A GRAMMAR
OF THE
SGAW KAREN

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in Burma.

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PREFACE.

This book has been called forth by the needs of the American Baptist Karen Mission in Burma. For many years there has been in print no book from which a beginner could learn the grammatical principles of the Karen language. Dr. Mason's *Anglo-Karen grammar* has long been out of print; and even when a copy would 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 work 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 ๋ appearing among both consonants and vowels.
THE CONSONANTS.
5. The consonants, with their names and powers, are as follows:

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

∞ has a sound intermediate between $k$ and $g$.
∂ is the aspirate of ∞. It is pronounced like $kh$ as heard in the phrase *brick house*, or in *Bokhara*.
∂ has no analogue in the European languages.
∂∞ is pronounced like *ch* in the German *bach*, or the Scottish *loch*.
∂ has a sound intermediate between *s* and *z*.
∂∞ is the aspirate of ∂. It has the sound of *ssh*, as heard in the phrase *hiss him*.
∂ is pronounced like *sh* in *shun*.
∂∞ is pronounced like *ñ* in *cañon*, or *ny* in *lanyard*.
∂∞ has a sound intermediate between *t* and *d*.
∂∞ is the aspirate of ∂∞. It is pronounced like *th* as heard in the phrase *hot house*.
∂ has a sound intermediate between *p* and *b*.
∂ is the aspirate of ∂. It is pronounced like *ph* as heard in the phrase *hap hazard*.
∂∞ is pronounced like *th* as heard in *thin*.
∂ as a consonant has no sound of its own; it is a mere stem to which vowel signs are attached.
∂ 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 œ, œ, œ and œ, 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 œ, will be found below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>œ</th>
<th>ḟ</th>
<th>œ</th>
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<tbody>
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</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 œ.

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 œ.
12. The vowel symbols alone, and in combination with \( \circ \) and \( \circ \) are shown below.

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<th>( a )</th>
<th>( \circ )</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>( - )</td>
<td>( \text{æ} )</td>
<td>( a )</td>
<td>( \circ )</td>
<td>( ba )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{短时间内} )</td>
<td>( \text{æ} )</td>
<td>( i )</td>
<td>( \circ )</td>
<td>( bi )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{短时间内} )</td>
<td>( \text{œ} )</td>
<td>( \text{ö} )</td>
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<td>( \text{短时间内} )</td>
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<td>( \text{Ü} )</td>
<td>( \circ )</td>
<td>( \text{bé} )</td>
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<td>( \text{短时间内} )</td>
<td>( \text{aw} )</td>
<td>( \text{Ü} )</td>
<td>( \circ )</td>
<td>( \text{baw} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. The subjoined table explains more definitely the powers of the vowels.

\( \text{æ} \), \( a \) in \textit{quota}.
\( \text{æ} \), \( a \) in \textit{father}.
\( \text{æ} \), \( i \) in \textit{machine}.
\( \text{æ} \), German \( \text{ö} \) in \textit{Göthe}, or \( u \) in \textit{Turkey}.
\( \text{æ} \), German \( \text{ü} \) in \textit{Glück}, French \( u \) in \textit{lune}.
\( \text{æ} \), \( u \) in \textit{rule}, \( oo \) in \textit{moon}.
\( \text{æ} \), approximately \( a \) in \textit{rate}.
\( \text{æ} \), French \( \text{è} \) in \textit{Molière}, or \( e \) in \textit{met}.
\( \text{æ} \), \( o \) in \textit{note}.
\( \text{æ} \), \( aw \) in \textit{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 ฎ(ตํ่) is pronounced with a heavy falling inflection.

A syllable marked with ฎ(ตํ่) is pronounced abruptly, at a low pitch.

A syllable marked with ฎ(ตํ่) is pronounced abruptly at an ordinary pitch.

A syllable marked with ฎ(ตํ่) is pronounced with a falling circumflex inflection.

A syllable marked with ฎ(ตํ่) is pronounced with a prolonged even tone.

16. When the above mentioned signs follow ใ, the ใ is omitted for the sake of brevity; e.g., instead of ฎ ฎ ฎ ฎ we write ฎ ฎ ฎ ฎ.

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 ၀ (pronounced ဗ) is sometimes used to represent the English j or soft g.

The Pwo Karen inflection ḗ (၆) is sometimes used to represent a final l in an English syllable. It is pronounced like ဗ.

**ARBITRARY CHARACTERS.**
18. ḗ is generally pronounced like ḗ, and ḗ like ḗ; but at Tavoy and Mergui they are sometimes pronounced like ဗ and ဗ respectively.

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

**FIGURES.**
20. The Numerals are as follows --

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</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: ဗုဒ္ဓေစားသောကြီး, Saw Wa builds a house. ဗုဒ္ဓေ, Saw Wa, subject; ဗုဒ္ဓေ, builds, predicate; ဗုဒ္ဓေ, house, object; ဗုဒ္ဓေ, 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. Sometimes, sometimes, adverbial modifier; old, adjective modifying the sentence; .quickly, demonstrative adjective modifying the sentence; quickly, adverb modifying 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 a big house, the appears as an adjective; in the house is big, appears as a verb; in the bigness of the house, 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., ဗီ ဗီဗီ, Burma, (ဗီ meaning country); ရန်ကုန်, Rangoon, (ရာ meaning city.) Names of men are preceded by the particle သာ; e.g., သင်္ကေတ္တာ, Saw Shwe Yaw. Names of women are preceded by the particle သာ; e.g., သင်္ကေတ္တာ, 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., မြောင်, a house, ဗီဗီ, a book, မြန်, gold, သာ, 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 REDENTIAL to the verbal root; e.g., from the root \( \text{vJR} \), \text{to go} \,\text{, is formed the noun} \( \text{w>vJR} \), \text{going, journey}.  
   (b) By simply using the verbal root as a noun, qualifying it by a demonstrative adjective; e.g., \( \text{vJRw>M.} \), \text{to go} \.  

(2) Nouns of agency are formed by prefixing \( \text{ySR} \), \text{person} \, to the verb, and at the same time affixing \( \text{zdzd} \); e.g., \( \text{ySRvJRw>zdySRvJRw>zdySRvJRw>zd} \), \text{a traveller}. Sometimes the affix \( \text{zd} \) is omitted.  

(3) Instrumental nouns are formed by prefixing \( \text{eD} \) to the verbal root; e.g., \( \text{0> 0> 0> 0>} \), \text{to paddle} \,\text{,  \( \text{eD.0> eD.0> eD.0> eD.0>} \), \text{a paddle}}.  

(4) Nouns denoting the place where an action is performed are formed by prefixing \( \text{vD> vD> vD> vD>} \), \text{place} \, to the verbal root; e.g., \( \text{rHrH rHrH} \), \text{to sleep} \,\text{,  \( \text{vD>rHvD>rHvD>rHvD>rH} \), \text{a bed}}.  

32. Nouns are formed from adjectival roots in the following ways:
(1) Abstract nouns of quality are formed by prefixing \( \text{w> w> w> w>} \) to the adjectival root; e.g., \( \text{*hR} \), \text{good} \,\text{,  \( \text{w>*hR w>*hR w>*hR w>*hR} \), \text{goodness}}.  

(2) Nouns denoting persons are formed by prefixing to the adjectival root the particle \( \text{yy} \), which is a contraction of \( \text{ySR ySR ySR ySR} \); e.g., \( \text{'d.} \), \text{great} \,\text{,  \( \text{y'd. y'd. y'd. y'd.} \), \text{a ruler}} \,\text{, literally a great man}}.  

33. Nouns are formed from other noun roots in the following ways
(1) Diminutives are formed by adding \( \text{zdzd} \), \text{young, little} \, to the noun root; e.g., \( \text{xGH.} \), \text{a dog} \,\text{,  \( \text{xGH.zdxGH.zdxGH.zdxGH.zd} \), \text{a little dog, a puppy}}.  

(2) Gentile nouns, and all nouns expressing residence, are formed by affixing \( \text{g} \) to the name of the place; e.g., \( \text{0} \), \text{city} \,\text{,  \( \text{0h>zd0h>zd0h>zd0h>zd} \), \text{a city}}.  

citizens. The particle ဗ is generally prefixed as well; e.g., မန္တလေး, Burma, မဟာမိတ်, Burmans.

(3) Two or more noun roots may be combined; e.g., မြစ်, river, မြဘ်စစ်, 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., မြေလူ, or မြေလာ, birds, ကြက်ကလေး, grace, ကြက်စာ, goodness, မိဘ, my country, ဖော်ခါး, your descendents, အာဇာနေ, 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., ကု, father, မု, mother, ကာ, husband, ဗီ, wife, မုတိုင်, man, မုတိုင်, woman.

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

39. The gender of such indeterminate nouns may be distinguished by the following affixes -- မုတိုင်, or ကု, masculine, applied to human beings. မုတိုင်, or ကု, feminine, applied to human beings. ကု, masculine, applied to animals.
feminine, applied to animals.
E.g., წჰჰჰ, child, წჰჰჰჰჰჰ, boy, წჰჰჰჰჰჰ, girl; წჰჰჰ, horse, წჰჰჰჰჰ, stallion, წჰჰჰ, mare.

NUMBER.
40. Karen nouns convey of themselves no idea of number; e.g., the noun წჰ 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 ჩ, one; e.g., წჰჰჰჰჰ, a house.

42. The plural may be denoted in the following ways --
(1) By the use of a numeral adjective; e.g., წჰჰჰჰ, two houses, წჰჰჰჰჰ, many houses.
(2) By any one of the following affixes -- წჰჰ, the usual affix; e.g., წჰჰჰჰ, houses.
წჰ, used with the vocative, or with pronouns; e.g., წჰჰჰჰ, brethren, წჰ, they.
წჰჰჰ, used principally with pronouns; e.g., წჰჰჰ, they.
წჰ, წჰჰ, and წჰჰ, used occasionally.

(3) The plural, when used to convey the idea of generality, is often expressed by a couplet; e.g., წჰჰჰჰ, houses or buildings in general.

(4) წჰჰ may be used at the end of a sentence which has a plural subject; e.g., წჰჰჰჰჰჰ, 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., Saw Wa builds a house, the subject, precedes the verb, and the object, follows it.

47. Karen nouns, like English nouns, are often governed by prepositions; e.g., I go to Rangoon. Here is governed by the preposition ကြွေး. 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 သို့; e.g., where the English says, I give Saw Wa a book, the Karen may say, သို့မှစ်သယ်ယူကြော, or သို့မှစ်သယ်ယူသင်ကြောင်း.

49. In Karen, verbal nouns as well as verbs may take objects; e.g., love (for) you.
50. A noun in the possessive construction is joined to the name of the thing possessed by the particle ᵃ; e.g., တွဲကြည်ခဲ့ကြောင်း, *Saw Wa's house*.

51. A noun in the vocative case is followed by the particle ᵃ; e.g., တွဲကြည်ခဲ့ကြောင်း, *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 ḏ or ᵃ; e.g., သူကြည်ခဲ့ကြောင်း, တွဲကြည်ခဲ့ကြောင်း, *That house, Saw Wa built it*. Here ᵃ is in the absolute construction, followed by ᵃ, *that*. Occasionally the particle ᵃ takes the place of the particle ḏ or ᵃ. More commonly it follows one of them; e.g., သူကြည်ခဲ့ကြောင်း, တွဲကြည်ခဲ့ကြောင်း.

**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 ᶜ, the pronouns used being personal pronouns of the third person.
PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

55. In Karen, as in English, the personal pronouns are declined, the case 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></th>
<th>Singular.</th>
<th>Plural.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Person.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Ⴀ, Ⴀ</td>
<td>Ⴀ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>Ⴀ, Ⴀ</td>
<td>Ⴀ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Ⴀ, Ⴀ</td>
<td>Ⴀ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Second Person.** |         |         |
| Nom.               | Ⴀ        | Ⴀ      |
| Poss.              | Ⴀ        | Ⴀ      |
| Obj.               | Ⴀ        | Ⴀ      |

| **Third Person.** |         |         |
| Nom.              | Ⴀ        | Ⴀ      |
| Poss.             | Ⴀ        | Ⴀ      |
| Obj.              | Ⴀ        | Ⴀ      |

56. The form Ⴀ 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 Ⴀ, Ⴀ, Ⴀ, or occasionally Ⴀ, and in the plural generally as Ⴀ, Ⴀ, Ⴀ.

57. After the verb Ⴀ, to be, the objective forms of the personal pronouns are used instead of the nominative forms; e.g., Ⴀ, Ⴀ, Ⴀ, (not Ⴀ, Ⴀ, Ⴀ), *It is I*.

58. Besides the regular pronouns, the Karen possesses a pronominal affix, Ⴀ. 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 \( \theta \) follows a verb it is never an object, although it often looks like one, but always refers to the subject; e.g., ែឃុំអាចត្រូវបានអាន់, ពួកគេ។, \textit{The book which the teacher wrote, have you seen it?} Here \( \theta \) refers to the subject, កំជើង, and not to the object, ងូល. In this construction, ក្នុង is often used like \( \theta \).

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 ឃួ and ក្នុង, the word ក្នុង, self, and the demonstrative adjectives, ឈ្នះ, this, and ឈ្នះ, 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 \textit{Karen Vernacular Grammar}, pp.34-39. The more common forms are noted below.

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

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

61. In the plural forms the plural affix រុ may be substituted for the particle ក្នុង; e.g., របីរុ may be substituted for របីរុ. To any form so arising the plural affix រុ may be added, giving such form as អានឆ្នាំងរបីរុ.
62. The absolute forms of the pronoun (like the absolute forms of the noun) are generally followed by one of the demonstrative adjectives သူ and သူ့, and sometimes by the particle သူ; e.g., သူ့ကိုခေါ်ဆောင်းခြင်း.

63. In the absolute forms, သူ is often omitted; e.g., သို့မှသို့, *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., သို့မှသို့. *As for you, you will have to go.*

65. The use of the absolute form is illustrated in the following sentences: သို့မှသို့, *As for me, I cannot go,* သို့မှသို့, *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 ယူး or ယူးဖြစ် *self,* and the particles သူ့. They are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Singular.</th>
<th>Plural.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st pers.</td>
<td>သင်င်သူ့</td>
<td>သင်င်သူ့</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>သင်ဦးသူ့</td>
<td>သင်ဦးသူ့</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>သူ့</td>
<td>သူ့</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Singular.</th>
<th>Plural.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st pers.</td>
<td>သင်င်သူ့</td>
<td>သင်င်သူ့</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>သင်ဦးသူ့</td>
<td>သင်ဦးသူ့</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>သူ့</td>
<td>သူ့</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Singular.</th>
<th>Plural.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st pers.</td>
<td>သင်င်သူ့</td>
<td>သင်င်သူ့</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>သင်ဦးသူ့</td>
<td>သင်ဦးသူ့</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>သူ့</td>
<td>သူ့</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
67. These forms are used in apposition with a substantive, for emphasis; e.g., သင်ကြားသည်သည်, *Saw Wa himself will go*, သင်ကြားသည်သည်, *I will do it myself*.

68. The same thing may be indicated by affixing the forms ကြည်, ကြည်, etc. to the verb; e.g., ကြည်သည်ကြည်, *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., အမေရိက်ကြည်, *my own book*.

**REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.**

70. Reflexive forms of the personal pronouns are formed by affixing to the possessive case the word ကြည်, *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>ကြည်</td>
<td>ကြည်</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>ကြည်</td>
<td>ကြည်</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>ကြည်</td>
<td>ကြည်</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., ကြည်သည်သည်, *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 ကြည် 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., သင်ကြားသည်ဆိုသင် Saw Wa says that he (Saw Wa) will come.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.
73. The possessive pronouns mine, thine, etc. are formed by affixing ဗ် or ဗ် to the possessive forms of the personal pronouns; e.g., အဗ်ကားသင်ကြားသည်, အဗ်ကားသင်ကြားသည်, That is mine.

74. ဗ် and ဗ် may be similarly used with nouns in the possessive case; e.g., အဗ်ကားသင်ကြားသည်, or အဗ်ကားသင်ကြားသည်, 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, ဗ်, this, and ဗ်, that, with the personal pronoun of the third person; အဗ်, this, အဗ်, that.

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

77. The interrogative possessive pronoun, whose, is formed by affixing ဗ် or ဗ် to the interrogative pronoun ဗ်; e.g., ဗ်ကားသင်ကြားသည်, Whose is this book?
INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

78. อง is used as the subject of impersonal verbs; e.g.,
องนี้ฝน, *It rains.*

79. อง or อง 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., อง (or อง) ใครจะทำ, *Somebody beat him.*

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

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

82. อง and อง are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns; e.g.,
องต้องมา, *A certain person came.*

83. Many of the indefinite adjectives described under § 99 are
also used as indefinite pronouns; e.g., องค์สะพันมา ฉันให้คุณ การ
องค์จะอยู่. *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 อง, expressive of goodness, means, not
*good,* but *to be good.* So with many roots expressive of quantity;
e.g., อง 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 यशस्वेः, a man that is good. But it is commonly expressed in an abbreviated form, यस्तः, the relative conjunction, तत्, being omitted. It is sometimes still further abbreviated by omitting the pronoun तृत्य, when it would stand simply यस्तः.

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

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

88. The following table shows the cardinal numerals.

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>₁</td>
<td>၁</td>
<td>၁</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>₂</td>
<td>၂</td>
<td>၂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>₃</td>
<td>၃</td>
<td>၃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>₄</td>
<td>၄</td>
<td>၄</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>₅</td>
<td>၅</td>
<td>၅</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>₆</td>
<td>၆</td>
<td>၆</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>₇</td>
<td>၇</td>
<td>၇</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>₈</td>
<td>၈</td>
<td>၈</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>₉</td>
<td>၉</td>
<td>၉</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>₁₀</td>
<td>၁၀</td>
<td>၁၀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>₁₁</td>
<td>၁၁</td>
<td>၁၁</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>十九</td>
<td>၁၉</td>
<td>၁၉</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>₂₀</td>
<td>၂၀</td>
<td>၂၀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>九十</td>
<td>၉၀</td>
<td>၉၀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>₁₀₀</td>
<td>ဗ</td>
<td>၁၀၀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>二百</td>
<td>二百</td>
<td>二百</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>一千</td>
<td>၁၀၀၀</td>
<td>၁၀၀၀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>十万</td>
<td>十万</td>
<td>十万</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>千万</td>
<td>千万</td>
<td>千万</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>一千万</td>
<td>一千万</td>
<td>一千万</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>一亿</td>
<td>一亿</td>
<td>一亿</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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., နံပါတ်, *two men*.

*ŋ* is a numeral affix used in speaking of rational beings. နံပါတ်, *four dogs*. *ʃ* 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>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to things in bundles; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>a book</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to things conceived of as existing in a successive series; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>two blankets</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to things conceived of as existing in thin laminae; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>two sheets of paper</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to companies of persons or animals; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>a church</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to plots of ground; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>a field</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to logs, felled trees etc.; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>a log of wood</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to traps and snares; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>a trap</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to things conceived as proceeding from one head; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>a bamboo tree</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ဗိ</em></td>
<td>applied to sides of things; e.g., နာယူးလူး, <em>two hands</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
two angels. three men.
two carts.
two jack-fruit seeds.
a chapter of the Bible.
three mango trees.
a word, a saying.
three teak posts.
two bird's nests.
two horses.
one bamboo.
a plantain leaf.
a place.
two roses.
applied to large bodies of men and animals; e.g., दो गो, two flocks of sheep.

applied to felled trees; e.g., जड लकड, a teak log.

applied to things conceived of as spherical; e.g., दो आंवलघने, two mangoes.

applied to openings; e.g., दो द्वार, two doors.

applied to things conceived of as flat; e.g., बैल ताल, a fowl.

applied to things conceived of as cylindrical; e.g., तीन जबार, three snakes.

applied to blows, words and sentences; e.g., एक शब्द या दो शब्द, a word or two.

applied to things referred to in an indefinite manner; e.g., दो या तीन गेम, two or three things.

applied to songs and poems; e.g., दो गीत, two songs.

applied to places; e.g., दो इलाम, 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., एक रिन्न, a drink of water, दो जमां, two bunches of rattans, एक टीली, 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., ဗိုလျီးဗိုလျီး, a kingdom. စီးဗိုလျီး, or စီးဗိုလျီး, a country.

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

94. Numerals are sometimes prefixed to the nouns which they modify; e.g., စစ်သင်းစစ်သင်း, from house to house, လိႈင်လိႈင်, 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 တေ; e.g., သရေကျင်သရေကျင်, twenty cattle.

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

ကြွပြောင်း, first (man); ကြွပြောင်း: means beginning.
ကြွပြောင်း, first (thing).
အတွဲကြွ, second (man)
အတွဲကြွ, third (thing)
ဆောင်းဗိုလျီး, fourth (quadruped)

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

98. Multiplicatives are formed by affixing ၊ to the cardinal numerals; e.g., ၊, two fold.

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 many, few, and several; e.g., many men, few words.

(2) The numeral one, with an appropriate numeral affix, often has the sense of the English indefinite article; e.g., a house.

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

(4) The indefinite adjective of quantity, some, is formed from the numeral one by means of the particle.

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

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

(7) Universality is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between and; e.g., every man.

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

(9) Completeness is expressed by placing a numeral affix between and; e.g., the whole earth.
(10) A complete number may be expressed by affixing მო და მო to any one of the ordinal numerals; e.g., ერთმანეთი, ოთხმა, ათასი, ყოველი, all three (men).

(11) Singularity is expressed by placing the numeral ი with a suitable affix between ი and ზ; e.g., ერთი, only one (man).

(12) Identity is expressed by placing the numeral affix between ი and ზ; e.g., ერთის, the same house.

(13) Utter non-existence of a thing is expressed by affixing a numeral auxiliary ჰუ; e.g., ორმო ჰუ, There is not a single book.

100. Certain other indefinite adjectives of quantity are formed independently of the numeral system. Such are --

ერთ, ყველა, all, which follows its noun; e.g., ყველა, all men.

ყოველი, every, which generally precedes its noun. The noun may be followed by the number one, and this may in turn be followed by ერთი; e.g., ყოველი, ყოველი ერთი, ყოველი ერთი ყოველი, every man.

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

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

101. The common interrogative adjectives are რომელი, referring to persons, and რომელი, referring to things; e.g., რომელი მოუწოდებს, With what teacher did you come? რომელი მოუწოდებს.
What fruit do you wish to eat? များနား မှုကို ဖော်ပြထားပါသည်။

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

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

104. Interrogative adjectives of number may be formed by prefixing တစ် or တစ် to the numeral affix; e.g., တစ်တွက်စျေးငါးသော, 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, သော, this, and သော, that. They may modify any substantive element, be it noun, pronoun, phrase or clause.

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

107. သော is often used with the force of a definite article.
108. အောက်ကြည့်သည် 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 ḍ e.g., တွဲမြန်ဟော, *a good man*.

**COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.**
110. The comparative degree is expressed by affixing ṭ h to the adjective; e.g., ḍ, *good*, ḍကြာဟော, *better*.

111. Where the object of comparison is expressed, the adjective is followed by ḍ instead of ṭ h; e.g., ḍကြာဟော, *better than I*. In such cases, the object of comparison is generally followed by ḍ h; e.g., ḍကြာဟော, *better than I*.

112. The superlative degree is formed by affixing ḍ h or ṭ ḍ to the adjective; e.g., ḍ, ḍကြာဟော or ṭ ḍ, *best*.

**VERBS.**
113. Karen verbs express actions, states or qualities; e.g., ḍ, *to go*, ḍကြာဟော, *to be*, ḍ, *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 ḍ, *to go*, is often used with the object ḍ. 
115. In Karen, a verb which can take an object generally does take one. When no definite object can be assigned, the indefinite object ဝ is frequently used; e.g., ဝ, 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 ဝ၀င် ဝ၀င်, I see you, ဝ 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 ဝ, to see --

| ဝ၀င်မှာ ဝ၀င်တာ, | I am seen. |
| ဝ၀င်မှာ ဝ၀င်တာ, | You are seen. |
| ဝ၀င်မှာ ဝ၀င်တာ, | Saw Wa is seen. |

120. In the last sentence, ဝ၀င် is the subject, ဝ၀င်, encountered, the predicate, ဝ၀င်, the seeing, the object of ဝ၀င်, and ဝ၀င် the object of the verbal noun ဝ၀င်.
121. Occasionally, in the above mentioned form of the passive voice, the reflexive pronouns မြို့, ထောင်, စိတ်, 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 မြို့ or စိတ် and followed by a reflexive pronoun; e.g., မြို့ကြည့်, *I am seen, I permit myself to be seen*. စိတ်ကြည့်, *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., စိတ်ကြည့်, *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 ကြည့်, and a reflexive pronoun; e.g., စိတ်ကြည့်, *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., ကြည့်, *Run*.

129. The particles ཉི and ཉེ are sometimes affixed to the verb in an imperative sentence where the idea is that of entreating a superior; e.g., ལྷུན་གྱི་ཤེས་རིགས།, *Bless us.*

130. In giving permission, ཉི or ཉེ sometimes takes the place of དཔལ།; e.g., དངོས།, *Go.*

131. A sentence expressing a prohibition ends in དཔལ།; e.g., དཔལ། དཔལ།, *Do not go.* In such cases the verb may be preceded by དོན་ and the negative particle དཀྱི།; e.g., དཀྱི། དཔལ། དཔལ།, *Do not go.*

132. A precative sentence is introduced by the particle དཀྱི། and otherwise has the form of a sentence expressing command or prohibition; e.g., དཀྱི། དཀྱི། དཀྱི། དཀྱི།, *Let us go,* དཀྱི། དཀྱི། དཀྱི། དཀྱི།, *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., བེལ་ 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 དཀྱི། to the verb. This form is commonly used to express a future action; e.g., དཀྱི། བེལ།, *I shall go,* *I will go.*

135. The idea of intention or desire is brought out more strongly by prefixing ཉི to དཀྱི།; e.g., ཉིའོག་ཤེས་རིགས།, *Saw Wa desires to go,* *intends to go.*
136. Completed action is indicated by affixing the particle ฮ to the verb; e.g., ฮมา, I have gone.

137. The same idea is more emphatically expressed by introducing ฮ before ฮ; e.g., ฮมา.

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

139. To mark the completion of an action previous to a certain moment of past time, ฮ is affixed to the verb, and is often followed by ฮ; e.g., ฮมาแล้วมา, 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 ฮ to the root and affixing ฮ or ฮ; e.g., ฮจะมาแล้วมา, If you had not come I should have gone by this time.

PERSON AND NUMBER.
141. The person and number of the verb are to be inferred from those of the subject; but a verb in the third person sometimes takes ฮ after it; e.g., ฮมา, 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., ပြယာောင်သွ, to believe, ဖျားခမ်းဆေး, to grow up, ကြွေးထိုးခြင်း, to decrease, စိုးရိမ်ချေ, to direct, သာသနာ, 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 --

စီ, prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e.g., စခေါ, to stir up.

ဒေါ has a permissive or causative force; e.g., ဒေါ, to dismiss, to send.

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

စီ, prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e.g., စီစီစီစီ, to inform.

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

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

စီ indicates that the subject falls into the state indicated by the verb; e.g., စီစီ, to become tired.
has also a causative force; e.g., "make laugh."  

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

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

146. The following particles are affixed to the verb --  

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

, or "admitting it to be so," admitting the truth of what you say.  

indicates that the same action has been performed before; e.g., "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., "come back," "believe."  

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

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

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


Ckm Ckm Ckm Ckm denotes that several persons or things act together; e.g., თან ამჟღავნა, *to go together.*

Ckm Ckm Ckm Ckm denotes that the act is done straight forward, literally or figuratively; e.g., სვალგართობით, *to look off.*

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

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

Ckm Ckm Ckm Ckm denotes that an act is done before some event takes place; e.g., გაიხსენებით, *to see before.*

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

Ckm Ckm Ckm Ckm denotes that the action results in arriving; e.g., ჩავიტობით, *to arrive.*

Ckm Ckm Ckm Ckm shows that the action is hastened; e.g., მოულენიებით, *Come along quickly.*

Ckm Ckm Ckm Ckm is affixed to a few words denoting separation; e.g., გაყოფით, *to fall off.*

Ckm Ckm Ckm Ckm indicates self-originated action; e.g., თავისუფლად, *He will go of his own accord.* Occasionally it denotes certainty; e.g., თანამედროვედ, *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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

indicates that the action results in an ascent; e.g.,  to ascend.
indicates that the action passes over onto an object; e.g., 
I will tell him.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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., მაგალითი, I will try to do it. This is the common construction for expressing suitability, necessity, etc.; e.g., ამგვარად, He should come, არავისაც, 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., მაგალითი, I will go and seek it.

IDIOMS IN THE USE OF VERBS.
149. The causative verb ა and the permissive verb ჰ permit the dependent verb to be preceded by a subject; e.g., 伴侣, Let me go, ამგვარად, 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., მაგალითი, 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.

ა, ability considered with reference to skill, also the generic expression of ability; e.g., მაგალითი, I went to school once, and I can read.
ability considered with reference to physical health, or inclination; e.g., My head aches, I cannot go to walk.

ability considered with reference to effectiveness of effort; e.g., The carpenter has work, I cannot hire him.

ability considered with reference to leisure; e.g., I must study now, I cannot go to walk.

ability considered with reference to accomplishing the end proposed; e.g., This book is Talaing, I cannot read it.

ability considered with reference to the sufficiency of the subject; e.g., 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., Dare you ride a horse? I do not like to ride an elephant, Had we not better go to worship? Is it proper for me to buy a silk jacket?

153. The verb ḥ, expressing desire, takes ṝ for its subject, and is followed by a verb denoting that act the performance of which is desired. This latter verb is followed by ḥ, 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 ḥ; e.g., I want to
see you. The teacher wishes to buy a book.

154. Possession is expressed by the verb を, 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 に, e.g., 私は本を買いました, I have a book.

(2) Or possessor and thing possessed may change places; e.g., 本を私に買いました, 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., 私の本を買いました, 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., 迅速, swiftly, 堅強, strongly.

157. Adverbs so formed very commonly take the affix にて; e.g., 堅強にて.

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., 速くに, Saw Wa runs very fast, 速くに, He runs not swiftly.
159. Some adverbs of manner are formed from verbal roots by means of the affixes ဗေဒိုး, and ဗေဒိုး; e.g., ဗေဒိုး, *silently*, ဗေဒိုး, *still*.

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

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

162. Demonstrative adverbs of manner are formed by combining the preposition ကြိုး, *like*, with the demonstratives ကြိုး and ကြိုး, or with ကြိုး; e.g., ကြိုး, ကြိုး, ကြိုး, ကြိုး, ကြိုး, ကြိုး, ကြိုး; *thus*, ကြိုး, *how*, ကြိုး, *somehow*. See § 202.

ADVERBS OF PLACE.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ကြိုး, here</th>
<th>ကြိုး, there</th>
<th>ကြိုး, where</th>
<th>ကြိုး, here and there</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>မန်, hither</td>
<td>မန်, thither</td>
<td>မန်, whither</td>
<td>မန်, hither and thither</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ADVERBS OF TIME.

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

약어, 약어, just now, ----> with verbs of past time.
약어, to-day, ----> with verbs of past time.
약어, this morning, ----> with verbs of past time.
약어, last night.
약어, yesterday.
약어, the other day.
약어향, 약어향, last time (in the immediate past).
약어향, last time (in the more remote past).
약어향, last week.
약어향, last week.
약어향, last month.
약어향, last month.
약어향, last year.

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

(1) By the prefix 약, as follows --
약어, 약어, now, denoting the immediate future, or the present.
약어, to day, ----> with verbs of future time.
약어, this evening, ----> with verbs of future time.
약어, to night, ----> with verbs of future time.
약어, to-morrow.
약어, the day after tomorrow.
약어, in the future.
(2) By the use of the prepositions  and  . Of § 164.
The most common of these are --
,  , afterwards.
,  , in the future.
,  , henceforth.

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

168. Another class of temporal adverbs is formed by using
temporal nouns like numeral auxiliaries, as follows --
, all day.
, all night.
, daily.
, nightly.
, all day, (similarly  , etc.)
, every day, (similarly  , etc.)

169. Many adverbs of time are not formed in accord with any law;
e.g.,  , quickly,  , always.

170. The roots  , still,  , 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 OneToMany or OneToMany; e.g., once, twice, thrice.

172. OneToMany and OneToMany 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 OneToMany and OneToMany 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., I do not like it a bit.

177. The following adverbs are intensive; and (used with adjectives denoting disagreeable sensations), and (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., औरु अब्रामस्थूल, औरु अब्रामस्थूल, moderately.

179. Other adverbs of degree are irregularly formed; e.g., नॉट एट एल (with negatives), about, about, too.

ADVERBS OF COMPARISON.
180. Equality is expressed by एकान्त्य, equally; e.g., हे अनुभूति वर्मीन्द्रसे, इंडियन इंडियन, He understands Burmese and Karen equally, हे अनुभूति वर्मीन्द्रसे, He speaks Burmese equally with Karen.

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

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

183. These are reduplicated in indirect discourse; e.g., इंडियन इंडियन, I cannot tell whence he comes.

184. Interrogative adverbs of quantity are formed by prefixing अः to adjectives of quantity; e.g., अःकिंता, how much.
185. These are also repeated in indirect discourse; e.g., ฉันไม่รู้ว่าฉันจะไปหรือไม่, I cannot tell how much I like it.

186. The interrogative adverb of reason is ทำไม, why? e.g., ทำไมคุณจะไม่ไปกับฉันหรือ, Why do not you go with me?

ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION.
187. Assent is expressed by ใช้ or ถูก

188. Negation is expressed by prefixing ไม่ to the verb, and affixing หรู; e.g., ไม่มา, He does not come.

189. A denial is expressed by a negative sentence; e.g., ยังไม่มา, Has Saw Wa come? No -- literally, Not come, ยังมา, No -- literally, It is not.

ADVERBS OF PROBABILITY.
190. These are irregular in formation; e.g., อาจจะ, อาจจะ, perhaps, อย่างไร, certainly.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.
191. The following are conjunctive adverbs of time -- ตอน, when; e.g., ตอนที่ฉันเห็นเขา, When I see him I will tell him.

  แต่ หรือ, before; e.g., แต่ยังมา, We will eat rice before we go.
192. 'is used as a correlative conjunctive adverb; e.g., The more I study, the more I wish to study.

ADVERBIAL COUPLETS.
193. Adverbial couplets are common; e.g., in the beginning, here and there, 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., Saw Wa runs faster than his brother.

PREPOSITIONS.
195. The Karen language has seven prepositions, with, to or towards, at or from, and in.

196. ' means with; it governs the objective case.

197. 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. 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. It 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 --

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Burmese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>front the Governor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>by or near Htu Wa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>at the king's feet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>by my side.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>in front of the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>behind the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>behind Tun Hla.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>on the earth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>on me - literally, on my surface.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>in the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>on the table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>on his head.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>under the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>among the houses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>between the houses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>round about the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>for my wife's sake, for my wife.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>on account of this, because of this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>about Burma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ၬမ်းမြက်ခြင်း,</td>
<td>on the surface of the water.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
200. ႋ means in. It may govern the objective, or may be used with a secondary noun, like ဝင်.

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

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

ဝင်--ဝင်, both -- and; e.g., ဝင်စွန်းဝင်ဟု ဆောင်ကြသည်, The Lord God created both sun and moon.

ဝင်--ဝင်, and also; e.g., ဝင်စွန်းဝင်ဟု ဆောင်ကြသည်, You are a man and I also am a man, we are not afraid.

ဝင်တော်ကြီး (or ဝင်), again.
ADVERSATIVE.

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

မျိုးမျိုး, မျိုးမျိုး, but.

စိုးမျိုး, or else.

မျိုးမျိုး, either -- or.

မျိုးမျိုး, either -- or.

မျိုးမျိုး, either -- or.

မျိုးမျိုး, either -- or.

မျိုးမျိုး, either -- or.

မျိုးမျိုး, either -- or.

စိုးမျိုး, Buy me either a fowl or a duck.

ILLATIVE.

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

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

CAUSAL.

208. စိုးစိုး, စိုးစိုး, စိုးစိုး, because.

မျိုးမျိုး, မျိုးမျိုး, because.

မျိုးမျိုး, because. This stands at the end of its clause;
e.g., ฉันต้องการซื้อเสื้อผ้าใหม่แล้ว,  *I cannot buy a jacket because my money is scant.*

**HYPOTHETICAL.**

209. ถ้า, *when.*

ถ้า, *if.* In this sense ถ้า stands immediately after the subject. See § 223.

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

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

ถ้า, *nevertheless.*

**TELIC.**

210. ถ้า, *that.* See § 220.

ถ้า, *in order that.* See § 225, 226.

**COMPARATIVE.**

211. The preposition แต่, governing the secondary noun ซื้อ, 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.

AFFIRMATIVE PARTICLES.
214. ᵃᵈʳ ᵃᵈʳ ᵃᵈʳ ᵃᵈʳ is used with simple affirmatives.
ᵒˣ ᵒˣ ᵒˣ ᵒˣ implies that the statement is a matter of course.
ᵒᵐ ᵒᵐ ᵒᵐ ᵒᵐ implies assent or concession.
ᵉᵐ ᵇᵉᵐ ᵇᵉᵐ ᵇᵉᵐ or ᵇᵉᵐ ᵇᵉᵐ ᵇᵉᵐ ᵇᵉᵐ is generally used in reply to questions.
ᵉ@Bean ᵇᵉ@Bean ᵇᵉ@Bean ᵇᵉ@Bean ᵇᵉ.Bean has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

NEGATIVE PARTICLES.
215. ᵃⁿ (colloquially, ᵃⁿ) is used at the close of a negative sentence.
ˢⁿˢⁿ ᵈˢⁿˢⁿ ᵈˢⁿˢⁿ ᵈˢⁿˢⁿ imply that the statement is probably not true.
ᵉ@Bean ᵇᵉ@Bean ᵇᵉ@Bean ᵇᵉ@Bean ᵇᵉ@Bean has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.
216. ᵇ is used after a direct question; e.g., ᵇ ᵇ ᵇ ᵇ, Are you well?
ᵉ is used after an indirect question; e.g., ᵇ ᵇ ᵇ ᵇ, Where are you going? In conversation ᵇ ᵇ often takes the place of ᵇ ᵇ. It may also enter into any of the combinations into which ᵇ ᵇ enters.
are used in an alternative question; e.g., Do you want a plantain or a mango?

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

is equivalent to  

**IMPERATIVE PARTICLES.**
217.  marks a command,  a prohibition,  or  a permission or a somewhat urgent request.

**PRECATIVE PARTICLES.**
218.  at the end of a declarative or imperative sentence, asks for consent. Hence it softens a command into a request. E.g., We will go home, shall we not? 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  and terminated by ; e.g.,  I do not know that he will do it.
221. Adjective clauses are introduced by 他 and terminated by 他; e.g., 他教务处的秘书对考试制度，*The book which the teacher wrote is on the table.*

222. Some adverbial clauses are introduced by 他, or 他, and terminated by a temporal particle, or by 他; e.g., 我在教室里上课的时候，*When I see him I will tell him,* 我们在教室里上课时候，*My house is where Saw Wa's house is,* 我们在教室里上课时候，*While I was coming I saw nobody.*

223. Conditional clauses are introduced by 他, which stands immediately after the subject, and are terminated by 他; e.g., 如果这里下雨，*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 他; e.g., 你可以去尽一切力量，*If you can go, go by all means.*

224. 他 is occasionally used to introduce a concessive conditional clause ending in 他, or 他; e.g., 他我不管干什么，*Even though it rains we shall have to go.*

225. Clauses of purpose are introduced by 他, or 他, and when not standing at the end of the sentence are terminated by 他; e.g., 为了你将能恢复健康，*In order that you may recover, you must take medicine.*

226. Negative clauses of purpose take the form of a prohibitory clause preceded by 他, and terminated (when necessary) by 他;
e.g., ငှက်ကမ္ဘာ့ရူပ္စ္ကာလို့များဖြစ်သည့်, *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 ဝနွေ့; e.g., သာရွတ်ကြည့်ရှု၊သီရိသူ၊မိုးသားကြည့်ရှု၊*Eat it not neither touch it, lest ye die.* ဝိဖွံ့ဖြိုးမှု့ဘာသာစကားဖြစ်သည့်၌, *I dare not cross the river lest my shoes get wet.*

228. Clauses of comparison are introduced by နှင်း and terminated by ဝနွေ့, e.g., သီရိသူလို။သီရိသားလို။*As Saw Wa does, so does Tun Tha also.* See § 202, 211.