าのธைา，last month．
凶ிळிळธ๐า，＂，＂
טclos $\ddagger$ ，last year．
166．Adverbs expressing future time may be formed in two ways－
（1）By the prefix $\partial$ ，as follows－
 the present．
$\partial 001$, to day，
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\partial 0027, \\ \text { this evening，}\end{array}\right\}$ with verbs of future time．
ذ $8_{2}$ ，to－morrow．
పosरे，the day after to－morrow．
పलో，in the future．
పेగరossf，next time．
పेतSocs，next week．
పत⿱⿵人丶龴⿱丆贝⿴囗十

（2）By the use of the prepositions $)_{1}$ and $\mathfrak{q}$ ．Cf．$\S 164$ ． The most common of these are－



167． idea of futurity is not implied；e．g．，coigixols，by day， coighroimorr，of old．

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

00なって口и，all day．
ふO\＄pimpre，all night．

ふฺ૦૦s, nightly.


169. Nany adverbs of time are not formed in accord

170. The roots s̊, still, yet, and ©iz, any more, are adverbial by virtue of their intrinsic signification. The following examples will illustrate their use : 0.2 m §ou

 huve no more money.

## NUMERAL ADVERBS.

171. Adverbs dencting how many times are formed from the cardinal numerals, in combination with the affix

172. 洛 and $q$ are treated like numeral anxiliaries, and may enter into all the combinations of which numeral anxiliaries are capable; e. !., $\infty$ ofes, simultaneously: at
 as muny us three times.
173. Alverbs denoting relich time are formed like ordi-
 the secoml time.
174. The particles of and $\sigma_{0}^{g}$ enter into certain irregular


## ADVERBS OF DEGREE.

175. Some adverbs of degree are formed like the adverbs of manner described in šs. 150 and 1.57: ค. g., $8 \leqslant 8$ pocds, greatly, ঞาঞา๓cोร, much.
176. The indefinite numeral adjectives described in $\S 99$, (4), (6), (13), are often used with an adverbial force; e. g.,

177. The following adverls are intensive: 68 , mi, $\$$ (used with adjectives denoting disagreeable sensations), and $\delta \delta$ (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 nega-

179. Other adverbs of degree are irregularly formed; e. g., ©ৃロonr, not at all (with negatives), wుફలుફ, about, लेయవః, too.

## ADVERBS OF COMPARISON.

180. Equality is expressed by $\delta 38: \mathcal{3} \%$, equally; e. g.,

 $\mathfrak{c}_{2}$, He speaks Burmese equally with Karen.
181. Inequality is expressed by a combination of two

 his pupils unequally.

## INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

182. Interrogative adverb of time and place may be formed from the interrogative particle coई; e. g., ذटेई, where, when, woclp, where, whence, 玉ूcोई, whither.
183. These are reduplicated in indirect discourse ; e. g.,
 he comes.
184. Interrogative adverbs of quantity are formed by
 how much.
185. These are also repeated in indirect discourse; e. g.,
 much I like it.
186. The interrogative adverb of reason is mई@qu, why?
 with me?

## ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION.

187. Assent is expressed by 0 ¢ or $\mathfrak{2 i}$.
188. Negation is expressed by prefixing os to the verb,

189. A denial is expressed by a negative sentence; e.g.,
 come, ळufゥp, No-literally, It is not.

## ADVERBS OF PROBABILITY.

190. These are irregular in formation; e. I., ภрosop, ఖફఖ్య, perhaps, دy\{osif, certainly.

## CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

191. The following are conjunctive adverbs of time-
 see him I will tell him.
 We will eut rice before we go.
 207 ఆิ, He fell sick while he was coming. See also $\$ 222$.
192. $3^{\circ}$ is used as a correlative conjunctive adverb; e. g.,
 $I$ wish to study.

## ADVERBIAL COUPLETS.

193. Adverbial couplets are common ; e. g., Culoisolos, in the beginning, broidaz, here and there, mufmůf, 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. $g$.,


## PREPOSITIONS.

195. The Karen language has seven prepositions, 8\%,

196. 马ః, means with: it governs the objcctive case.
197. 2q 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 $\S \S$ 198, 199.
198. 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. 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-

cוञ8S，


心ルペ〇かை

 ธוֹโรันร๖\},以 Bौüruironf，

 vicops：8 $\quad$ ，on the surface of the water．
200 ．oे means $i n$ ．It may govern the objective，or may be used with a secondary noun，like ©v．

201．Dont，throughout，and $0: \infty 9 \circ$ ค，round，about，govern the objective．

202．§，like，as，always governs the secondary noun Sะ， the object of comparison being placed in the possessive
 teacher．Sometimes the object of comparison is a noun clause，when $\delta$ corresponds in meaning to the English as；
 teacher does．See SS 211，228．

## CONJUN゙CTION゙S．

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

## COPULATIVE．

204．88，and，connects words；phrases or clauses．It may stand at the close of the preceding clause，or at the beginning of the following one．
 Lord God created both sun and moon.
 You are a man and I also am a man, we are not a fraid.




めは\{ळ, not only so.

## ADVERSATIVE.

205. © Qf, ט\{ (at the beginning of a clause) but.


osp-os, either-or.

กr-กr, either-or.
กักฉ-กักฉ, either-or.



## ILLATIVE.


 place of the illative conjunction therefore.
 then, sometimes have the force of illative conjunctions.

## CAUSAL.



พొ૦ఃรిః, because. This stands at the end of its clause;
 because my money is scant.

## HYPOTHETICAL.

209. © \& when.
oprof, if.
©f, if. In this sense $\varphi\{$ stands stands immediately after the subject. See § 223.

๗§ఐo, though, stands, in this sense, at the end of the clause it modifies.
\$ో0ుగ్, లి\$ీఇァ, though, stands at the end of its clause;
 the price is high, I shall buy it.


## TELIC.

210. © ו, that. See § 220 .


## COMPARATIVE.

211. The preposition $\delta$, governing the secondary noun ふ3:, performs the function of a comparative conjunction. See 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． 82 is used with simple affirmatives．
א F implies that the statement is a matter of course． $\omega_{1}$ implies assent or concession．
ఫे ๑：c̀ई has an emphatic or exclamatory force．

## NEGATIVE PARTICLES．

215．ઝp（colloquially，ふip）is used at the close of $\downarrow$ negative sentence．
 true．

Qscof has an emphatic or exclamatory force．

## INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES．

 Are you well？
 Where are you going？In conversation $\S\}$ place of c̀p．It may also enter into any of the combinations into which ©े
©ी－®ी are used in an alternative question；$e . g$ ，$\ddagger$ なे $\left\{\xi_{\circ}\right.$

©ी－cेई are used in alternative questions，especially in
 ఎゆఖ్యา๗ફ，I do not know whether he comes from Bassein or Henzada．

ढ§ is equivalent to $\infty \oint \oplus$ ．

## IMPERATIVE PARTICLES．

 or mp\＄S，a permission or a somewhat urgent request．

## PRECATIVE PARTICLES.

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

## SYNTAX OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

219. Subordinate clauses are not only introduced by a conjunction or some equivalent part of speeeh, but where they do not stand at the end of the sentence they are also terminated by a conjunction or other particle.
220. Noun elauses may be introduced by cor and terminated by sई; e. g., $\mathbf{\omega \infty}$ not know that he will do it.
221. Adjective elauses are introduced by $\mathrm{O}_{1}$ and ter-
 The book which the teacher wrate is on the table.
222. Some adverbial clauses are iritroduced by ©, ১, or $c_{2}$, and terminated uy a temporal particle, or by s̊ $\uparrow ; e . g$. ,
 tell him,
 onorop. While I was coming I saw nobody.
223. Conditional clauses are introduced by of, which stands immediately after the subject, and are terminated
 get wet. An apparent, but not a reai, exceptio to this rule is found in the case of complex sentences, in which a subordinate noun clause will come before $\mathrm{o}^{\text {f }}$; e. y., \$cor

224. of is occasionally used to introduce a concessive

 shall have to go.
 and when not standing at the end of the sentence are ter-

 moip, In order that you may recover, you must take medicine.
225. Negative clauses of purpose take the form of a prohibitory clause preceded by $\delta \leqslant \Omega \circ$, and terminated (when
 In order that you may not get wet, you must carry an umbrella.
226. Negative clauses of purpose are sometimes left without an introductory particle, and are terminated by



227. Clauses of comparison are introduced by $\S$ and

 See §202, 211.

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