A Grammar
Of the Sgaw Karen

By Rev. David Gilmore, M. A.,

Of the American Baptist Mission
in Burma.

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F. D. Phinney Supt
1868
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1995
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.

David Gilmore.
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 əə appearing among both consonants and vowels.
THE CONSONANTS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonant</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>က</td>
<td>ကျော်ကြား</td>
<td>k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ခ</td>
<td>ချော်ကြား</td>
<td>kh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ရ</td>
<td>ရိုကြား</td>
<td>gh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>လ</td>
<td>လိုကြား</td>
<td>ch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မ</td>
<td>မိုကြား</td>
<td>ng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ဗ</td>
<td>ဗိုကြား</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>စိုကြား</td>
<td>hs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ဗ</td>
<td>ဗိုကြား</td>
<td>sh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>ny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>ht</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>hp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>w</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>မြစ်</td>
<td>hh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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
CONSONANTS.

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

\( \infty \) has a sound intermediate between \( k \) and \( g \).

\( \mathfrak{c} \) is the aspirate of \( \infty \). It is pronounced like \( kh \) as heard in the phrase \( brick \ house \), or in \( Bokhara \).

\( \mathfrak{o} \) has no analogue in the European languages.

\( \mathfrak{o} \) is pronounced like \( ch \) in the German \( bach \), or the Scottish \( loch \).

\( \mathfrak{c} \) is pronounced like \( ng \) in \( sing \), or \( n \) in \( ink \).

\( \mathfrak{o} \) has a sound intermediate between \( s \) and \( z \).

\( \mathfrak{a} \) is the aspirate of \( \mathfrak{o} \). It has the sound of \( ssh \), as heard in the phrase \( hiss \ him \).

\( \mathfrak{g} \) is pronounced like \( sh \) in \( shun \).

\( \mathfrak{e} \) is pronounced like \( n \) in \( cañon \), or \( ny \) in \( lanyard \).

\( \mathfrak{a} \) has a sound intermediate between \( t \) and \( d \).

\( \mathfrak{a} \) is the aspirate of \( \mathfrak{o} \). It is pronounced like \( th \) as heard in the phrase \( hot \ house \).

\( \mathfrak{o} \) has a sound intermediate between \( p \) and \( b \).

\( \mathfrak{a} \) is the aspirate of \( \mathfrak{o} \) It is pronounced like \( ph \) as heard in the phrase \( hap \ hazard \).

\( \mathfrak{a} \) is pronounced like \( th \) as heard in \( thin \).

\( \mathfrak{o} \) as a consonant has no sound of its own; it is a mere stem to which vowel signs are attached.

\( \mathfrak{o} \) 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 \( \mathfrak{c}, \mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{a} \) and \( \mathfrak{o}, \) 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 ɔ, will be found below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ɔ</th>
<th>ɔ</th>
<th>ɔ</th>
<th>bgh</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>br</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>bl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>bw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 ɔ.

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 ɔ.

12. The vowel symbols alone, and in combination with ɔ and ɔ, are shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ɔ</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>ɔ</th>
<th>ba</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>bu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>bo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
<td>baw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13. The subjoined table explains more definitely the powers of the vowels.

\[\begin{align*}
\ddot{a}, & \text{ a in quota.} \\
\ddot{e}, & \text{ a in father.} \\
\ddot{i}, & \text{ i in machine.} \\
\ddot{o}, & \text{ German ö in Göthe, or u in Turkey.} \\
\ddot{u}, & \text{ German ü in Glück, French u in lune.} \\
\ddot{e}, & \text{ u in rule, oo in moon.} \\
\ddot{o}, & \text{ approximately a in rate.} \\
\ddot{e}, & \text{ French è in Molière, or e in met.} \\
\ddot{o}, & \text{ o in note.} \\
\ddot{a}, & \text{ aw in raw.}
\end{align*}\]

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 \(\ddot{1}\) (\(\ddot{\circ}\)) is pronounced with a heavy falling inflection.

A syllable marked with \(\ddot{5}\) (\(\ddot{\circ}\)) is pronounced abruptly, at a low pitch.

A syllable marked with \(\ddot{7}\) (\(\ddot{\circ}\)) is pronounced abruptly at an ordinary pitch.

A syllable marked with \(\ddot{8}\) (\(\ddot{\circ}\)) is pronounced with a falling circumflex inflection.

A syllable marked with \(\ddot{9}\) (\(\ddot{\circ}\)) is pronounced with a prolonged even tone.

16. When the above mentioned signs follow \(\ddot{1}\), the \(\ddot{1}\) is omitted for the sake of brevity; e. g., instead of \(\ddot{\circ}\ddot{1}\) we write \(\ddot{\circ}\ddot{\circ}\).
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 ə (pronounced ε) is sometimes used to represent the English j or soft g.

The Pwo Karen inflection ʃ (ʃʃʃ) is sometimes used to represent a final l in an English syllable. It is pronounced like §.

ARBITRARY CHARACTERS.

18. § is generally pronounced like ʃ; and ʃ like ʃ; but at Tavoy and Mergui they are sometimes pronounced like ʃ and ʃ 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—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>⼰</td>
<td>⼱</td>
<td>⼱</td>
<td>⼱</td>
<td>⼱</td>
<td>⼱</td>
<td>⼱</td>
<td>⼱</td>
<td>⼱</td>
<td>⼱</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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: สะโม๊ด๓, Saw Wa builds a house. สะโม๊, Saw Wa, subject; ๓๓ ๓๔, builds, predicate; ๓๔, house, object; ๎๎, a particle used to mark the close of a declarative sentence.

A Karen sentence, therefore, resembles an English sentence in two particulars—
(1) The order of words is: subject, predicate, object.
(2) The subject and object are recognized by their position in the sentence.

22. Modifiers may be added to the above sentence as follows: sometimes old Saw Wa builds a house quickly. 8, sometimes, adverbial modifier; 8, old, adjective modifying 8; 8, demonstrative adjective modifying 8; 8, quickly, adverb modifying 8.

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 8, a big house, 8 appears as an adjective; in 8, the house is big, 8 appears as a verb; in 8, the bigness 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 synonymous 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., Opacity, Burma, (Opacity meaning country); Rangoon, (Rangoon meaning city). Names of men are preceded by the particle; e.g., Saw Shwe Yaw. Names of women are preceded by the particle; e.g., 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., a house, a book, gold, an or.

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 to the verbal root; e.g., from the root to go, is formed the noun going, journey.
(b) By simply using the verbal root as a noun, qualifying it by a demonstrative adjective; e. g., ṣr ॐ, to go.

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

(3) Instrumental nouns are formed by prefixing ṣ to the verbal root; e. g., ṣ ṣ, to paddle, ṣ ṣ, a paddle.

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

32. Nouns are formed from adjectival roots in the following ways—

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

(2) Nouns denoting persons are formed by prefixing to the adjectival root the particle ṣ, which is a contraction of ॐ; e. g., ॐ ॐ, great, ॐ ॐ, a ruler, literally a great man.

33. Nouns are formed from other noun roots in the following ways—

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

(2) Gentile nouns, and all nouns expressing residence, are formed by affixing ॐ to the name of the place; e. g., ॐ, city, ॐ, citizens. The particle ॐ is generally prefixed as well; e. g., ॐ, Burma, ॐ ॐ, Burmans.

(3) Two or more noun roots may be combined; e. g., ṣ ṣ, river, ṣ ṣ, 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., ṣ ṣ ॐ, or ṣ ṣ ॐ, birds, ṣ ṣ ॐ, grace, ṣ ॐ, goodness, ṣ ॐ, my country, ṣ ṣ ॐ, your de-
scendents, ဗို, 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., ဆေး, father, များ, mother, ကြီး, husband, မိုး, wife, ဉာဏ်, man, များ, woman.

38. The great body of names of living creatures are of common gender; e. g., ကလေး, child, ကလေး, horse.

39. The gender of such indeterminate nouns may be distinguished by the following affixes—

ဗို, or စိ, masculine, applied to human beings.

ဗို, or ကြီး, feminine, applied to human beings.

ကြီး, masculine, applied to animals.

ဗို, feminine, applied to animals.

E. g., ကလေး, child, ကလေးဗိုကျေး, boy, ကလေးဗိုကျေး, girl; ကလေး, horse, ကလေးဗိုကျေး, stallion, ကလေးဗိုကျေး, mare.

NUMBER.

40. Karen nouns convey of themselves no idea of number; e. g., the noun ကလေး 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 စီ, one; e. g., ဗိုစီဗို, a house.
42. The plural may be denoted in the following ways—
(1) By the use of a numeral adjective; e. g., ჯჰჸჶ, two houses, ჯჰჸჶ, many houses.
(2) By any one of the following affixes—
ჯჰ, the usual affix; e. g., ჯჰჯჰ, houses.
ჯჰ, used with the vocative, or with pronouns; e. g., ჯჰჯჰ, brethren, ჯჰჯჰ, they.
ჯჰჯჰ, used principally with pronouns; e. g., ჯჰჯჰ, they.
ჯჰ, ჯჰ, and ჯჰჯჰ, used occasionally.
(3) The plural, when used to convey the idea of generality, is often expressed by a couplet; e. g., ჯჰჯჰ, houses or buildings in general.
(4) ჯჰჯჰ may be used at the end of a sentence which has a plural subject; e. g., ჯჰჯჰ, ჯჰჯჰ, ჯჰჯჰ, 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 beginning 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., ჯჰჯჰ, Saw Wa builds
a house. ophon, the subject, precedes the verb, əphə; and əphy, the object, follows it.

47. Karen nouns, like English nouns, are often governed by prepositions; e.g., əpəthə, I go to Rangoon. Here əpəthə is governed by the preposition əph. Nouns follow the prepositions 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 əphra; e.g., where the English says, I give Saw Wa a book, the Karen may say, əpayəph əpəthə əphə, or əpayəphəthə əpəthə əphə.

49. In Karen, verbal nouns as well as verbs may take objects; e.g., əpayəphə, love (for) you.

50. A noun in the possessive construction is joined to the name of the thing possessed by the particle əhr; e.g., əphəthə əhr əphə, Saw Wa's house.

51. A noun in the vocative case is followed by the particle əhr; e.g., əphəthə əhr, Saw Wa.

52. Substantives in the absolute construction stand first in the sentence, free of all grammatical relation thereto, and are usually followed by the demonstrative adjective əh or əhə; e.g., əphəthə, əhəphəthə əhə, That house, Saw Wa built it. Here əhə is in the absolute construction, followed by əhə, that. Occasionally the particle əhə takes the place of the particle əhə or əhə. More commonly it follows one of them; e.g., əphəthə əhə, əphəthə əhə əhə, əphəthə əhə əhə əhə.

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 ဝေ, the
pronouns used being personal pronouns of the third person.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

55. In Karen, as in English, the personal pronouns are
depicted, 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ဝ, ဝ</td>
<td>ဝ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss. ဝ, ဝ</td>
<td>ဝ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj. ဝ</td>
<td>ဝ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. င</td>
<td>င</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss. င</td>
<td>င</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj. င</td>
<td>င</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ပ</td>
<td>ပ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss. ပ</td>
<td>ပ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj. ပ</td>
<td>ပ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

56. The form ပ 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
ပဝ, ပဝ, or occasionally ပဝ, and in the plural generally as ပဝဝ.

57. After the verb ဝ, to be, the objective forms of the
personal pronouns are used instead of the nominative
forms; e.g., ဝဝဝဝ (not ဝဝဝဝ), It is I.
58. Besides the regular pronouns, the Karen possesses a pronominal affix, ə. 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 ə follows a verb it is never an object, although it often looks like one, but always refers to the subject; e. g., əδəσ, əδσ, əδσ, əδσ, əδσ, əδσ. The book which the teacher wrote, have you seen it? Here ə refers to the subject, əδσ, and not to the object, əδσ. In this construction əδσ is often used like ə.

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 ə and əδσ, the word əδσ, self, and the demonstrative adjectives, əδσ, this, and əδσ, 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st pers.</td>
<td>əδσ, əδσ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>əδσ, əδσ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>əδσ, əδσ, əδσ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

60. When used absolutely, the personal pronouns appear in the forms noted under §59. The contracted forms əδσ and əδσ are the ones in common use, the primitive forms əδσ and əδσ being seldom met with in this construction.

61. In the plural forms the plural affix əδσ may be substituted for the particle əδσ; e. g., əδσ əδσ may be substituted for əδσ. To any form so arising the plural affix əδσ may be added, giving such forms as əδσ əδσ.
62. The absolute forms of the pronoun (like the absolute forms of the noun) are generally followed by one of the demonstrative adjectives တူ and ဖုရား, and sometimes by the particle ဒါ; e.g., သက်ဝေး, သက်ဝေးတူတွေ, သက်ဝေးတွေဖုရား.

63. In the absolute forms, ဖုရား is often omitted; e.g., သက်ဝေး, 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., ရ, ရတွေကြည့်ဖို့, As for you, you will have to go.

65. The use of the absolute form is illustrated in the following sentences: ဆိုဒေ, ဆိုဒေရာ, As for me, I cannot go, ဆိုဒေမှာ, ဆိုဒေရာမှာ, 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 စို, or စိုက်, self, and the particles ဖုရား. They are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st pers.</td>
<td>ကစားကစားဖုရား ကစားကစားဖုရား</td>
<td>ကစားကစားဖုရား ကစားကစားဖုရား</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>ကစားကစားဖုရား ကစားကစားဖုရား</td>
<td>ကစားကစားဖုရား ကစားကစားဖုရား</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>ကစားကစားဖုရား ကစားကစားဖုရား</td>
<td>ကစားကစားဖုရား ကစားကစားဖုရား</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

67. These forms are used in apposition with a substantive, for emphasis; e.g., အကြာပင်ကြည့်ဖို့, Saw Wa himself will go, အကြာပင်ကြည့်ဖို့, I will do it myself.

68. The same thing may be indicated by affixing the forms ဖုရား, ဖုရားသုံး, etc. to the verb; e.g., ကစားကစားဖုရား, 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., ဝါးဒါဝါ, my own book.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

70. Reflexive forms of the personal pronouns are formed by affixing to the possessive case the word ဝါ, self. They are as follows—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st pers.</td>
<td>ဝါဝါ</td>
<td>ဝါဝါ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>ကြပြ</td>
<td>ကြပြ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>သြပြ</td>
<td>သြပြ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

71. These forms are used as the objects of verbs, when the person affected by the action is the same as the person performing it; e. g., စောင်စောင်းသြပြောထား, Saw Wa beats 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 ဝါ 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., စောင်စောင်းသြပြောထား. Saw Wa says that he (Saw Wa) will come.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

73. The possessive pronouns mine, thine, etc., are formed by affixing ၎င် or ၎င်း to the possessive forms of the personal pronouns; e. g., အားနွေးောင်း, အားနွေးောင်းောင်း, That is mine.

74. ၎င် and ၎င်း may be similarly used with nouns in the possessive case; e. g., ဝါးဒါဝါးောင်း, or ဝါးဒါဝါးောင်းောင်း, That is Saw Wa's.
DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

75. Properly speaking, the Karen language has no demonstrative pronouns. Their place is supplied, however, by combining the demonstrative adjectives, သာ, this, and သည်, that, with the personal pronoun of the third person: သမ္မတ, this, သည်, that.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

76. The interrogative adjectives described in §§101, 102 are used also as interrogative pronouns; e. g., သည်။ What are you doing? သည်။ Whom do you see? သည်။ Which of the two books do you wish?

77. The interrogative possessive pronoun, whose, is formed by affixing ငါ or ငါဝါ to the interrogative pronoun ငါ; e. g., ငါဝါသည်, Whose is this book?

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

78. ငါ is used as the subject of impersonal verbs; e. g., ငါဖော်, It rains.

79. ငါ or ငါဝါ 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., ငါ (or ငါဝါ) ဖော်, Somebody beat him.

80. ငါ is often used indefinitely in the objective case, to express people in general.

81. ငါ is used as an indefinite object to verbs which require one, but to which no definite object can be assigned; e. g., ငါမောင်၊ I see, literally, I see things.

82. ငါဝါ and ငါဝါ၀င် are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns: e. g., ငါဝါ၀င်ဖော်, A certain person came.
83. Many of the indefinite adjectives described under § 99 are also used as indefinite pronouns; e. g., რქთაშიფზარ იქნება თქვენმა, If you see any ducks, buy me one.

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 ძი, expressive of goodness, means, not good, but to be good. So with many roots expressive of quantity; e. g., ზჰ 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 ღინოშით, a man that is good. But it is commonly expressed in an abbreviated form, ღინო, the relative conjunction, არის being omitted. It is sometimes still further abbreviated by omitting the pronoun სუ, when it would stand simply ღინო.

ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

86. Adjectives of quantity in mass are largely expressed by abbreviated relative clauses, like adjectives of quality; e. g., ზაშშით, a great house.

87. Some adjectives expressive of magnitude are formed by prefixing the particle ძი to verbal roots. Such adjectives immediately follow the nouns which they modify; e. g., ძჰშით, a great house.
NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

88. The following table shows the cardinal numerals.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>၁</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ရ</td>
<td>ရ</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>၃</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>တိ</td>
<td>တိ</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>တတ</td>
<td>တတ</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>တန</td>
<td>တန</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>တ၀</td>
<td>တ၀</td>
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<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>တ၀</td>
<td>တ၀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>တ၀၀</td>
<td>တ၀၀</td>
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<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀</td>
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<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀</td>
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<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀၀</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀၀</td>
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<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀၀၀</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀၀၀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀၀၀၀</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀၀၀၀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀၀၀၀၀</td>
<td>တ၀၀၀၀၀၀၀၀</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E.g., 13,297,652 would be written တိ၀၀၂၉၇၆၅၂ and read တိ၀၀၂၉၇၆၅၂ and read တိ၀၀၂၉၇၆၅၂.

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., ကြီးမား, two men. ကြီး is a numeral affix used in speaking of rational beings. ကြပ်ရော့, four dogs. ကြပ် 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>စေ</td>
<td>applied to things in bundles; e. g., ကြက် စေ, a book.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စေ</td>
<td>applied to things conceived of as existing in a successive series; e. g., လောင်စာ စေ, two blankets.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စေ</td>
<td>applied to things conceived of as existing in thin laminae; e. g., စိုက် စေ, two sheets of paper.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စေ</td>
<td>applied to companies of persons or animals; e. g., ကျွန်း စေ, a church.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စေ</td>
<td>applied to plots of ground; e. g., မိုး စေ, a field.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စေ</td>
<td>applied to logs, felled trees etc.; e. g., စေ, a log of wood.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to traps and snares; e. g., စေ, a trap.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to things conceived as proceeding from one head; e. g., ဝါ စ, a bamboo tree.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to sides of things; e. g., ကြက် စ, two hands.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to rational beings; e. g., ကျွန်း စ, two angels.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စေ</td>
<td>three men.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to vehicles; e. g., စေ, two carts.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to the eyes, and to large seeds; e. g., လေး စေ, two jack-fruit seeds.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to things occurring at intervals; e. g., စေ, a chapter of the Bible.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to trees; e. g., စေ, three mango trees.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to words or sentences; e. g., စေ, a word, a saying.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to trees, posts, etc.; e. g., စေ, three teak posts.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>စ</td>
<td>applied to bird's nests, e. g., စေ, two bird's nests.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ADJECTIVES.

6, applied to quadrupeds; e. g., ิติ, two horses.

7, applied to bamboos and small trees; e. g., ิติ, one bamboo.

8, applied to leaves of the palm and plantain families; e. g., ิติ, a plantain leaf.

9, applied to places; e. g., ิติ, a place.

0 or 6, applied to flowers; e. g., ิติ, two roses.

1, applied to large bodies of men and animals; e. g., ิติ, two flocks of sheep.

2, applied to felled trees; e. g., ิติ, a teak log.

3, applied to things conceived of as spherical; e. g., ิติ, two mangoes.

4, applied to openings; e. g., ิติ, two doors.

5, applied to things conceived of as flat; e. g., ิติ, a fowl.

6, applied to things conceived of as cylindrical; e. g., ิติ, three snakes.

7, applied to blows, words and sentences; e. g., ิติ, a word or two.

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

9, applied to songs and poems; e. g., ิติ, two songs.

0 applied to places; e. g., ิติ, a field.

91. There are a number of words denoting portions, quantities or collections, which are used in a similar manner to the numeral auxiliaries; e. g., ิติ, a drink of water, ิติ, two bunches of rattans, ิติ, 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., រាជ្វាក់, a kingdom; សង្គ្រោះ, or ដើម្បី, a country.

93. Sometimes there is a choice of numeral affixes for the same noun; e.g., គ្មៈ, or គ្មៈ, an eye.

94. Numerals are sometimes prefixed to the nouns which they modify; e.g., ផ្សំព្រ័ន្ធដ៏, from house to house, ២៣ថ្ងៃ, two or three days.

95. The numeral affixes regularly follow the numerals with which they stand. But when the numeral is ten or a multiple of ten, the affix precedes the numeral, and is itself preceded by the particle ន; e.g., ១២៣៤៥៦៧៨៩, twenty cattle.

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

៣១, first (man); ៣២, means beginning.
៣៣, first (thing).
៣៥, second (man)
៣៦, third (thing).
៣៧, fourth (quadruped).

97. The ordinal adjectives ៣១, first, and ៣៧, last are exceptional in their formation. See §112.

98. Multiplicatives are formed by affixing ៣ to the cardinal numerals; e.g., ៣៥, 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 រាជ្វាក់, many, ៣១, few, and ៣២, several; e.g., រាជ្វាក់, many men; ៣១, few words.
(2) The numeral oo, *one*, with an appropriate numeral affix, often has the sense of the English indefinite article; e. g., योः, a house.

(3) The numeral oo, *one*, with a reduplicated numeral affix is used in referring indefinitely to one person or thing; e. g., योःसह, some man, योःसह, some elephant.

(4) The indefinite adjective of quantity, योः, *some*, is formed from the numeral oo by means of the particle सिः.

(5) The reduplicated form योःसिः, is used in referring indefinitely to more than one person or thing; योःसिः, some men, योःसिः, some books.

(6) In a similar way are formed योःसिः, a little, योःसिः and योःसिः, a great deal.

(7) Universality is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between oo and सिः: e. g., योःसिःतोः, every man.

(8) The same idea is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between सिः and 8: e. g., सिःसिःतोः, every bird.

(9) Completeness is expressed by placing a numeral affix between 8 and योः: e. g., योःसिःसिःतोः, the whole earth.

(10) A complete number may be expressed by affixing सिः, सिः or योः to any one of the ordinal numerals; e. g., योःसिः, सिःसिः, योःसिः, all three (men).

(11) Singularity is expressed by placing the numeral oo with a suitable affix between 8 and योः: e. g., योःसिः, only one (man).

(12) Identity is expressed by placing the numeral affix between oo and 8; e. g., योःसिःसिः, the same house.

(13) Utter non-existence of a thing is expressed by affixing a numeral auxiliary to सिः: e. g., सिःसिःसिःसिःसिः, There is not a single book
100. Certain other indefinite adjectives of quantity are formed independently of the numeral system. Such are—

ALL, ALL, all, which follows its noun; e. g., հանդիսանալ, all men.

EVERY, every, which generally precedes its noun. The noun may be followed by the number one, and this may in turn be followed by ու, ու, all, which follows its noun; e. g., երկու, երկու, երկու, every man.

WHOEVER, whoever, or whatever, which precedes its noun; e. g., երբեմն, whoever man.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

101. The common interrogative adjectives are ու, referring to persons, and ու, referring to things; e. g., ու, ու, ու, With what teacher did you come? ու, ու, ավանդ, What fruit do you wish to eat? ու, ու, and ու are often followed by ու and ու respectively; e. g., ու, ու, ու.

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

103. Interrogative adjectives of quantity are made by prefixing ու to indefinite adjectives of quantity; e. g., ու, հատոր, how great, ու, ու, ու, ու, ու, How much money have you? These are used both in direct and indirect discourse. In indirect discourse they sometimes suffer reduplication; e. g., ու, ու, ու, ու, ու, ու, I do not know how much money I have.

104. Interrogative adjectives of number may be formed by prefixing ու or ու to the numeral affix; e. g., ու, ու, ու, ու, ու, How many of you will go? These also may be used in indirect discourse.
ADJECTIVES.

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

105 The Karen language has two definite demonstrative adjectives, သာ, ယေ, this, and သာ, ယေ, that. They may modify any substantive element, be it noun, pronoun, phrase or clause.

106 သာ, and occasionally ယေ, is used to mark the end of a noun clause, or of a series of adjectival modifiers of a noun; e.g., ယေဝါယေရွင်းဝါးသာဘွားကျွန်တော်, The good old man who lives in Rangoon.

107 သာ is often used with the force of a definite article.

108 သာ 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 အေ e.g., ကေယေဝါယေရွင်းဝါး, a good man.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

110. The comparative degree is expressed by affixing ဗေ to the adjective; e.g., ကေ, good, ကော ဗေ, better.

111. Where the object of comparison is expressed, the adjective is followed by ဗေ instead of ဗေ; e.g., ကော ဗေ ကော, better than I. In such cases, the object of comparison is generally followed by ဗေ; e.g., ကော ဗေ ကော, better than I.

112. The superlative degree is formed by affixing ဗေ to the adjective; e.g., ကော ဗေ ကော or ကော, best.
VERBS.

113. Karen verbs express actions, states or qualities: e. g., ṣav, to go, ṣap, to be, ṣav, 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 ṣav, to go, is often used with the object ooS.

115. In Karen, a verb which can take an object generally does take one. When no definite object can be assigned, the indefinite object oo is frequently used; e. g., ṣapoo, 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 ṣapaa, I see you, ṣap 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 sentences exhibit the passive of the verb ṣap, to see—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ṣapaa</td>
<td>I am seen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṣapaa</td>
<td>You are seen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṣapaa</td>
<td>Saw Wa is seen.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

120. In the last sentence, ṣav is the subject, ṣap, encountered, the predicate, ṣap, the seeing, the object of ṣap, and ṣav the object of the verbal noun ṣapa.
121. Occasionally, in the above mentioned form of the passive voice, the reflexive pronouns ooos, ooos, ooos, 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 o or o and followed by a reflexive pronoun; e.g., ooos, ooos, ooos, etc., I am seen, I permit myself to be seen. ooos, 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., ooos, ooos, 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 oo, and a reflexive pronoun; e.g., ooos, ooos, 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., oo, Run.

128. When a verb is in the imperative mood the sentence (if expressing a command) commonly ends with the particle oo; e.g., oo, Run, oo, Come to me.

129. The particles oo and oo are sometimes affixed to the verb in an imperative sentence where the idea is that of entreating a superior; e.g., oo, Less us.
130. In giving permission, စွန်း or မိုးဗ္စီ sometimes takes the place of မိုးဗ္စီ; e. g., မိုးဗ္စီ, Go.

131. A sentence expressing a prohibition ends in မိုးဗ္စီ; e. g., မိုးဗ္စီ, Do not go. In such cases the verb may be preceded by ကြား and the negative particle ကြား; e. g., ကြားမိုးဗ္စီ, Do not go.

132. A prescriptive sentence is introduced by the particle စစ် and otherwise has the form of a sentence expressing command or prohibition; e. g., စစ်အဝေး, Let us go, စစ်မိုးဗ္စီ, 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., မိုးဗ္စီ 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 ကြား to the verb. This form is commonly used to express a future action; e. g., ကြားမိုးဗ္စီ, I shall go, I will go.

135. The idea of intention or desire is brought out more strongly by prefixing ဗား to ကြား; e. g., ဗားကြားမိုးဗ္စီ, Saw Wa desires to go, intends to go.

136. Completed action is indicated by affixing the particle စစ် to the verb; e. g., စစ်မိုးဗ္စီ, I have gone.

137. The same idea is more emphatically expressed by introducing စစ် before ကြား; e. g., စစ်ကြားမိုးဗ္စီ.

138. The Karens sometimes use both ကြား and စစ် with the same verb to express an intention to perform an action immediately; e. g., စစ်ကြားမိုးဗ္စီ, I will go at once.

139. To mark the completion of an action previous to a certain moment of past time, စစ် is affixed to the verb, and is often followed by ကြား; e. g., စစ်ကြားမိုးဗ္စီ.
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 ơ to the root and affixing ơơ or ơơơ; e. g., ơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơơơơơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơ=$_

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 ơ after it; e. g., ơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơƠơơơơơơơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơöğ

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., ơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơƠơơƠơơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơơƠơơƠơơơ_OK

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—
ơơ, prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g., ơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơơƠơơơơơơƠơơơơơơơơơơơơơquires

To dismiss, to send.

G 3
denotes a representing of the action as if done, often only in appearance; e. g., დაჭრა დაიგაგობა, to assume the appearance of death.

 prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g., ორება დაინფორმა, to inform.

 has a causative force; e. g., კურთხით, to kill.

 prefixed to verbs with the negative, indicates that the act is performed imperfectly, or in a slight degree; e. g., ტყეს რომ ენიჭა ე, I scarcely know.

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

 has also a causative force; e. g., რომ ტყი, to make one laugh.

 prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g., რომ ტყი, to raise up.

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

146. The following particles are affixed to the verb—

 has a sense of return, retaliation or opposition; e. g., ტყოვთ, to return.

 ამურე, or ამურება, has a concessive force; e. g., ფოთია ამურეთ ლურჯი, admitting it to be so, ამოწმება ლურჯი, admitting the truth of what you say.

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

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

 indicates that the act is performed by way of trial; e. g., არიზი, to try, არიზობა, to taste.


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

denotes that the action results in making secure; e. g., √yod, to tie.

vos denotes that several persons or things act together; e. g., √vos, to go together.

oda denotes that the act is done straightforward, literally or figuratively; e. g., √oda, to look off.

§ indicates that the action is performed from an elevation; e. g., √§, to look off (as from a height).

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

§ denotes that an act is done before some event takes place; e. g., √§, to see before.

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

oda denotes that the action results in arriving; e. g., √oda, to arrive.

oda shows that the action is hastened; e. g., √oda, Come along quickly.

§§ is affixed to a few words denoting separation; e. g., √§§, to fall off.

indicates self-originated action; e. g., √∂, He will go of his own accord. Occasionally it denotes certainty; e. g., √∂, It will be sure to happen so.

§ indicates an upward motion; e. g., √§, to go up.

∂§ indicates an upward motion, literal or figurative; e. g., √∂§, to ascend, √∂§, to increase. It often denotes incipient action; e. g., √∂§, to come into being.
k indicates independent action; e.g., տալիս, I will do it myself.

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

կ indicates that the action results in obtaining; e.g., հայտնում, to find.

կ indicates that the action results in observing; e.g., հայտնում, to remember.

կ, or կույտ, indicates that the action is done before some other event; e.g., կար, կար, to promise, to foretell.

կ indicates that the action reaches unto its object; e.g., անց, to go unto.

կ denotes that the act was done unintentionally, հատե, to utter an involuntary cry.

կ indicates that the action results in going through; e.g., հանդե, to go through.

կ indicates that the action results in an ascent; e.g., անց, to ascend.

կ indicates that the action passes over onto an object; e.g., անց, տալիս, I will tell him.

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

կ indicates that the act is performed by or for imitation; e.g., կարե, կարե, to teach, կարե, to learn.

կ indicates reciprocal action; e.g., կարե, կարե, Brothers should love one another.

կ indicates a downward motion, literal or figurative; e.g., կարե, to descend, կարե, to decrease.

կ denotes that several persons or things act in company; e.g., կարե, to go together.
VERBS.

Verbs indicate that the act is performed from a distance; e.g., to behold afar off.

Verb signifies that the action results in forsaking; e.g., to forsake.

Verbs indicate an incipient action; e.g., when he had just become king.

Verb denotes that the action is done carefully or stealthily; e.g., to watch closely.

DEPENDENT VERBS.

147. A verb depending on another follows it immediately, without undergoing any change of form; e.g., I will try to do it. This is the common construction for expressing suitability, necessity, etc.; e.g., He should come, I must go.

148. Where in English two verbs are connected by the conjunction and, in Karen the second verb may immediately follow the first, without a conjunction; e.g., I will go and seek it.

IDIOMS IN THE USE OF VERBS.

149. The causative verb and the permissive verb permit the dependent verb to be preceded by a subject; e.g., Let me go, 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., 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.

०, ability considered with reference to skill, also the generic expression of ability; e.g., \( \text{मेरीहार्दियों} \) बुझोंे, I went to school once, and I can read.

०, ability considered with reference to physical health, or inclination; e.g., \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे बुझोंे, My head aches, I cannot go to walk.

०, ability considered with reference to effectiveness of effort; e.g., \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, The carpenter has work, I cannot hire him.

०, ability considered with reference to leisure; e.g., \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, I must study now, I cannot go to walk.

०, ability considered with reference to accomplishing the end proposed; e.g., \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, This book is Taluwing, I cannot read it.

०, ability considered with reference to the sufficiency of the subject; e.g., \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, The work is too great, I cannot do it.

152. The ideas of suitability, agreeableness etc., are often expressed in a similar manner to that of potentiality; e.g., \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, Dare you ride a horse? \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, I do not like to ride an elephant, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, Had we not better go to worship? \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, Is it proper for me to buy a silk jacket?

153. The verb \( \text{मेरे} \), expressing desire, takes \( \text{मेरे} \) for its subject, and is followed by a verb denoting that act the performance of which is desired. This latter verb is followed by \( \text{मेरे} \), 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 \( \text{मेरे} \); e.g., \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, \( \text{मेरे} \) बुझोंे, I want
to see you, to see you, to see you. The teacher wishes to buy a book.

- 154. Possession is expressed by the verb ပါ, 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 သည်, e.g., ပါသည်ကစားစေတယ်, I have a book.

  (2) Or possessor and thing possessed may change places; e.g., ပါသည်ကစားစေတယ်, I have a book.

  (3) Or the thing possessed, modified by the possessive case of a noun or a pronoun denoting the possessor, may stand as the subject of the verb; e.g., ပါသည်ကစားစေတယ်, 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., လက်, swiftly, ကြယ်, strongly.

157. Adverbs so formed very commonly take the affix ကြိုး; e.g., ကြယ်ကြိုး, ကြယ်ကြိုး, ကြယ်ကြိုး.

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., စိုးစိုးရာရှင်, Saw Wa runs very fast, ရှင်ရှင်ရှင်, He runs not swiftly.

159. Some adverbs of manner are formed from verbal roots by means of the affixes ကြိုး, and ကြိုး; e.g., ကြိုး, ကြိုး, ကြိုး, silently, ကြိုး, still.

160. Occasionally adverbs of manner are formed by prefixing လို့ to an adjectival root; e.g., လို့, well.

161. Many adverbs of manner are irregular in their formation; e.g., ဟောဝော, openly, ဟောဝော, exactly.
162. Demonstrative adverbs of manner are formed by combining the preposition -dollar, like, with the demonstratives -dollar and -dollar, or with -dollar; e.g., -dollar, -dollar, -dollar, -dollar, -dollar, -dollar, -dollar; thus, -dollar, how, -dollar, somehow. See § 202.

**ADVERBS OF PLACE.**

163. Adverbs of place may be formed from the demonstrative adjectives -dollar and -dollar in combination with the prepositions -dollar, -dollar and -dollar. They are exhibited in the following table.

| -dollar, here, -dollar, there, -dollar, where, -dollar, here and there. |
| -dollar, here, -dollar, there, -dollar, where, whence, -dollar, here and there. |
| -dollar, hither, -dollar, thither, -dollar, whither, -dollar, hither and thither. |

164. The prepositions -dollar and -dollar form adverbs of place in combination with such roots as -dollar, front, -dollar, back, -dollar, above, -dollar, below, -dollar, and -dollar, beyond, and -dollar, side; e.g., -dollar, forward, -dollar, behind, -dollar, beyond.

**ADVERBS OF TIME.**

165. Certain adverbs denoting past time are formed by the prefix -dollar (or -dollar) in combination with roots denoting time, as follows—

| -dollar, -dollar, just now, |  |
| -dollar, to-day, |  |
| -dollar, this morning, |  |
| -dollar, last night. |  |
| -dollar, yesterday. |  |
| -dollar, the other day. |  |
| -dollar -dollar, -dollar -dollar, last time (in the immediate past). |  |
| -dollar -dollar, last time (in the more remote past). |  |
166. Adverbs expressing future time may be formed in two ways—

(1) By the prefix ่, as follows—

งว, งวี, now, denoting the immediate future, or the present.

งว collaborators, to day,
งวี collaborators, this evening,
งวี collaborators, to night,
งวี collaborators, to-morrow.

งวี, the day after to-morrow.
งวี collaborators, in the future.
งวี, next time.
งวี collaborators, next week.
งวี collaborators, next month.
งวี collaborators, next year.

(2) By the use of the prepositions ถว and ถว. Cf. §164. The most common of these are—

ถวี collaborators, afterwards.
ถวี, ถวี, in the future.
ถวี, henceforth.

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

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

ถวี, all day.
ถวี, all night.
Many adverbs of time are not formed in accord with any law; e. g., quickly, always.

The roots still, yet, and any more, are adverbial by virtue of their intrinsic signification. The following examples will illustrate their use: I think I shall still go several times, He has not yet come, I have no more money.

**NUMERAL ADVERBS.**

171. Adverbs denoting how many times are formed from the cardinal numerals, in combination with the affix  or  ; e. g., once, twice, thrice.

172.  and  are treated like numeral auxiliaries, and may enter into all the combinations of which numeral auxiliaries are capable; e. g., simultaneously, at once, sometimes, every time, as many as three times.

173. Adverbs denoting which time are formed like ordinal numerals; e. g., the first time, the second time.

174. The particles and  enter into certain irregular formations; e. g., then.

**ADVERBS OF DEGREE.**

175. Some adverbs of degree are formed like the adverbs of manner described in §§ 156 and 157; e. g., greatly, much.
176. The indefinite numeral adjectives described in § 99, (4), (6), (13), are often used with an adverbial force; e. g., ငြင်္ချင်းနိုင်သည်, I do not like it a bit.

177. The following adverbs are intensive: ကြိုး, ကြိုး, မြင့် (used with adjectives denoting disagreeable sensations), and စိုက် (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., စိတ်နှင့်စိတ်ကို, စိတ်နှင့်စိတ်ကို, moderately.

179. Other adverbs of degree are irregularly formed; e. g., များသော, not at all (with negatives), မျိုး, about, မိုး, too.

ADVERBS OF COMPARISON.

180. Equality is expressed by လေး, equally; e. g., လေးသောကြာနှင့်သောကြာမည်သည်, He understands Burmese and Karen equally, လေးသောကြာနှင့်သောကြာမည်သည်, He speaks Burmese equally with Karen.

181. Inequality is expressed by a combination of two contradictory roots expressive of quantity; e. g., ထောင်သောကြာမည်သည်, ထောင်သောကြာမည်သည်, A teacher should not judge his pupils unequally.

INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

182. Interrogative adverbs of time and place may be formed from the interrogative particle ကောင်း; e. g., ကောင်း, where, when, ကောင်း, where, whence, ကောင်း, whither.

183. These are reduplicated in indirect discourse; e. g., ကောင်းသောကြာမည်သည်, ကောင်းသောကြာမည်သည်, I can not tell whence he comes.

184. Interrogative adverbs of quantity are formed by prefixing အောက် to adjectives of quantity; e. g., အောက်, အောက်, how much.
185. These are also repeated in indirect discourse; e. g., ԿԱՐՆԵՐ, 185, ինչն է իրական որ եինք է.

186. The interrogative adverb of reason is ՏՈՒՐ, why? e. g., ՏՈՒՐ, որպես ՔԱՐԵՐ ՍՈՒՐ, Հան անջ ցուր ամենից այսպիսի, Why do not you go with me?

ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION.

187. Assent is expressed by զի or զով.

188. Negation is expressed by prefixing ե to the verb, and affixing ու; e. g., ԵՎեներ, He does not come.

189. A denial is expressed by a negative sentence; e. g., ՏԵՍԱՆ, ուշ, Has Saw Wa come? Սե—literally, Not come, ուհեր, Ու—literally, It is not.

ADVERBS OF PROBABILITY.

190. These are irregular in formation; e. g., ՈՒՐ, ուհեր, ուար, perhaps, ուար, certainly.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

191. The following are conjunctive adverbs of time—

քեր, when; e. g., ՔԵՐ։ԵՒԵՐ, եկեր, When I see him I will tell him.

քեր, before; e. g., ՔԵՐ։ԵԵՐ, եկեր, We will eat rice before we go.

քեր, քեր, while; e. g., ՔԵՐ։ԵԵՐ, եկեր, ՔԵՐ։ԵԵՐ, He fell sick while he was coming. Տե see also § 222.

192. Զֶ is used as a correlative conjunctive adverb; e. g., Զֶ։ԵԵՐ, եկեր, Զֶ։ԵԵՐ, The more I study, the more I wish to study.

ADVERBIAL COUPLETS.

193. Adverbial couplets are common; e. g., ԶԵՐ, in the beginning, ԶԵՐ, here and there, ԶԵՐ, 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., သုံးဆိုဒ် ကောင်းမှားသွား သည်, Saw Wa runs faster than his brother.

PREPOSITIONS.

195. The Karen language has seven prepositions, စာ, ဝါ, ဝါ, ဖြင့်, ကျွန်တော်, သို့မဟုတ်, ကိုင်း.

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

197. ဝါ 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. ဝါ 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. ဝါ 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—

- စာခ်ာစားသူ, front the Governor.
- ဝါခ်ငါးဝင်သာ, by or near Htu Wa.
- ဝါသားသားများ, at the king's feet.
- ဝါဝါ, by my side.
- ဝါဖျင်သား, in front of the house.
- ဝါဖျင်သား, behind the house.
- ဝါအောင်မြင်သာ, behind Tun Hla.
- ဝါဝါ, on the earth.
- ဝါဝါ, on me—literally, on my surface.
- ဝါဝါ, in the house.
- ဝါဝါ, on the table.
ADJECTIVES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>စွန်းကွက်</td>
<td>on his head.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ကျွန်းစွန်းလား</td>
<td>under the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ကျွန်းမ်း</td>
<td>among the houses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ကျွန်းတွဲပြော</td>
<td>between the houses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ကျွန်းမှာယ်စွာ</td>
<td>round about the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ကျွန်းမှာယ်စွာ</td>
<td>for my wife's sake, for my wife.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ကျွန်းမှာယ်စွာ</td>
<td>on account of this, because of this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ကျွန်းမှာယ်စွာ</td>
<td>about Burma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ကျွန်းမှာယ်စွာ</td>
<td>on the surface of the water.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

200. စ means in. It may govern the objective, or may be used with a secondary noun, like ဝက်.

201. ဝက်, throughout, and ဝက်, round about, govern the objective.

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

—and; e. g., The Lord God created both sun and moon.

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

—again.

—moreover.

—moreover.

—not only so.

—not only so.

ADVERSATIVE.

(at the beginning of a clause) but.

or else.

either—or.

either—or.

either—or.

either—or.

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

ILLATIVE.

and a few other phrases, take the place of the illative conjunction therefore.

then, sometimes have the force of illative conjunctions.

CAUSAL.

because.

because. This stands at the end of its clause;

because my money is scant.
HYPOTHETICAL.

209. ຂ່, when.

ຂ່, if.

ຂ່, if. In this sense ທ່ stands stands immediately after the subject. See § 223.

ຂ່, though, stands, in this sense, at the end of the clause it modifies.

ຂ່, ຂ່, though, stands at the end of its clause; e. g., ທ່ (or ທ່) ທ່, Although the price is high, I shall buy it.

ຂ່, nevertheless.

TELIC.

210. ທ່, that. See § 220.

zenie, in order that. See § 225, 226.

COMPARATIVE.

211. The preposition ຖ່, governing the secondary noun ຖ່, performs the function of a comparative conjunction. See §§ 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.
PARTICLES.

AFFIRMATIVE PARTICLES.

214. ॐ is used with simple affirmatives.

ॐ implies that the statement is a matter of course.

ॐ implies assent or concession.

ॐ, ॐ, or ॐ is generally used in reply to questions.

ॐ has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

215. ॐ (colloquially, ॐ) is used at the close of a negative sentence.

ॐ, ॐ imply that the statement is probably not true.

ॐ has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

216 ॐ is used after a direct question; e. g., ॐ, ॐ, Are you well?

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

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

ॐ—俸 are used in alternative questions, especially in indirect discourse; e. g., 俸俸俸俸俸, 俸俸俸俸俸, I do not know whether he comes from Bassein or Henzada.

俸 is equivalent to 俸.

IMPERATIVE PARTICLES.

217. ॐemarks a command, ॐ, a prohibition, ॐ, or ॐ, a permission or a somewhat urgent request.
PRECATIVE PARTICLES.

218. ง by, at the end of a declarative or imperative sentence, asks for consent. Hence it softens a command into a request. E. g., ง we will go home, shall we not? ง 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 ง and terminated by ง; e. g., ง I do not know that he will do it.

221. Adjective clauses are introduced by ง and terminated by ง; e. g., ง The book which the teacher wrote is on the table.

222. Some adverbial clauses are introduced by ง, ง, or ง, and terminated by a temporal particle, or by ง; e. g., ง When I see him I will tell him. ง My house is where Saw Wa's house is, ง While I was coming I saw nobody.

223. Conditional clauses are introduced by ง, which stands immediately after the subject, and are terminated by ง; e. g., ง 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 ง; e. g., ง If you can go, go by all means.
224. ै is occasionally used to introduce a concessive conditional clause ending in ॐः, or ॐः; e. g.,
ॐ जिनका धशकांगाः अभिप्रेताश्र, Even though it rains we shall have to go.

225. Clauses of purpose are introduced by संस, or संस, and when not standing at the end of the sentence are terminated by संस; e. g., अिहाडः अामांमा, I came to school that I might learn. अिहाडः अामांमा, In order that you may recover, you must take medicine.

226. Negative clauses of purpose take the form of a prohibitory clause preceded by संस, and terminated (when necessary) by संस; e. g., अिहाडः अामांमा, In order that you may not get wet, you must carry an umbrella.

227. Negative clauses of purpose are sometimes left without an introductory particle, and are terminated by अिहाडः; e. g., अिहाडः अामांमा, अिहाडः अामांमा, Eat it not neither touch it, lest ye die, अिहाडः अामांमा, I dare not cross the river lest my shoes get wet.

228. Clauses of comparison are introduced by संस and terminated by संस, e. g., अिहाडः अामांमा, अिहाडः अामांमा, As Saw Wa does, so does Tun Tha also. See § 202, 211.
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