A Grammar
Of the
Sgaw Karen

By Rev. David Gilmore, M. A.,

Of the American Baptist Mission
in Burma.

Rangoon:
American Baptist Mission Press,
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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 ə appearing among both consonants and vowels.
THE CONSONANTS.

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

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<tr>
<th>Karen Letter</th>
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<td>IsActive</td>
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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.

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

\(\omega\) is the aspirate of \(\infty\). It is pronounced like \(kh\) as heard in the phrase *brick house*, or in *Bokhara*.

\(\sigma\) has no analogue in the European languages.

\(\omega\) is pronounced like *ch* in the German *bach*, or the Scottish *loch*.

\(\varsigma\) is pronounced like *ng* in *sing*, or *n* in *ink*.

\(\varsigma\) has a sound intermediate between \(s\) and \(z\).

\(\infty\) is the aspirate of \(\sigma\). It has the sound of *ssh*, as heard in the phrase *hiss him*.

\(\gamma\) is pronounced like *sh* in *shun*.

\(\varpi\) is pronounced like *n* in *cañon*, or *ny* in *lanyard*.

\(\psi\) has a sound intermediate between \(t\) and \(d\).

\(\psi\) is the aspirate of \(\infty\). It is pronounced like *th* as heard in the phrase *hot house*.

\(\varphi\) has a sound intermediate between \(p\) and \(b\).

\(\varphi\) is the aspirate of \(\sigma\). It is pronounced like *ph* as heard in the phrase *hap hazard*.

\(\infty\) is pronounced like *th* as heard in *thin*.

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

\(\varsigma\) 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 \(\omega, \infty, \psi\) and \(\sigma\), 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 oo, will be found below.

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</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 ə.

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 ə.

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

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<td>aw</td>
<td>ə</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
13. The subjoined table explains more definitely the powers of the vowels.

\[ \begin{align*}
\infty & , \quad a \text{ in quota.} \\
\infty_1 & , \quad a \text{ in father.} \\
\infty_2 & , \quad i \text{ in machine.} \\
\infty_3 & , \quad \text{German } \ddot{\text{o}} \text{ in Götche, or } \text{u in Turkey.} \\
\infty_4 & , \quad \text{German } \ddot{u} \text{ in Glück, French } \text{u in lune.} \\
\infty_5 & , \quad \text{u in rule, } oo \text{ in moon.} \\
\infty_6 & , \quad \text{approximately } a \text{ in rate.} \\
\infty_7 & , \quad \text{French } \text{è in Molière, or } e \text{ in met.} \\
\infty_8 & , \quad o \text{ in note.} \\
\infty_9 & , \quad aw \text{ in raw.}
\end{align*} \]

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 \( \infty_1 \) (\( \infty_1 \infty_9 \)) is pronounced with a heavy falling inflection.

A syllable marked with \( \infty_2 \) (\( \infty_2 \infty_9 \)) is pronounced abruptly, at a low pitch.

A syllable marked with \( \infty_3 \) (\( \infty_3 \infty_9 \)) is pronounced abruptly at an ordinary pitch.

A syllable marked with \( \infty_4 \) (\( \infty_4 \infty_9 \)) is pronounced with a falling circumflex inflection.

A syllable marked with \( \infty_5 \) (\( \infty_5 \infty_9 \)) is pronounced with a prolonged even tone.

16. When the above mentioned signs follow \( \infty_1 \), the \( \infty_1 \) is omitted for the sake of brevity; e.g., instead of \( \infty_1 \infty_9 \) we write \( \infty_9 \).
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 \( \varsigma \) (pronounced \( \varepsilon \)) is sometimes used to represent the English \( j \) or soft \( g \).

The Pwo Karen inflection \( j \) (\( \sigma^j \)) is sometimes used to represent a final \( l \) in an English syllable. It is pronounced like \( s \).

ARBITRARY CHARACTERS.

18. \( s \) is generally pronounced like \( z \), and \( S \) like \( z \); but at Tavoy and Mergui they are sometimes pronounced like \( z \) and \( o \) 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—

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\end{array}
\]

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: \( տիրտատիտտատ, Saw Wa builds a house. տիրտ, Saw Wa, subject; տատ, builds, predicate; տատ, house, object; տատ, 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: ဗိုလ်လိုးခန့်ရက်ဆောင်ရွက် စိုက်မှတ်စွာ မြှု့စောင်း အမြဲရှိ ဟု သုံး၍ ဗိုလ်ချောင်းဒေသ။ သွေးကျောင်း ဗိုလ်လိုးခန့်ရက်ဆောင်ရွက်, Sometimes old Saw Wa builds a house quickly. ဗိုလ်ချောင်း, sometimes, adverbial modifier; အပါး, old, adjective modifying စားခွန်; မြှု့, demonstrative adjective modifying စားခွန်; မျိုး, quickly, adverb modifying နေရာမြေ。

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 ဗိုလ်ချောင်း, a big house, ဗိုလ်ချောင်း appears as an adjective; in ဗိုလ်ချောင်း, the house is big, ဗိုလ်ချောင်း appears as a verb; in ဗိုလ်ချောင်း, the bigness of the house, ဗိုလ်ချောင်း 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., ဗလ္လီဝါ, Burma, (ဗလ္ meaning country); စီးနန်း, Rangoon, (စီး meaning city). Names of men are preceded by the particle စီ; e.g., စီးသူများ, Saw Shwe Yaw. Names of women are preceded by the particle လှိုင်; e.g., လှိုင်စီးလာ, 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., မား, a house, အား, a book, မီး, gold, ဆောင်, 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 ဗု to the verbal root; e.g., from the root ကြည့်, to go, is formed the noun ဗုကြည့်, going, journey.
(b) By simply using the verbal root as a noun, qualifying it by a demonstrative adjective; e. g., ओषण, to go.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(3) Two or more noun roots may be combined; e. g., ओषी, river, ओषी, 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., ओषीवर्षी, or ओषीवर्षी, birds, ओषीवर्षी, grace, ओषीवर्षी, goodness, ओषीवर्षी, my country, ओषीवर्षी, your de-
scendents, ဗင်းကို, 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., စီ, father, စီ, mother, ဝီ, husband, ဝီ, wife, ဗင်း, man, ဗင်း, woman.

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

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

ဗင်း, or ဗင်း, masculine, applied to human beings.

ဗင်း, or ဗင်း, feminine, applied to human beings.

ဗင်း, masculine, applied to animals.

ဗင်း, feminine, applied to animals.

E. g., ဗင်း, child, ဗင်း, boy, ဗင်း, girl; ဗင်း, horse, ဗင်း, stallion, ဗင်း, mare.

NUMBER.

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

47. Karen nouns, like English nouns, are often governed by prepositions; e.g., ဝသန်းဗြံ, I go to Rangoon. Here ဝသန်း is governed by the preposition ကြောင်း. 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 ကြောင်း; e.g., where the English says, I give Saw Wa a book, the Karen may say, ဝသန်း ဝသန်းကြောင်း, or ဝသန်းကြောင်းကြောင်း ဝသန်းကြောင်း.

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

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

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

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
PRONOUNS.

which they modify by means of the conjunction ḍi, the pronouns used being personal pronouns of the third person.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

55. In Karen, as in English, the personal pronouns are declined, the cases being marked by case forms. The following tables exhibit the three personal pronouns in their various numbers and cases. Gender is not distinguished.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Person</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ḍ, ḍ</td>
<td></td>
<td>ḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>ḍ, ḍ</td>
<td></td>
<td>ḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>ḍ</td>
<td></td>
<td>ḍ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

57. After the verb ḍ, *to be*, the objective forms of the personal pronouns are used instead of the nominative forms; e.g., ḍ ḍ (not ḍ ḍ), *It is I.*
58. Besides the regular pronouns, the Karen possesses a pronominal affix, ˹. 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 ˹ follows a verb it is never an object, although it often looks like one, but always refers to the subject; e.g., ˹ qɛqɔɔ gɔ̄ jɪɲ ɔ, ɬɛpɛsɛ, The book which the teacher wrote, have you seen it? Here ˹ refers to the subject, ɔqɔ, and not to the object, qɔ. In this construction ɔq is often used like ˫.

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 ˹ and qɔ, the word ɔqɔ, self, and the demonstrative adjectives, ɬɛ, this, and ɔq, that. Such forms are generally self-explanatory. Their cases are indicated like those of nouns. For a complete table of all the possible forms of the personal pronouns, with exemplifications of their use, the reader is referred to Dr. Wade's Karen Vernacular Grammar, pp.34-39. The more common forms are noted below.

Singular.  
1st pers.  ɔq  ɔq  ɔq
2nd pers.  ɬɛq  ɬɛq  ɬɛq
3rd pers.  ɔq, ɔq, ɔq

Plural.
  ɔq  ɔq  ɔq

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

61. In the plural forms the plural affix ɔq may be substituted for the particle ɬɛq; e.g., ɔqq may be substituted for ɔq. To any form so arising the plural affix ɔq may be added, giving such forms as ɔqqɔqq.
62. The absolute forms of the pronoun (like the absolute forms of the noun) are generally followed by one of the demonstrative adjectives သင် and သည်, and sometimes by the particle ဒိ; e.g., သင်ခန်း, သင်ခန်းချင်သည်, သည်ချင်သည်.

63. In the absolute forms, သည် is often omitted; e.g., သင်. သင်ခန်းချင်သည်, 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., သင်, သင်ခန်းချင်သည်. As for you, you will have to go.

65. The use of the absolute form is illustrated in the following sentences: သင်ခန်းချင်သည်, သင်ခန်းချင်သည်, As for me, I cannot go, သင်ခန်းချင်သည်, သင်ခန်းချင်သည်, 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 ကျိုး, or ကျိုးသည်, self, and the particles သည်. They are as follows:

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

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

68. The same thing may be indicated by affixing the forms သည်, သည်း, etc. to the verb; e.g., ကျိုးသည်းသည်း, 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., ဝဝဝဝဝ, my own book.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st pers.</td>
<td>ဝဝဝဝဝ</td>
<td></td>
<td>ဝဝဝဝ</td>
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<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>ဝဝဝဝဝ</td>
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<td>ဝဝဝဝ</td>
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<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>ဝဝဝဝဝ</td>
<td></td>
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</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., ဝဝဝဝဝဝဝ, 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 ဝ 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., ဝဝဝဝဝဝဝဝ, Saw Wa says that he (Saw Wa) will come.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

73. The possessive pronouns mine, thine, etc. are formed by affixing ဝ or ဝဝ to the possessive forms of the personal pronouns; e. g., ဝဝဝဝဝဝ, ဝဝဝဝဝဝ, That is mine.

74. ဝ and ဝဝ may be similarly used with nouns in the possessive case; e. g., ဝဝဝဝဝဝဝ, or ဝဝဝဝဝဝဝဝ, 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, )this, that, with the personal pronoun of the third person: 32 this, that.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

76. The interrogative adjectives described in §§101, 102 are used also as interrogative pronouns; e. g., 32 Whom do you see? 32 Which of the two books do you wish?

77. The interrogative possessive pronoun, whose, is formed by affixing 32 to the interrogative pronoun 32; e. g., 32 Whose is this book?

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

78. 32 is used as the subject of impersonal verbs; e. g., 32 It rains.

79. 32 or 32 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., 32 (or 32 Somebody beat him.

80. 32 is often used indefinitely in the objective case, to express people in general.

81. 32 is used as an indefinite object to verbs which require one, but to which no definite object can be assigned; e. g., 32 I see, literally, I see things.

82. 32 and 32 are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns; e. g., 32 A certain person came.
83. Many of the indefinite adjectives described under § 99 are also used as indefinite pronouns; e. g., რუმათლეც რა რამდენიმე უკვე თქვენ შეიძლება ისავინო, *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 ზ, expressive of goodness, means, not *good,* but *to be good.* So with many roots expressive of quantity; e. g., რ 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 გრძნობ ა მამ რა ზე საიქმნაო, *a man that is good.* But it is commonly expressed in an abbreviated form, გრძნობ, the relative conjunction, ზ, being omitted. It is sometimes still further abbreviated by omitting the pronoun ზ, when it would stand simply გრძა.

ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

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

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

88. The following table shows the cardinal numerals.

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<tbody>
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</table>

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

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., ကြက်, two men. ကြ is a numeral affix used in speaking of rational beings. ကြက်ကာ, four dogs. က 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.

- ဗ, applied to things in bundles; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, a book.
- ဗ, applied to things conceived of as existing in a successive series; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, two blankets.
- ဗ, applied to things conceived of as existing in thin laminae; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, two sheets of paper.
- ဗ, applied to companies of persons or animals; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, သံ, a church.
- ဗ, applied to plots of ground; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, a field.
- ဗ, applied to logs, felled trees etc.; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, သံ, a log of wood.
- ဗ, applied to traps and snares; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, a trap.
- ဗ, applied to things conceived as proceeding from one head; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, a bamboo tree.
- ဗ, applied to sides of things; *e. g.*, ဝဝ, two hands.
- ဗ, applied to rational beings; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, two angels.
- ဗ, three men.
- ဗ, applied to vehicles; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, two carts.
- ဗ, applied to the eyes, and to large seeds; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, သံ, two jack-fruit seeds.
- ဗ, applied to things occurring at intervals; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, a chapter of the Bible.
- ဗ, applied to trees; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, three mango trees.
- ဗ, applied to words or sentences; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, a word, a saying.
- ဗ, applied to trees, posts, etc.; *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, သံ, three teak posts.
- ဗ, applied to bird's nests, *e. g.*, ဝဝဝ်, two bird's nests.
ADJECTIVES.

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., ສໍາລັບ, a drink of water, ສັດ, two bunches of rattans, ສັດ, 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.,  GCCOMOC^, a kingdom. 06030, or COGA0, a country.

93. Sometimes there is a choice of numeral affixes for the same noun; e. g., COCOA0, or COCAO, an eye.

94. Numerals are sometimes prefixed to the nouns which they modify; e. g., COCAO, from house to house, twOaOa, 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 00; e. g., 03303, twenty cattle.

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

CAOCAO, first (man); CAOCA means beginning.
CAOCAO, first (thing).
CAOCAO, second (man).
CAOCAO, third (thing).
CAOCAO, fourth (quadruped).

97. The ordinal adjectives CA03, first, and CAOCAO, last are exceptional in their formation. See §112.

98. Multiplicatives are formed by affixing 03 to the cardinal numerals: e. g., 303, 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 003, many, 003, few, and 003, several: e. g., 003, many men; 003, few words.
ADJECTIVES.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(9) Completeness is expressed by placing a numeral affix between ღ and ღ; e.g., ღღღღღ, the whole earth.

(10) A complete number may be expressed by affixing ღღ ღ or ღ to any one of the ordinal numerals; e.g., ღღღღღ, ღღღღღ, ღღღღღ, all three (men).

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

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

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

all, which follows its noun; e. g., ကိုးစားတွေ, all men.

c, every, which generally precedes its noun. The noun may be followed by the number one, and this in turn be followed by သွား; e. g., သို့၊ သို့ရာတွင်။ သို့ဖြစ်သော, every man.

c, whoever, or whatever, which precedes its noun: e. g., ဆိုလိုက်တယ်, whatever man.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

101. The common interrogative adjectives are က, referring to persons, and မျှ, referring to things; e. g., ကြားတွေ, With what teacher did you come? မျှတွေ, What fruit do you wish to eat? က and မျှ are often followed by ကို and မျှော် respectively; e. g., ကိုစွဲကြည့်ပါ။

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

103. Interrogative adjectives of quantity are made by prefixing အောက် to indefinite adjectives of quantity; e. g., ကြား, how great, သွား, how much, how many, မျှော်, How much money have you? These are used both in direct and indirect discourse. In indirect discourse they sometimes suffer reduplication: e. g., မျှော်စွဲကြည့်ပါ။ မျှော်တွေ, I do not know how much money I have.

104. Interrogative adjectives of number may be formed by prefixing ကို or ကိုကို to the numeral affix; e. g., ကိုစွဲတယ် ကိုကို, 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, տո, տու, this, and ցի, ցու, that. They may modify any substantive element, be it noun, pronoun, phrase or clause.

106. ցի, and occasionally տո, is used to mark the end of a noun clause, or of a series of adjectival modifiers of a noun; e. g., կատկիրքից արծված մեծ հատկությունների, The good old man who lives in Rangoon.

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

108. ցի 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 ո, e. g., ուեմսե, a good man.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

110. The comparative degree is expressed by affixing ուեր to the adjective; e. g., ու, good, ուերե, better.

111. Where the object of comparison is expressed, the adjective is followed by ու and ուեր instead of ուեր; e. g., ուերե, better than I. In such cases, the object of comparison is generally followed by ուեր; e. g., ուերերե, better than I.

112. The superlative degree is formed by affixing ուզեր or ուզ to the adjective; e. g., ուզերեր or ուզեր, best.
VERBS.

113. Karen verbs express actions, states or qualities: e. g., ᶠ tầ, to go, ᶠ.previouspage, to be, ᶠnextpage, 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 ᶠ Warfare, to go, is often used with the object.$previouspage.

115. In Karen, a verb which can take an object generally does take one. When no definite object can be assigned, the indefinite object $previouspage is frequently used; e. g., $previouspage, 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 $previouspage, I see you, $previouspage 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 $previouspage, to see—

$previouspage, I am seen.
$previouspage, You are seen.
$previouspage, Saw Wa is seen.

120. In the last sentence, $previouspage is the subject, $previouspage encountered, the predicate, $previouspage, the seeing, the object of $previouspage, and $previouspage the object of the verbal noun $previouspage.
121. Occasionally, in the above mentioned form of the passive voice, the reflexive pronouns စည်, စည်, စည်, 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 စည် or စည် and followed by a reflexive pronoun; e.g., စည်စည်စည်, I am seen, I permit myself to be seen. စည်စည်စည်, 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., စည်စည်စည်, 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 စည်, and a reflexive pronoun; e.g., စည်စည်စည်, 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., စည်, Run.

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

129. The particles စည် and စည် are sometimes affixed to the verb in an imperative sentence where the idea is that of entreating a superior; e.g., စည်စည်စည်, Lessor us.
130. In giving permission, {o} or {o} sometimes takes the place of {o}; e. g., {o}, Go.

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

132. A prepositive sentence is introduced by the particle {o} and otherwise has the form of a sentence expressing command or prohibition; e. g., {o}, Let us go, {o}, 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., {o} 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 {o} to the verb. This form is commonly used to express a future action; e. g., {o}, I shall go, I will go.

135. The idea of intention or desire is brought out more strongly by prefixing {o} to {o}; e. g., {o}, Sa desires to go, intends to go.

136. Completed action is indicated by affixing the particle {o} to the verb; e. g., {o}, I have gone.

137. The same idea is more emphatically expressed by introducing {o} before {o}; e. g., {o}.

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

139. To mark the completion of an action previous to a certain moment of past time, {o} is affixed to the verb, and is often followed by {o}; e. g., {o},
o^xojSoS, 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 co to the root and affixing o^x or ooSo5; e.g., θυαζωσαοισα εθαοιοοιν, 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 o after it; e. g., θυαζωσαοιν, 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., θυαζωσαοιν, to believe, θυαζωσαοιν, to grow up, θυαζωσαοιν, to decrease, θυαζωσαοιν, to direct, θυαζωσαοιν, 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—
óβο, prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e.g., óβο, to stir up.
óβο has a permissive or causative force; e.g., óβο, to dismiss, to send.
denotes a representing of the action as if done, often only in appearance; e. g., stdClass, to assume the appearance of death.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

146. The following particles are affixed to the verb—

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

, or stdClass, has a concessive force; e. g., stdClass, admitting it to be so, admitting the truth of what you say.

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

 indicates that the act is performed by way of trial; e. g., stdClass, to try, stdClass, to taste.
"\(\text{सोन}\) denotes that the action results in a separation; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{सोन साइन}, \text{to put away.}\)

"\(\text{सौन}\) denotes that the action results in making secure; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{सौन, to tie.}\)

"\(\text{जोन}\) denotes that several persons or things act together; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{जोन, to go together.}\)

"\(\text{स्योन}\) denotes that the act is done straight forward, literally or figuratively; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{स्योन, to look off.}\)

\(\text{ष}\) indicates that the action is performed from an elevation; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{ष, to look off (as from a height).}\)

"\(\text{तून}\) denotes that the action is performed by way of assistance; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{तून, \text{I will help you paddle.}}\)

\(\text{सून}\) denotes that an act is done before some event takes place; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{सून, to see before.}\)

\(\text{सून, affixed to verbs in the negative, indicates that the action is imperfectly or slightly performed; e. g., सून, I do not put much faith in it.}\)

"\(\text{कौन}\) denotes that the action results in arriving; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{कौन, to arrive.}\)

"\(\text{कौन}\) shows that the action is hastened; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{कौन, \text{Come along quickly.}}\)

\(\text{सीस}\) is affixed to a few words denoting separation; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{सीस, to fall off.}\)

\(\text{सीस}\) indicates self-originated action; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{सीस, \text{He will go of his own accord. Occasionally it denotes certainty; e. g., सीस, It will be sure to happen so.}}\)

\(\text{सीस}\) indicates an upward motion; \(\text{e. g.}, \text{सीस, to go up.}\)

\(\text{सीस}\) indicates an upward motion, literal or figurative; \(\text{e. g., सीस, to ascend, सीस, to increase. It often denotes incipient action; e. g., सीस, to come into being.}\)
\(\textcircled{\text{1}}\) indicates independent action; e. g., \(\text{I will do it myself.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{2}}\) indicates that the subject defers some other action to perform the one indicated by the verb; e. g., \(\text{Wait a bit, I will eat rice first.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{3}}\) indicates that the action results in obtaining; e. g., \(\text{to find.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{4}}\) indicates that the action results in observing; e. g., \(\text{to remember.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{5}}\) indicates that the action is done before some other event; e. g., \(\text{to promise, to foretell.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{6}}\) indicates that the action reaches unto its object; e. g., \(\text{to go unto.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{7}}\) denotes that the act was done unintentionally, \(\text{to utter an involuntary cry.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{8}}\) indicates that the action results in going through; e. g., \(\text{to go through.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{9}}\) indicates that the action results in an ascent; e. g., \(\text{to ascend.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{10}}\) indicates that the action passes over onto an object; e. g., \(\text{I will tell him.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{11}}\) denotes that the act is performed by way of assistance; e. g., \(\text{to sing together with one.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{12}}\) indicates that the act is performed by or for imitation; e. g., \(\text{to teach, to learn.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{13}}\) indicates reciprocal action; e. g., \(\text{Brothers should love one another.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{14}}\) indicates a downward motion, literal or figurative; e. g., \(\text{to descend, to decrease.}\)

\(\textcircled{\text{15}}\) denotes that several persons or things act in company; e. g., \(\text{to go together.}\)
VERBS.

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

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

verb indicates 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.

商圈, ability considered with reference to skill, also the generic expression of ability; e. g., 伟大复兴wife伽ulator, I went to school once, and I can read.

商圈, ability considered with reference to physical health, or inclination; e. g., 伟大复兴wife伽ulator, My head aches, I cannot go to walk.

商圈, ability considered with reference to effectiveness of effort; e. g., 伟大复兴wife伽ulator, The car-
penter has work, I cannot hire him.

商圈, ability considered with reference to leisure; e. g., 伟大复兴wife伽ulator, I must study now, I cannot go to walk.

商圈, ability considered with reference to accomplishing the end proposed; e. g., 伟大复兴wife伽ulator, This book is Talaing, I cannot read it.

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

153. The verb 商圈, expressing desire, takes 商圈 for its subject, and is followed by a verb denoting that act the performance of which is desired. This latter verb is followed by 商圈, 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 商圈; e. g., 伟大复兴wife伽ulator, I want
to see you, მთავარ კლასს მოუვლოდნეთ წიგნი, The teacher wishes to buy a book.

154. Possession is expressed by the verb აქვთ, 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 ქართულად, e. g., მამა აქვთ წიგნი, I have a book.

2. Or possessor and thing possessed may change places; e. g., წიგნი აქვთ მამა, 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., წიგნი აქვთ მამა, 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., ტევი, swiftly, სძულ, strongly.

157. Adverbs so formed very commonly take the affix სთავ, e. g., სძულისთავი, silently.

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., სვამის ტანის, Swa Wa runs very fast, მიჰყავს ფრენის, He runs not swiftly.

159. Some adverbs of manner are formed from verbal roots by means of the affixes სთავ, and სთაბ; e. g., სთავი თვალია, silently, სთავი ქირ, still.

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

161. Many adverbs of manner are irregular in their formation; e. g., სთავი, openly, სთავი, სთბ, exactly.
162. Demonstrative adverbs of manner are formed by combining the preposition $\$, like, with the demonstratives \$\$ and \$\$, or with \$\$; e.g., \$\$, \$\$, \$\$, \$\$, \$\$, \$\$, \$\$, \$\$, thus, \$\$, \$\$, \$\$, \$\$, somehow. See $\$.202.

ADVERBS OF PLACE.

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

\$\$, here, \$\$, there, \$\$, where, \$\$, \$\$, here and there.

\$\$, here, \$\$, there, \$\$, where, whence, \$\$, \$\$, here and there.

\$, hither, \$, thither, \$, whither, \$, hither and thither.

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

ADVERBS OF TIME.

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

\$, \$, just now,
\$, to-day,
\$, this morning,
\$, last night,
\$, yesterday.
\$, the other day.
\$, \$, last time (in the immediate past).
\$, \$, last time (in the more remote past).
ADVERBS.

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

(1) By the prefix ̀, as follows—

.rc, now, denoting the immediate future, or the present.

.ò, to day,
.ò, this evening,
.ò, to night,
.ò, to-morrow.
.ò, the day after to-morrow.
.ò, in the future.
.ò, next time.
.ò, next week.
.ò, next month.
.ò, next year.

(2) By the use of the prepositions ̀ and ̀. Cf. §164.

The most common of these are—

.ò, afterwards.
.ò, in the future.
.ò, 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—

.ò, all day.
.ò, all night.
daily.
nightly.
all day, (similarly စိန်ပါ, စားနီ, etc).
every day, (similarly စိန်ပါ, စားနီ etc).

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

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

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

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

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

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

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

ADVERBS OF DEGREE.

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

177. The following adverbs are intensive: ကြိုး, ကြိုး, ကျ (used with adjectives denoting disagreeable sensations), and ကြိုး (used with adjectives denoting smallness or fwness).

178. A moderate degree is expressed by coupling two contradictory roots, each of which is modified by a negative; e. g., ကြိုးသောင်ကြိုး, ကြိုးသောင်ကြိုး, moderately.

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

ADVERBS OF COMPARISON.

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

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

INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

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

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

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

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

ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION.

187. Assent is expressed by ဝ or ဝဝ. ဝဝ

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

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

ADVERBS OF PROBABILITY.

190. These are irregular in formation; e. g., ဝဝဝဝ, ဝဝ, perhaps, ဝဝဝ, certainly.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

191. The following are conjunctive adverbs of time—ဝဝ, when; e. g., ဝဝဝဝဝဝဝ, When I see him I will tell him.

ဝဝဝ, before; e. g., ဝဝဝဝဝဝဝ, We will eat rice before we go.

ဝဝဝ, ဝဝဝ, while; e. g., ဝဝဝဝဝဝဝ, He fell sick while he was coming. See also § 222.

192. ဝ is used as a correlative conjunctive adverb; e. g., ဝဝဝဝဝဝဝ, The more I study, the more I wish to study.

ADVERBIAL COUPLETS.

193. Adverbial couplets are common; e. g., ဝဝဝဝ, in the beginning, ဝဝဝဝ, here and there, ဝဝဝဝ, 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, ง, ง, ง, ง, ง, ง, and ง.

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

197. ง 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. ง 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. ง 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—

- front the Governor.
- by or near Htu Wa.
- at the king’s feet.
- by my side.
- in front of the house.
- behind the house.
- behind Tun Hla.
- on the earth.
- on me—literally, on my surface.
- in the house.
- on the table.
ADJECTIVES.

on his head.
under the house.
among the houses.
between the houses.
round about the house.
for my wife's sake, for my wife.
on account of this, because of this.
about Burma.
on the surface of the water.

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

201. ပူးပေါင်း, throughout, and ပေါင်းစုံ; round about; govern the objective.

202. သာ, like, as, always governs the secondary noun ရှိန်, the object of comparison being placed in the possessive case; e.g., ရှိန်ဒါဝင်စွာကြည့်ထားသည်, The pupil acts like the teacher. Sometimes the object of comparison is a noun clause, when သာ corresponds in meaning to the English as; e.g., သာဒါဝင်စွာကြည့်ထားသည်, 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. သီမှု, and, connects words, phrases or clauses. It may stand at the close of the preceding clause, or at the beginning of the following one.
§§—§§, both—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.
§§—§§, not only so.
§§, not only so.

ADVERSATIVE.

205. §§ (at the beginning of a clause) but.
§§, but.
§§, or else.
§§—§§, either—or.
§§—§§, either—or.
§§—§§, either—or.
§§—§§, either—or.
§§—§§, either—or;
§§, either—or; e. g., Buy me either a fowl or a duck.

ILLATIVE.

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

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

CAUSAL.

208. §§, §§, §§, because.
§§, because.
§§, because. This stands at the end of its clause; e. g., I cannot buy a jacket because my money is scant.
HYPOTHETICAL.

209. ḋ, *when.*

 одежд, *if.*

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

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

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

 ṽṽṽṽ, nevertheless.

TELIC.

210. ḡ, *that.* See § 220.

 ḡṽṽ, ḡṽṽ, *in order that.* See §§ 225, 226.

COMPARATIVE.

211. The preposition ḡ, governing the secondary noun ḡ, 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. 钹 is used with simple affirmatives.
钹 implies that the statement is a matter of course.
钹 implies assent or concession.
钹, 钹, or 钹 is generally used in reply to questions.
钹 has an emphatic or exclamatory force.

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

INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.
216 钹 is used after a direct question; e. g., 钹 钹, Are you well?
钹 is used after an indirect question; e. g., 钹 钹, Where are you going? In conversation 钹 often takes the place of 钹. It may also enter into any of the combinations into which 钹 enters.
钹—钹 are used in an alternative question; e. g., 钹 钹 钹, Do you want a plantain or a mango?
钹—钹 are used in alternative questions, especially in indirect discourse; e. g., 钹 钹 钹 钹, I do not know whether he comes from Bassein or Henzada.
钹 is equivalent to 钹.

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

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

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

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

223. Conditional clauses are introduced by ဝါး, which stands immediately after the subject, and are terminated by ဝါး; *e. g.*, ဝါးဝါးဝါးဝါးဝါးဝါး, *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 ဝါး; *e. g.*, ဝါးဝါးဝါးဝါးဝါးဝါး, *If you can go, go by all means."

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224. စိုး is occasionally used to introduce a concessive conditional clause ending in ဝါစျေး, or ဝါစျေး; e. g., ဝါစျေးစိုးသလိုသောကြာ, Even though it rains we shall have to go.

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

226. Negative clauses of purpose take the form of a prohibitory clause preceded by စိုး, and terminated (when necessary) by စိုး; e. g., ဝါစျေးစိုးသလိုသောကြာ, 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 စိုး; e. g., ဝါစျေးစိုးသလိုသောကြာ, Eat it not neither touch it, lest ye die, ဝါစျေးစိုးသလိုသောကြာ, I dare not cross the river lest my shoes get wet.

228. Clauses of comparison are introduced by စိုး and terminated by စိုး, စိုး; e. g., ဝါစျေးစိုးသလိုသောကြာ, As Saw Wu does, so does Tun Tha also. See § 202, 211.
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