subject marker (literary δi). Ko is an object or directional marker, hma is a locative, $n\acute{e}$ an instrumental marker: e.g. eig.hma 'in the house'; $dou'.n\acute{e}$ 'with a stick' (literary $hn\acute{i}g$).

POSSESSION

Literary $i = \text{colloquial } y \hat{e}$; Y of X is expressed as X $i/y \hat{e}$ Y. This particle can be omitted; if it is, X changes tone: e.g. $\theta u.y \hat{e} eig = \theta \hat{u}.eig$ 'his house'. If omitted, the objective marker ko induces similar tonal change.

There are several numerical coefficients, e.g. yau', \dot{u} for people; kaun for animals; $l\grave{o}un$, $ch\grave{a}un$ for objects according to shape, size, and so on. $Kh\acute{u}$ is an all-purpose classifier which can replace any other (cf. Chinese 4 /ge/).

Pronoun

The independent personal pronouns are:

Singular

- 1 cun.do (masc.), cun.má (fem.)
- 2 khin.bya (formal), min (general)
- θu

Plural markers are added to make the plural series. Possessives are made by adding $i/y\dot{\epsilon}$ Again, if this is omitted, the tone of the pronoun changes: $cu\eta . dz . y\dot{\epsilon} = cu\eta . d\dot{z}$ 'mine'.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN

di 'this'; ho 'that'

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN

These are based on the particle $b\varepsilon$ + modulators: $b\varepsilon \delta u$ 'who?'; ba.go 'what?'.

Numerals

1–10: ti', hni', θ òuŋ, lè, η à, chau', khú.ni', ši', kò, tə s^h ə/təse; 20 hni'shɛ; 100 təya.

Verb

Verbs in Burmese may be simple, e.g. $\theta w \dot{a}$ 'to go', $s \dot{a}$ 'to eat'; or compound, i.e. root + root, e.g. $tw\acute{e}.myig$ 'to meet' ('meet' + 'see'). There is no inflection for person. The general predicative marker is δi (coll.)/i (lit.). This marker is further amplified by several specific markers for tense and mood: e.g. $m\varepsilon$ (future), $g\varepsilon$ (perfective), $n\varepsilon$ (progressive), pyi (inceptive). E.g.

təne.θə.hnai mauŋ.lu.e youŋ.hma sɔ.zɔ shiŋ.la.gɛ.i
'One day, Maung Lu E came home from work early'
(təne.θə.hnai 'one day', 'once'; youŋ 'place of work'; hma 'from'
(postposition); sɔ.zɔ 'early'; shiŋ.la 'to return'; gɛ perfective particle;
i predicative marker)

təne.θə.hnai maun.lu.e youn.hma sə.zə shin.la.ge.i 'One day, Maung Lu E came home from work early' (təne.θə.hnai 'one day', 'once'; youn 'place of work'; hma 'from' (postposition); so.zo 'early'; shin.la 'to return'; ge perfective particle; *i* predicative marker)

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ké/koun/pi: these are used to express perfective aspect.

NEGATION

The negative marker is ma... phù: e.g. ma human phù 'not true'.

IMPERATIVE

Command is made more polite by addition of pa: e.g. $\theta w \dot{a} \cdot ba$ 'please go'. An interrogative marker is la.

MODAL VERBS

Desiderative chin; potential ta'lhnain; necessitative yá; conditional vin: e.g. twé viŋ 'if ... meet(s)'; θwa yá mɛ '... must go'. A verbal noun is made with the ∂ -prefix (written $\Im = a$, reduced to ∂): e.g. lou' 'to work' $- \partial \cdot lou'$ 'work' (noun); hlá 'to be pretty' – ə.hlá 'beauty'.

Many verbs occur in functive-stative pairs (active-passive in Indo-European terms); the functive member has an aspirate initial which is dropped in the stative:

Functive Stative hein 'to make narrow' cin 'to be narrow' hcwá 'to raise' cwá 'to be lifted' hnòu 'to waken' nòu 'to be awake' hlu' 'to set free' lu' 'to be free'

As in Chinese, there are many four-syllable set phrases, which may be extended to six members. These often consist of formant + rhyming word, reduplicated: e.g. kə.pya.kə.ya 'hurriedly'.

RELATIVE CLAUSES

May be made with the particle to:

θwà.dò.lu 'the man who is going' θ wa.mɛ.dò.lu 'the man who will go' (with future marker $m\varepsilon$)

Subjectless sentences proliferate, as in Chinese: e.g. Pyo.pyo.ne ŏe.gè ŏi 'Live well, die miserably.'

Compounding

Burmese has a very large stock of polysyllables built up by compounding from various parts of speech. An example shows two nouns and a verb forming a third polysyllabic noun: nyá 'night' + ne 'sun' + sàuŋ 'to lean' → nyá.ne.zàuŋ 'afternoon'.

Word order

SOV is normal.