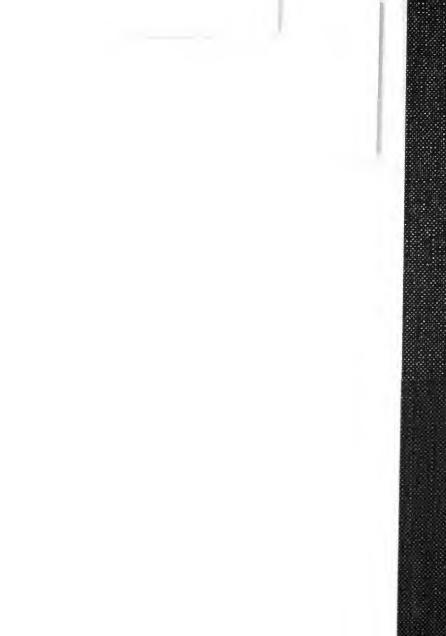
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# A GRAMMAR

OF THE

# SGAW KAREN

By REV. DAVID GILMORE, M. A.,

Of the American Baptist Mission in Burma.

RANGOON:

AMERICAN BAPTIST MISSION PRESS.

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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  $\mathfrak{D}$  appearing among both consonants and vowels.

# THE CONSONANTS.

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

က	ကႏ <sup>ခ္ခ</sup> ြင္တဲ့း	$\boldsymbol{k}$
ວ	ခႏက်ဗြဲး	kh
0	ဂဉ်ကျၤ်လို ၊	gh
ພ	ဃႜႋ <sup>႘</sup> ီ	ch
С	<b>ငႏ</b> ဍဉ်ချာ	ng
Ð	စ <b>းတ</b> ဖျာဉ်	8
$\infty$	ဆးတတံ	hs
ด	ရှး-8ပဲရ	sh
	ညး $\mathfrak{Q}\mathfrak{d}_{\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{T}}^{\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{T}}}}$	ny
<u>න</u> හ	တးဝါစု	t
$\infty$	ထးတဃ်ဉ်	ht
9	<b>းဘ</b> ဒါ	d
<b>\$</b>	နးတ ဆံး	n
·)	ဂ <b>းတ</b> ္ထ	p
O	ဖေးပဝိဝိ	hp
ဘ	ဘ <b>းတ</b> ကူး	b
Q	မးဦးသႏ	m
ಯ	ကးညွှင့	y
ବ୍	ရးက္နှဲ	7.
೦	လးက္နာကြီ	l
0	ပးကဗ်ိၤ	w
သ	သႏဒ္ဒြာဃီး	th
ဟ	ဟးကဲ့ခိုင္သ <sup>င္း</sup>	h.
အ	အႏံဆိ	
G	ဒေလတာရိ	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.
- w 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.
  - $\mathfrak{P}$  is pronounced like  $\tilde{n}$  in cañon, or ny in lanyard.
  - $\overline{\circ}$  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.
- $\sigma$  is the aspirate of  $\sigma$  It is pronounced like ph as heard in the phrase  $hap\ hazard$ .
  - $\infty$  is pronounced like th as heard in thin.
- 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	<b>ઝ</b>	bgh
ယ	-6	_	$egin{array}{c} by \ br \end{array}$
<b>ရ</b> လ	Ć	<del>නූ</del> ලි	br
$\circ$	J	ဘျ	bl
0	0	38	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	a	ဘ ·	ba
1				ba
	အာါ	a	ဘ	
•	ಾ	i	ာံ	bi
1	<b>ာ</b> ၊	ö	ဘၤ	$b\ddot{o}$
l	အု	ü	ဘု	$b\ddot{u}$
l	ર્જા	u	ဘူ	bu
•	<b>ာ</b> အံ	e	့ ဘုံ	be
\	જે	ક	÷	$b\grave{e}$
0	38	0	නි	bo
•	· 33	uw	ాక్	baw

- 13. The subjoined table explains more definitely the powers of the vowels.
  - $\infty$ , a in quota.
  - തി, a in father.
  - ဘံ, i in machine.
  - son, German ö in Göthe, or u in Turkey.
  - $\mathfrak{R}$ , German  $\ddot{u}$  in Glück, French u in lune.
  - 37, u in rule, oo in moon.
  - so, approximately a in rate.
  - 32, French è in Molière, or e in met.
  - தி, o in note.
  - 3, 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 % (ముప) is pronounced with a heavy falling inflection.

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

A syllable marked with  $:(g_1\beta x)$  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 ι (თββ) 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  $\iota$  ( $\mathfrak{A}$   $\mathfrak{A}$ :) is sometimes used to represent a final l in an English syllable. It is pronounced like  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

### 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-

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: διοίωρδος δι, Saw Wa builds a house. διοί, Saw Wa, subject; ωρ, builds, predicate; ωρ, 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.

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 Φβωββ, a big house, ββ appears as an adjective; in Φβββδ, the house is big, ββ appears as a verb; in Φβωσβββ, the bigness of the house, ββ 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, (βη meaning country); οροφη, Rangoon, (οη 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 3η; e. g., 3ηθω, 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.,  $\mathfrak{S}$ , a house,  $\mathfrak{S}$ , a book,  $\mathfrak{S}$ ,  $\mathfrak{g}$ ,  $\mathfrak{gold}$ ,  $\mathfrak{S}$ , 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.

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(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., os, to paddle, \$\$os, a paddle.

(4) Nouns denoting the place where an action is performed are formed by prefixing  $\Im \$ , place, to the verbal root; e. g.,  $\dot{\circ}$ , to sleep,  $\Im \dot{\circ}$ , a bed.

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

lowing ways—

(1) Abstract nouns of quality are formed by prefixing on to the adjectival root; e. g., on, good, on on goodness.

(2) Nouns denoting persons are formed by prefixing to the adjectival root the particle o, which is a contraction of q: e. g., \$\\$, great, \cdot \\$\\$, a ruler, literally a great man.

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, of3, 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., ထံတြ, river, ဗီဂိုလ္နီဂိုဗီဂို, 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., &βຊີເວ້າຮູ້ຊີ, or &βຊີວ່າຮູ້ຊີ, birds, ວາວຖະຫາຮູ້ຊີ, grace, ວາວຸເ ວາໂດາ, goodness, ພຜ່ພວຊີາ, my country, ຊູຊີຊຸວ່າ, your de-

scendents, soo sood, 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., os, father, ss, mother, or, husband, os, wife, ss, man, ssqs, 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—
  - 88කි, or කි, masculine, applied to human beings.
  - 8εφβ, or φβ, feminine, applied to human beings.
  - ol, masculine, applied to animals.
  - 88, feminine, applied to animals.
- E. g.,  $\Im \omega \beta$ , child,  $\Im \omega \beta \delta \delta \beta \beta$ , boy,  $\Im \omega \beta \delta \delta \beta \beta$ , 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 &\$ 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  $\infty$ , one; e. g.,  $\dot{\omega}$  βουφηδ, a house.

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- 42. The plural may be denoted in the following ways-
- (1) By the use of a numeral adjective; e. g., တံဂိုခံရာဂို, two houses, တံဂိုအားများနဲ, many houses.
  - (2) By any one of the following affixes—

တမ္နေ, the usual affix; e. g., တံβတမ္နေ, houses.

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

သေ့နိတ္ဖန်, used principally with pronouns; e. g., အဝဲသ္နိ

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., &\$21281, houses or buildings in general.
- (4) တက္ချဲသံ့နီ may be used at the end of a sentence which has a plural subject; e. g., ဒါးတဲ့ဝဲဆူ ကြီးကြာရှန်အပူးတကျုံသံ့နီလီး, 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 న్యాంగ్ Wa builds

- a house. Sion, the subject, precedes the verb, ωρωβ; and ωβ, the object, follows it.
- 47. Karen nouns, like English nouns, are often governed by prepositions; e. y., ωὰιπρίοση, I go to Rangoon. Here ρίσση is governed by the preposition π. Nouns follow 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  $\infty_1$ ; e.g., where the English says, I give Saw Wa a book, the Karen may say, ယဟ္နာဒါး ဝါလာလိုဘော့နှာနဲ့, or ယဘ္နာလိုဘော့နှာနား ဝါလာလို
- 49. In Karen, verbal nouns as well as verbs may take objects; e. g, ωλωβ<sub>4</sub>ι, love (for) you.
- 50. A noun in the possessive construction is joined to the name of the thing possessed by the particle  $\mathfrak{m}$ ; e. g., జ్ఞున్ అంది, Saw Wa's house.
- 51. A noun in the vocative case is followed by the particle 21; e. y., Stolen, Saw Wa.

#### 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	O
Poss.	ယ, စ	O
Obj.	ພາ	gr
	Second Person.	
Nom.	7	သု
Poss.	3	္ သူ
Obj.	ą.	သု
	Third Person.	
Nom.	အ	အ
Poss.	အ	အ
Obj.	3 <b>%</b> 1	જીર

- 56. The form  $\mathfrak{S}$  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  $\mathfrak{S}$ ,  $\mathfrak{S}$ , or occasionally  $\mathfrak{S}\mathfrak{S}$ , and in the plural generally as  $\mathfrak{S}\mathfrak{S}$ .
- 57. After the verb ອຸໂ, to be, the objective forms of the personal pronouns are used instead of the nominative forms; e. g., ອຸໂພນເຮົາ ( not ອຸໂພເຮົາ ), 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., Φεωιω ηροχείο, γ. το βραξιοί, The book which the teacher wrote, have you seen it? Here δ refers to the subject, ωης, and not to the object, ωδ. 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  $\mathfrak{S}$ , the word  $\mathfrak{SS}$ , self, and the demonstrative adjectives,  $\mathfrak{SI}$ , this, and  $\mathfrak{SS}$ , 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.
lst p:rs.	$3$ ေတ် , $\beta$ ေတ်	ζεδυ
2nd pers.	<b>β</b> οβ, βοβ	သု ဝဲဒဉ်
3rd pers.	အစ်, အစ် $_{9}$ န်,	နှင် ဇ

- 60. When used absolutely, the personal pronouns appear in the forms noted under §59. The contracted forms 35 and 35 are the ones in common use, the primitive forms 35 and 35 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 rain and ββ, and sometimes by the particle & i.e. g., ωρβτί, πουρβτί, γορβτί, γορβτ
- 63. In the absolute forms,  $\mathfrak{S}$  is often omitted; e. g., ω. ωδισφορ, 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, smassis. 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, ωρωρουβμβ, ωριστορίος αρβωισί, 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 aso. They are as follows:

	Singular.	Plural.
1st pers.	ယက္ေရခနယ်	<i>်</i> ပရိုင်ရှိထလ
	ယ်ရှင်းပူးစက္ကယ	ပတၜၭၦၟၭႍၣပဝဲ
2nd pers.	နဂ္ဂေဒဂန	သက္ခေါ့သည်
	နက္စရပ္မျပ္သည္	သက္စေရပူးခြေသူဝဲ
3rd pers.	တွင်ငှိတေဆ	တိုင်းဖတ်
	ဝင်ဒေဂါဇတလေ	အကစ႑ိပ္စ္အားမွ ဝ

- 67. These forms are used in apposition with a substantive, for emphasis; e. g., Βισθωποθοβόπολια, Suw Wahimself will go, ωποιωποθοβώσε, I will do it myself.
- 68. The same thing may be indicated by affixing the forms 3βω,3βυδ, etc. to the verb; e. g., ωροω13βωρω81, 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.,  $\omega \delta \approx \delta \omega$ , 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.	ခုသႏ	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 പ്ര Saw Wa says that he (Saw Wa) will come.

## POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

- 73. The possessive pronouns mine, thine, etc. are formed by affixing do or of to the possessive forms of the personal pronouns; e. g., ສາວະລຸຊິພາພວ, ສາວະຊຸຊິພາພວາ, That is mine.
- 74. d and may be similarly used with nouns in the possessive case; e. g., majapullion and an end and are similarly used with nouns in the possessive case; e. g., majapullion and all of the possessive case; e.

# 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; so i, this, so \$\beta\$, 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? ωιώδιος βξερουσσιάδ, Which of the two books do you wish?
- 77. The interrogative possessive pronoun, whose, is formed by affixing ສd or ສoກ to the interrogative pronoun မတາ; e. g., ໝໍລິສຸດສຳນຸໂພວາເສດໄດ້ຊື່, Whose is this book?

#### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

- 78. ຫາ is used as the subject of impersonal verbs; e. g.. ຫາວວ່າເຮົາ, It rains.
- 79. 91 or  $\infty$ ? 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.,  $\infty$ ? (or 91)  $\infty$ ?  $\infty$ ?, 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., ພະໂອກາໃຊ້າ, I see, literally, I see things.
- 82. ອຸ and ອຫາ are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns: e. g., ອຫາຫວານສາ, A certain person came.

83. Many of the indefinite adjectives described under § 99 are also used as indefinite pronouns; e. g., နမ္ှါထံနိ&နိ ခွန်ဒီးဋ္ဌား ໂພາလາတဘ္နီဘက္ဇ္ဂါ, If you see any ducks, buy me

#### 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 groupon, a man that is good. But it is commonly expressed in an abbreviated form, graon, the relative conjunction, on being omitted. It is sometimes still further abbreviated by omitting the pronoun a, when it would stand simply gron.

# ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

- 86. Adjectives of quantity in mass are largely expressed by abbreviated relative clauses, like adjectives of quality; e. g., &\$98\$, a great house.
- 87. Some adjectives expressive of magnitude are formed by prefixing the particle of to verbal roots. Such adjectives immediately follow the nouns which they modify; . g, \$50:95, a great house.

# NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

88. The following table shows the cardinal numerals.

1	2	တၢ
2	J	<b>ំ</b> ុ
3	5	သၢ
4	9	လုံဂ်
5	ຶ່ງ	య్త్త్త్ చుక
6	8	ಬ್ಗ
7	૧	
8	0	8
9	e	<b>.</b>
10	20	တဆံ
11	၁၁	တဆံတၤ
19	၁၉	တဆီခို
20	٥ر	ခံဆုံ <sup>ိ</sup>
90	ę o	<b>္ဂံ</b> ဆံ
100	.500	တကယၤ
200	100	ခံကယၤ
1,000	2000	တကထိ
10,000	20000	တကလး
100,000	200000	တကလိၤ
1,000,000	2000002	တကကွဲရိ
10,000,000	<b>၁</b> 0000000	ထကဘိ

- $E.\ g.,\ 13,297,652$  would be written ລາງເຄື່ອງ and read ລາດສີລາດກິໂລ້ຕາຜິເຊັດດະຊັກຜິນຸກພາໜີໂລ້ລ໌.
- 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. Soon, four dogs. 4 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.

တတြု $\S$ , applied to things in bundles; e. g., လိ $\S$ တကတြု $\S$ , a book.

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,  $a \ church.$ 

თმა, applied to plots of ground; e. g., აბითმა, a field. თქგ, applied to logs, felled trees etc.; e. g., ააბითქგ, a log of wood.

മി, applied to traps and snares; e. g., തുത്തി, a trap.

\$\$, applied to things conceived as proceeding from one head;  $e. y. o \$ \infty \$ \$$ , a bamboo tree.

3, applied to sides of things; c. g., 933, two hands.

or, applied to rational beings; e. g., നസ്കൂട്ട് or, two angels. പ്രസ്താരുക്കാന, three men.

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

တီန်, applied to the eyes, and to large seeds; e. g., ပန္နဲရိ

නි, applied to things occurring at intervals; e. g., ල්රි වීතුනනි, a chapter of the Bible.

ထံး, applied to trees; e. g., သ<sup>3</sup>းသံ့ဉိသာထံး, three mango trees.

 $\mathring{\omega}$ δ, applied to words or sentences; e. g., σλοκοδισφδ, a word, a saying.

ထူနီ, applied to trees, posts, etc.; e. g., သနီပဟံနိသာထူနီ, three teak posts.

91, applied to bird's nests, e. g., ຜິຊິໝາສູ່ລ້ອງ, two bird'\* nests.

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

ပူး, applied to places; e. g., အလိဂ်တပူး, a place.

S: or S:, applied to flowers; e. g., ອີກາໝຸລິລໍອີະ, 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., သံ့ၵိပတ်ၵိတရှ, a teak loy.

ရာနှ, applied to things conceived of as spherical; e. g., သင်္ဒးသဉ်လွှဲ်ာရာနှ,  $two\ manyoes.$ 

ഴു. applied to openings; e. g., ഉപ്പട്ടി, two doors.

ဘ္ $\beta$ , applied to things conceived of as flat ; e. g., ဆီတဘ္ $\beta$ , a foul.

- 3, applied to things conceived of as cylindrical; e. g., 913013, three snakes.
- ൻ, applied to blows, words and sentences; e. g., തിനന്റെ തത്മി, a word or two.

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

ယူရှိ, applied to songs and poems: e. g., တရ်သနှင့်ခိုခံယူရှိ, two songs.

යිදි applied to places; e. g., එරිනයිදි, u 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, ຊາລັດຊີຊີ, two bunches of rattans, ຕຸບວິດວຽ, 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,  $a\ kingdom.$  ကြီးတဘူး, or ကြီးတကြီး,  $a\ country.$
- 93. Sometimes there is a choice of numeral affixes for the same noun; e. g., 3500, or 3500, an eye.
- 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., Risingia, twenty cattle.
- 96. The formation of the ordinal numerals will easily be understood from the following examples—

```
ສອີຊິວສະຫດາ, pirst (man); ສອີຊິວສະ means beginning.
ສອີຊິວສະຫຍ້າ. pirst (thing).
ອຳເຫດາ, second (man)
ລາຍຳຫຍ້າ, third (thing).
ຮູ້ຖືງຫວຸ. fourth (quadruped).
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- 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., 50:, 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  $\mathfrak{A}$ , many,  $\mathfrak{q}$ , few, and  $\mathfrak{A}$ , several: e. g.,  $\mathfrak{q}$ :  $\mathfrak{A}$ :  $\mathfrak{$

- (2) The numeral  $\infty$ , one, with an appropriate sumeral affix, often has the sense of the English indefinite article; e. g., σδροφιδ, a house.
- .(3) The numeral ത, one, with a reduplicated numeral affix is used in referring indefinitely to one person or thing; e.g., വാരവാ, some man, തമ്യൂറ്റ, some elephant.
- (4) The indefinite adjective of quantity,  $\mathfrak{os}_1$ , some, is tormed from the numeral  $\mathfrak{o}$  by means of the particle  $\mathfrak{F}_1$ .
- (5) The reduplicated form  $\infty$  \$1\$1, is used in referring indefinitely to more than one person or thing;  $g_1 \otimes g_2 \otimes g_3 \otimes g_4 \otimes g_5 \otimes g_5$
- (6) In a similar way are formed නම් නම් ය little, නම්නු and නගුනු, a great deal.
- (7) Universality is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between  $\sigma$  and  $\omega$ າວາ: e. g., gເຫດເພາວາດ, every man.
- (8) The same idea is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between S: and d:: e. g., &ຽດປະສຸຊິນ: every bird.
- (9) Completeness is expressed by placing a numeral affix between 8 and మై; e. g., ఆస్థిక్ క్రిక్స్ ప్రైస్ the whole earth.
- (10) A complete number may be expressed by affixing  $call{2}$ , രാർ or ക്രി to any one of the ordinal numerals; e. g., കാവരീ, കാവരുട, കാവക്കി, 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., တံຽວທາຽ $\vartheta$ , the same house.
- (13) Utter non-existence of a thing is expressed by affixing a numeral auxiliary to နီတ : 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 ວິດເຊັ້ນ ລຸ all, which follows its noun; e. g., ຊເວີດເຮັ, all men.

&ຊາ, 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., &ຊາງາ, &ຊາງາດາ. &ຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດາເວົ້າຊາງາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊາງາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານາດເວົ້າຊານ

ds $\beta$ , whoever, or whatever, which precedes its noun: e. g., ds $\beta$ q, whatever man.

#### INTEROGRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

- 101. The common interrogative adjectives are ωσι, referring to persons, and ω<sub>φ</sub>ι, referring to things; e. y., φωθεωαβωσιωβ, With what teacher did you come? φωββωσιωβωφιωβ, What fruit do you wish to eat? ωσι and ω<sub>φ</sub>ι are often followed by σοι and σώι respectively; e. y., ωαβωσισοιωβ.
- 102. An interrogative adjective with a selective force is formed by prefixing δωβ to the ordinal numeral  $\infty$ , one, which is in its turn followed by the appropriate numeral affix; e. g.,  $3 \approx 58 \approx 35 \approx 35 \approx 35$ , Which book do you wish?
- 103. Interrogative adjectives of quantity are made by prefixing သံး to indefinite adjectives of quantity; e g., သံးອື້, how great. သံးສົາ, how much, how many, ເອສີລິລໍະ ສາຝຣັ່ງ, How much money have you? These are used both in direct and indirect discourse. In indirect discourse they sometimes suffer reduplication: e. g., ພວງຊີລິລໍະລາໄດ້ຊີ ຊີຽພອລຸລຸລົມສຸງ, I do not know how much money I have.

104. Interrogative adjectives of number may be formed by prefixing §1 or §1 to the unneral affix; e. g., γωωι §101&\$, 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, si, sisin, this, and § β, sigh, that. They may modify any substantive element, be it noun, pronoun, phrase or clause.
- 106. နှ $\beta$ , 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., gເລະງໂສດຸເພາສສβຽລສະວັດທາວຸໂສດຸເລດເຊຣ $\beta$ , The good old man who lives in Rangoon.
  - 107. 35 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 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  $\varpi$  e.g., granges, a good man.

#### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

- 110. The comparative degree is expressed by affixing ຫລຸຈີ to the adjective; e. g., ດຸເ, good, ດຸເດດຊື່, better.
- 111. Where the object of comparison is expressed, the adjective is followed by ຈຸ s instead of တက္ s; e. g., ດຸເຊ ໃໝາ, better than I. In such cases, the object of comparison is generally followed by တက္ s; e. g., ດຸເຊ ໃໝາດກຸ s, better than I.
- 112. The superlative degree is formed by affixing mons or one to the adjective; e. g., amons or cross, best.

#### VERBS.

- 113. Karen verbs express actions, states or qualities:  $e, g, \infty$ , to  $go, \mathfrak{S}$ , to  $be, \mathfrak{S}$ , 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  $\partial \iota$ , to go, is often used with the object  $\mathfrak{S}$ .
- 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,  $\omega$   $\infty$   $\infty$ , 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 ωάβρια, I see you, άβ 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 rentences exhibit the passive of the verb  $\mathring{\varpi}\beta, \ \it{to} \ \it{see} -\!\!\!\!\!-$ 

ယာာဉ်ထင်္ဂထိုညားလိုး, နဘဉ်တင်္ဂဆိုခိုးလိုး, စီးဝါဘဉ်တင်္ဂထိုခိုးလိုး. I am seen. You are seen. Saw Wa is seen.

120. In the last sentence, Siol is the subject,  $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathfrak{I}}$ , encountered, the predicate,  $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathfrak{I}}$ , the seeing, the object of  $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathfrak{I}}$ , and  $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathfrak{I}}$  the object of the verbal noun  $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathfrak{I}}$ .

VERBS. 31

- 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  $g_{i}$  or  $g_{i}$  and followed by a reflexive pronoun; e. g., ω $g_{i}$  ω $g_{i}$  ω $g_{i}$  ω $g_{i}$  ω $g_{i}$  α seen, I permit myself to be seen,  $g_{i}$  δρως, 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., oras some, It is written.
- 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\$\omega\$β. 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., e., Run.
- 128. When a verb is in the imperative mood the sentence (if expressing a command) commonly ends with the particle တက္န); e. g., ພຸໂတက္န), Run, ထဲဆူယအီဠိတက္န္ဂါ, 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., ສ $\beta$ ດາສ $\beta$ ດາວາງເວດຈ $\beta$ , Eless us.

- 130. In giving permission, ຕາໃຈ້ຽ or ຕາໃຈ້ຽ sometimes takes the place of ຫລາໃ; e. g., ထဲးຕາໃຈ້ຽ, Go.
- 131. A sentence expressing a prohibition ends in ∞οι; 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 S and otherwise has the form of a sentence expressing command or prohibition; e. g., δυδισφ, Let us go, δυαρολισφ, 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.. ജാറിച്ചതർവരിം, 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  $\hat{o}_i$  before  $\hat{o}_i$ ; e. g.,  $\hat{o}_i$  $\hat{o}_i$  $\hat{o}_i$ .
- 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, ວຸາ is affixed to the verb, and is often followed by &: e. g., ພວກຖະນີອຳລາວອີ

VERBS. 33

ຕຸເວົ້າຜູ້, 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 the root and affixing  $\infty$  or  $\infty$  or

### 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., afaison, to believe, βρωβωβ, to grow up, siedigidi, to decrease, ωιωβωιοί, to direct, βρώδο, 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.,  $\Re \beta \delta a$ , 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.

 $\mathcal{B}_{\bullet}$ , prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g.,  $\mathcal{B}_{\bullet}$ : స్పాస్ట్ స్ట్రాన్స్  $\mathcal{B}_{\bullet}$ , to inform.

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

လ်း, prefixed to verbs with the negative, indicates that the act is performed imperfectly, or in a slight degree;  $e.\ g.$ , ယာလ(3)သော့နည်းသည်,  $I\ scarcely\ know.$ 

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

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

 $\delta$ β, prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g.,  $\delta$ β $\infty$ 1 $\infty$ 1 $\beta$ , to raise up.

య్గ్ has a permissive or causative force; e. g., ఆస్థిక్స్ to increase (transitive).

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

ကားချို, or ကားခိုယားချို, has a concessive force; e. g., မှာကားချိ ချိန်မှာလား, admitting it to be so, နှစ်းတာရှိနှာမှာကားချိုယားချို့ admitting the truth of what you say.

თ 8: indicates that the same action has been performed before; e. g., သະဝံβ ກ 9:, 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., ອີອຸເ, come back, ຊຽວາ, believe.

જ્ઞ indicates that the act is performed by way of trial; e. g., ω η η, to try, χρηη, to taste.

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

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

υβ denotes that several persons or things act together; e. g., διωβ, to go together.

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

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

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

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

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

φι denotes that the action results in arriving; e. g., φφη, to arrive.

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

నిర్ is affixed to a few words denoting separation; e. g., లొంచిక్, to fall off.

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

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

చిస్త indicates an upward motion, literal or figurative; e. g., సుటిస్త్, to ascend, మాటిస్త్, to increase. It often denotes incipient action; e. g., చిస్టిపిస్త్, to come into being.

aβ indicates independent action; e. g., ωπωιαβώ, I will do it myself.

ອຸຣິກလာ၊ ၃, or ခုန်ကလီး, indicates that the subject defers some other action to perform the one indicated by the verb; e. g., အနီဒီးခန်ကလီး, Wait a bit, ယကအီနိခန်ကယားမေ့း, I will eat rice first.

 $\S \S$  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., ἐιυδ, ἐιυδοιι, to promise, to foretell.

oil indicates that the action reaches unto its object; e. g., dioil, to go unto.

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

બુ indicates that the action results in going through; e. g., તેમ to go through.

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

ဘ $\beta$  indicates that the action passes over onto an object; e g., ယကတ်ဘ $\beta$ အီး, I will tell him.

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

3 indicates that the act is performed by or for imitation; e. g., 353, to teach,  $\omega$ 13, to learn.

డిక indicates reciprocal action; e. g., శ్రీగిర్గుణుఫిస్టర్ ఇవు:, Brothers should love one another.

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

သကີ: denotes that several persons or things act in company; e. g., ໝາມຕະ, to go together.

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

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

න් indicates an incipient action; e. g., တုအဝေးနက်သိန်း ပးနှာန်, when he had just become king.

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

#### DEPENDENT VERBS.

- 147. A verb depending on another follows it immediately, without undergoing any change of form; e. g., ພຸດຕັງ: ຄາເພາສາເຮົາ, I will try to do it. This is the common construction for expressing suitibility, necessity, etc.; e. g., ສາວອຸລິຕາເພີເປັດປະ , He should come, ພຸລາລິບາເປົາ, 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. y., ພກວ່າ ພຸສະເຮົາ, I will go and seek it.

#### IDIOMS IN THE USE OF VERBS.

- 149. The causative verb ຜາ and the permissive verb ຜຸ 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., wo: 30,31. 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., ယထဲးမှာလိတ်ကိုတာရှိဒီးယဖေး လံသိသွင်း, I went to school once, and I can read.
- ത്, ability considered with reference to physical health, or inclination; e. g., ഡ $\S$ \$യി, ധഗഃയ്ട്റ് ത്രത്തെ $\S$ , My head aches, I cannot go to walk.
- ຈຸໂ, ability considered with reference to effectiveness of effort; e. g., ထဲးသမ္ဂိတ္မီဂိုဒါးတရိမ်း, ယငါအေးတန္နီဘာဂို, The carpenter has work, I cannot hire him.
- ချုႏ, ability considered with reference to leisure;  $e.\ g.$ , ယဘာ္မိမၤလီတ ရဲခံဆီး, ယတ္းလီးလိုးတရားျဘားနှာ,  $I\ must\ study\ now,\ I\ cannot\ go\ to\ walk.$
- ဘβ, ability considered with reference to accomplishing the end proposed; e. g., ຜ່ຽກວ່ວກໍວຸໂດດບານ, ພບະດວກβລβ, This book is Talaing, I cannot read it.
- ຽາ, ability considered with reference to the sufficiency of the subject; e. g., ຫາຍາສາຕາລີສະເພຍາຫຽາຫາ, The work is too great, I cannot do it.
- 152. The ideas of suitability, agrees leness etc., are often expressed in a similar manner to that of potentiality; e. g., န8ະກວນຸລິກູລິຣ໌, Dure you ride a horse? ພຣະກວສີ ຫຊົກລຸ, I do not like to ride an dephant, ບວ່າວາດກິດດຸດ ກລຸຣ໌, Had we not better go to worship? ພຣູເອີກລວດິຊິ ຕີງະຕິຣ໌, Is it proper for me to buy a silk jacket?
- 153. The verb  $\$\S$ , expressing desire, takes  $\mathfrak{O}\S$  for its subject, and is followed by a verb denoting that act the performance of which is desired. This latter verb is followed by  $\mathfrak{O}$ , 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  $\mathfrak{O}$ ; e. g.,  $\mathfrak{O}$   $\mathfrak{S}$   $\mathfrak{S}$

- to see you, သရ $\beta$ န္နာတ $\beta$ S $\beta$ ပ္မွာသားလံ $\beta$ တာာန $\beta$ S $\beta$ I, The teacher 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 the preposition కి. e. g., యావ్స్ కించనీరాన్స్, I have a book.
  - (2) Or possessor and thing possessed may change places;

e. g., လံဉ်တဘ္ $\beta$ အြံ $\beta$ ဒီးယာ, 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.,  $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathfrak{g}}$ ,  $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathfrak{g}}$
- 157. Adverbs so formed very commonly take the affix ෆාහර්; e. g., කුරිකුරිෆාහ්රි.
- 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.
- 159. Some adverbs of manner are formed from verbal roots by means of the affixes నులుస్, and నులుస్, e. g., స్పోస్ నులుస్, silently, టినిస్సు, silently, టినిస్సు, sill.
- 160. Occasionally adverbs of manner are formed by prefixing  $\mathfrak{S}$  to an adjectival root; e. g,  $\mathfrak{S}_{\mathfrak{S}}$ , well.
- 161. Many adverbs of manner are irregular in their formation; e. g., ఆయికు, openly, బెంకోనికుప్పు, 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  $\mathfrak{S}_1$  and  $\mathfrak{S}_2$  in combination with the prepositions  $\mathfrak{S}_2$ ,  $\mathfrak{S}_1$  and  $\mathfrak{S}_2$ . They are exhibited in the following table.

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

လာအံ၊, here, လာနှβ, there, လာလဲβ, where, whence, လာအံ၊ လာနှ၊, here and there.

apåı, hither, appβ, thither, apòβ, whither, apåıapı, hither and thither.

164. The prepositions  $\infty_1$  and  $\infty$  form adverbs of place in combination with such roots as  $\infty_1$ , front, 3, back,  $\infty_2$ , above,  $\infty_3$ , below,  $o_3$ , and  $\infty_2$ , beyond, and 3, side; e.g.,  $\infty_2$ , forward,  $\infty_13$ , behind,  $\infty_13$ , beyond.

### 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—

မကာခ်, မက်ခ်, just now, မဆာ, to-day, မရိုး, this morning, မနား. lust night. မဘာ, yesterday. မဘာဆာကျိ, မက်ခ်တ်တာရှိ, lust time (in the immediate past). မတာခံတာကျိ, last time (in the more remote past). യറിനു്, last week.

ഴിയിനും, ",

• യറിതയി, last month.

ധിയിതയി, ", ", မေငါတနံ္နီ, last year.

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

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

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

ລິພະລີ, to day, ລິພະລີ, this evening, with verbs of future time.

381. to-morrow.

3081, the day after to-morrow.

ბიზა, in the future.

ခဲကSတ**ာ** next time.

ခဲက်Sတနဲ့, next week.

ခဲ့က်ီSတလၢ, next month.

ခဲက်ိန်တန်န်, next year.

(2) By the use of the prepositions ω<sub>1</sub> and ω<sub>2</sub>. Cf. §164. The most common of these are-

໙າວໍ, ໙າວໍອຸາ, afterwards.

ဆူညါ, ဆူညါ $^{\circ}$ , in the future.

നുങ്ങുലി, henceforth.

167. on is prefixed to some temporal adverbs when the idea of futurity is not implied; e. g., ໝາຊາສາຊີ, by day, ວາຕຸາເ**ວ**າກອາເ,  $of \ old$ .

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

သူတန်းကျား, all day.

യ്**റും**നുവ, all night.

သူသူတန်း. daily.

သိသိတနာ, nightly.

ອື່າໝີ,  $all\ day$ , (similarly ອີາລຸນີ, ອີ້ລູນີ, etc).

கி:விர்வர், every day, (similarly கி:விர்வர், கி:க்ற்: etc).

- 169. Many adverbs of time are not formed in accord with any law; e. g., වූහණ, quickly, සිහි, 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 : ພະສິດຊີໂດເ ພາກວ່າຈໍາວາຊຸເຊີເຊີເ, I think I shall still go several times, ສວດວ່າຈໍາວຸຊີ, He has not yet come, ພວດສະໂດເາລັຊີ, I have no more money.

#### NUMERAL ADVERBS.

- 171. Adverbs denoting how many times are formed from the cardinal numerals, in combination with the affix නු or ඉ; e. y., ගනු, once, එනු, twice, නාද, thrice.
- 172. A and a are treated like numeral auxiliaries, and may enter into all the combinations of which numeral auxiliaries are capable; e. y., തമ്മിയ, simultaneously, at once, തമ്മിയി, തമറ, sometimes, റിയിയി, every time, വാറുളി, as many as three times.
- 173. Adverbs denoting which time are formed like ordinal numerals; e. y., ශාදීරිස් හෙන්දී, the first time, ්නේදීනන්දී, the second time.
- 174. The particles q and A enter into certain irregular formations; e. g., വുദ്യാർ, വുദ്യാപ്പ്, then.

## ADVERBS OF DEGREE.

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

- 177. The following adverts are intensive:  $\omega_{\mathfrak{s}}$ ,  $\infty_{\mathfrak{t}}$ ,  $\mathfrak{s}_{\mathfrak{s}}$  (used with adjectives denoting disagreeable sensations), and  $\mathfrak{S}_{\mathfrak{s}}$  (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, ດາສາດຖະກຽ, moderately.
- 179. Other adverbs of degree are irregularly formed; e. g., widness, not at all (with negatives), where, about,  $\alpha > 0$ .

#### ADVERBS OF COMPARISON.

- 180. Equality is expressed by §ສະສະ, equally; e. g., ກວາຣຸຊາດເຄັນເສົາຊາດ ສູ່ຮູ້ສະສະສາ, He understands Burmese and Karen equally, ກວາຣຸດວາເບົາເຜົາຣີສະສະສະຊາດສູ້ ຜູ້າ, He speaks Burmese equally with Karen.
- 181. Inequality is expressed by a combination of two contradictory roots expressive of quantity; e. g., သရဉ်တကြား ခံနှည်နှိုမှန်သံးအားရှားများလေတာ်မြို့တာနှို, 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,  $\alpha\alpha\beta$ , where, whence,  $\alpha\alpha\beta$ , whither.
- 183. These are reduplicated in indirect discourse; e. g., ສາວວິດເວດ ລາວວິດເວດ ລາວວິດເວດ ລາວວິດເວດ ລາວວິດເວດ ລາວວິດເວດ ການ tell whence he comes.
- 184. Interrogative adverbs of quantity are formed by prefixing  $\mathring{\infty}$ : to adjectives of quantity; e. g.,  $\mathring{\infty}$ :  $\mathring{\infty}$ :  $\mathring{S}$ , how much.

- 186. The interrogative adverb of reason is πρωφι, why? e. g., πρωφιωιφολιωρθεωιπρολό, 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.,  $\infty\infty\infty$ , He does not come.
- 189. A denial is expressed by a negative sentence; e. g., 8ເດໂຜຣ໌, တထိဘ္ఫီ, Has Saw Wa come? No—literally, Not come, ດາຍຸໂລຊ໌, No—literally, It is not.

#### ADVERBS OF PROBABILITY.

190. These are irregular in formation; e. y., ωρωωρ, ωρωβ, perhaps, ωφθωιθ, certainly.

### CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

191. The following are conjunctive adverbs of time—
σι, when; c. g., σιωσβελιβρωποσορβελια, When I
see him I will tell him.

တချုး, before; e. g., ပတ္ချုးထဲးခံးဘ $\beta$ ဗီးပကအိ $\beta$ ခ $\beta$ ကလိ $\beta$ စ္နာလီး, We will eat rice before we go.

ສອາຊາ, ສຸດສາຊາ, while; e. y., ສຸດສຸດທິສອາຊາິສະກຸລິດາ ສາດຮາ, He fell sick while he was coming. See also § 222.

192. ອຳ is used as a correlative conjunctive adverb;  $e.\ g.$ , ພອຳພາເປັດປ້ຽມອຳລຸຊີອີເພາເປັດປ້າ, The more I study, the more I wish to study.

### ADVERBIAL COUPLETS.

193. Adverbial couplets are common; e. g., ໙າໝ໋ະ໙າລີ, in the beginning, ຯສ່າຽຊາ, here and there, ຕວິໂຕຜີໂ, slowly.

## COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

#### · PREPOSITIONS.

195. The Karen language has seven prepositions, 8, ω, οι, δ, ωηι, οισφί, 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—

from the Governor. လာပ႘ိန်အအိုဉ်, လၤထူ ဉိဝါအဂ်ိဳးထီး, by or near Htu Wa. လ၊ စီးပၤအ<sup>ချ</sup>ဉ်ထီး, at the king's feet. by my side. ರುಬುಬು1, in front of the house. လ႑ဟံ ဉိအမဲဉ်ဆျို, လၢဟံ့ဉ်အလို ်ခံ, behind the house. behind Tun Hla. လ၊ထူလးအဈၢဃံ, on the earth. on me-literally, on my surface. **∞1ω**21, လ႑ဟံဉ်အပူ႑, in the house. လာစဉ်အဗီဒီန, လာစဉ်န်န, on the table.

တာအ<sup>ဥ္ပ</sup>ဉ်, on his head. လာဟံဉ်အဖြဲလဉ်, under the house. വാധ്}ജന്എി, among the houses. လာတီဉ်အဘာဉ်စား, between the houses. round about the house. လာတံဉ်အဃားဝးဝး, လာယခါ အင်္ဂြာ, for my wife's sake, for my wife. လာကြက်းအည်, on account of this, because of this. **ດ**າ ທີ່ໃບເພີເສດຸໂ, about Burma. **ດ**າດໃດ້ເຜີເສດຸໂສຽໂ, လာကြီးပဲးကြီးအဂ္ဂ်ာအကျိုး, လာထံဉ်မံးမြှဉ်, on the surface of the water.

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

201. ລຕຸ້າ, throughout, and oးဘရံး,  $round\ about$ , govern the objective.

202. §, like, as, always governs the secondary noun ສະ, the object of comparison being placed in the possessive case; e. g., ສາງາພາຣົນລຸລິສສະເຄີຍ, The pupil acts like the teacher. Sometimes the object of comparison is a noun clause, when s corresponds in meaning to the English as; e. g., ສາງາພາຣິນລຸລິພາວສສະເລີຍາ, 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. 8s, and, connects words, phrases or clauses. It may stand at the close of the preceding clause, or at the beginning of the following one.

રિમ— દે૧, and also; e. g., કેદે૧૪૪૪૧, એ૬૧૪૪૪૧, ပတવાં ૧૦૪૧. You are a man and I also am a man, we are not afraid.

မးကဗြီးတဘျို (or တစု), again.

လာအီး (or နှဉ်) အမြည်၊, moreover.

လးအိုး (or နှိုန်) အဗိ $\S$ န်, moreover.

အချိန်တလိ $\delta$ , not only so.

တမ္ှါထဲ, not only so.

# ADVERSATIVE.

205. မွမ္နာ, မုန (at the beginning of a clause) but.

ဘ $\mathfrak{S}$ ဆ္နိ, ဘ $\mathfrak{S}$ ဆနိဒီး, but.

မှတမှ $\mathfrak{f}$ ဘ $\mathfrak{f}$ ဒီး,  $or\ else$ .

φβ—φβ, either—or.

သူ့ $\beta$ သူ့ $\beta$ —သူ့ $\beta$ သူ့ $\beta$ , either—or.

or-or, either-or.

oron-oron, either-or.

မှာဂိဂ္ဂၤ—မှာဂိဂ္ဂၤ, either—or; e. g., ဆီမှာဂိဂ္ဂၤထားသို့ သို့ သို့ ပို ပို ကို or a duck.

# ILLATIVE.

206. ວິຣິຊຸລິຍີး, ພຸຈິຣິຊຸລິຍີး, ສຕຸຈິພຸຈິຣິຊຸລິຍີး, ພຸພຸຈິຣິຊຸລິຍີး, ພາລະຣິຊຸລິຍີ, ສສຳຍີ:, ສຊຸລິຍີ, 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. အဂ္ဂါဒ်အီး, အာဂ္ဂါဒ်ထဲန်, မှာအဂ္ဂါဒ်ထဲန်, because.

ငှှိမှိရလာ, အကူရိမ့်ရလာ, because.

သတ:8:, because. This stands at the end of its clause; e. g., ယစ္၅းသတ:8:ယၝးအိက်တသ္ဘ>>>1 cannot buy a jacket because my money is scant.

#### HYPOTHETICAL.

209. gr, when.

σιοί, 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, သန္ဝိက္ခ, though, stands at the end of its clause; e. g., အမျှဒြန်နဝိသက္ (or ဘာနိဆန်ဒီး) ယကမျှအေးလိုး, Although the price is high, I shall buy it.

မှုရှိနှာသက္ခရိန္အ  $\beta$ ဒီး, nevertheless.

#### TELIC.

210.  $\infty_1$ , that. See § 220. 33:, 33:8:, in order that. See § 225, 226.

# COMPARATIVE.

211. The preposition  $\S$ , governing the secondary noun  $\mathfrak{S}_{:}$ , 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.

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

ຈີຣີ, ຕາໃຈ້ຣີ, or ຕາβຈີຣີ is generally used in reply to question =. မးထိုနီ has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

#### NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

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

 $q \delta \delta \delta$ ,  $Q \delta \delta \delta$  imply that the statement is probably not true.

ω:ώ\$ has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

#### INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

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

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

ငါ—ငါ are used in an alternative question; e. g , နာဘဲနှဲဒြီး သက္ကိသန်ဝါသဃီးသန်ဝါ, Do you want a plantain or a mango?

၏ — ထဲနိ are used in alternative questions, especially in indirect discourse; e. g., အင်္ဂလာလသိန်၏လာတားထဲနိန်နိ သဘသိနည္သဘန်, I do not know whether he comes from Bassein or Henzada.

ခြိန် is equivalent to ဘဉ်၏.

### IMPERATIVE PARTICLES.

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

#### PRECATIVE PARTICLES.

218. 3\$, at the end of a declarative or imperative sentence, asks for consent. Hence it softens a command into a request. E. g., ດວາວາຊາວຳຊີ\$, We will go home, shall we not? ພາການລວກຊີ\$\$, 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.
- 220. Noun clauses may be introduced by  $\infty$ 1 and terminated by  $\beta$ 5; e. g., ພວກ ພຸລົມໂ ພາສຕອນສົເສລິລິລິ, I do not know that he will do it.
- 221. Adjective clauses are introduced by ωι and terminated by \$\beta\$; e. g., აδωιωηρηδιό \$\beta\$βωιοβωβββωιοβωβββωι. The book which the teacher wrote is on the table.
- 223. Conditional clauses are introduced by ເຈົ້າ, which stands immediately after the subject, and are terminated by ອື່ະ; e. y., ဘົ່າຍຸດວິຊາອີະບຸດກຸລິຊີລີດັ່ນ, If it rains we shall get wet. An apparent, but not a real, exception to this rule is found in the case of complex sentences, in which a subordinate noun clause will come before ເວົ້າ; e. y., ຈຸດັ່ນ ເຄົາລີເດັນຕາໃຈ້າ, If you can yo, yo by all means.

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- 224. ငှာ is occasionally used to introduce a concessive conditional clause ending in သနင်းကွ, or ဘ $\beta \infty \beta$ ; e. g., တင်္ခြင်းလဲစု၊သနင်းကွဲပက္ဘေနတဲ့ပက္ဘေနတဲ့ပက္သနင်းလုံး Even though it rains we shall have to go.
- 225. Clauses of purpose are introduced by క్వి:, or క్వి:కి:, and when not standing at the end of the sentence are terminated by కి:; e. g., బంప్లు ఇస్ట్ క్వి:బ్లుబాలు కొంకి, I came to school that I might learn. క్వి:కి బాటిక్ ప్రాస్ట్ కి ప్రాస్
- 226. Negative clauses of purpose take the form of a prohibitory clause preceded by §3; and terminated (when necessary) by 8; e. g. §3; μασωρββραοιβ: μαρββραοιβ: μαρββραοιβ:
- 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  $\mathfrak{S}$   $\mathfrak{S}$ ,  $e.\ g.$ , §  $\mathfrak{S}$  to  $\mathfrak{S}$  with  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  are  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  are  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  are  $\mathfrak{S}$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  are  $\mathfrak{S}$  202, 211.



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