A Grammar
Of the
Sgaw Karen

By Rev. David Gilmore, M. A.,

Of the American Baptist Mission
in Burma.

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1995
This book has been called forth by the needs of the American Baptist Karen Mission in Burma. For many years there has been in print no book from which a beginner could learn the grammatical principles of the Karen language. Dr. Mason’s Anglo-Karen grammar has long been out of print; and even when a copy could be secured, it was (owing to the incomplete state in which it was left) very perplexing to a neophyte, though very valuable to the more advanced student. Dr. Wade’s Karen Vernacular Grammar does not begin to be of much assistance until the student is able to read Karen, although the English remarks interspersed throughout it may be used at an earlier period.

The book here offered students of Karen does not pretend to be an exhaustive grammar of the language. The author’s aim has been to introduce beginners to the principles of Karen grammar. He has not attempted to account for every idiom of the Karen language; still less has he aimed to do the work of a lexicographer.

The author acknowledges heavy indebtedness to the works of Dr. Mason and Dr. Wade. He has drawn upon these sources with less scruple as they are not generally available to beginners in Karen. His thanks are due to the Rev. J. N. Cushing, D. D., and the Rev. D. A. W. Smith, D. D., for encouragement and assistance in the inception of the work, and to the Rev. W. F. Thomas, M. A., for a critical reading of the manuscript.
A Grammar of the Sgaw Karen.

INTRODUCTION.

1. The Karen language, in its grammar, presents striking analogies to the English. Like the English, it depends mainly on the order of words for expressing its syntactical relations, and the order of words is much the same as in English.

2. The Karen differs from the English in being a monosyllabic language. Its words, with some real and some apparent exceptions, are monosyllables. The accidents of case, gender, person, number, time, etc., are expressed, some (as the person of the pronouns and the gender of certain nouns) by the intrinsic signification of the words, some (as the case of nouns) by the position of the words in the sentence, and some (as the accidents of verbs) by certain particles prefixed or affixed to the root.

3. The two grand principles of Karen grammar are enunciated with substantial correctness, though not with perfect accuracy, by Dr. Wade: "1st, Any root or combination of roots, becomes a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition or conjunction, according to the office it performs in a sentence. 2nd, Each syllable, or root, has a signification of its own, and a grammatical relation to one or more of the other syllables in every compound part of speech."

THE ALPHABET.

4. The Karen Alphabet is derived from the Burmese. It consists of 25 consonants and 10 vowels, with 6 tones, the character ꝏ appearing among both consonants and vowels.
THE CONSONANTS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Karen Letter</th>
<th>Pinyin</th>
<th>Power</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>ธธธ</td>
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<tr>
<td>ธธธ</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ฮฮฮ</td>
<td>hh</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. The powers assigned to the consonants in the above table do not in all cases perfectly represent the sounds of the Karen letters. The following remarks may assist the learner in acquiring such sounds as cannot be represented
CONSONANTS.

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

∞ has a sound intermediate between k and g.

ɔ is the aspirate of ∞. It is pronounced like kh as heard in the phrase brick house, or in Bokhara.

ɔ has no analogue in the European languages.

ɔ is pronounced like ch in the German bach, or the Scottish loch.

c is pronounced like ng in sing, or n in ink.

ɔ has a sound intermediate between s and z.

∞ is the aspirate of ɔ. It has the sound of ssh, as heard in the phrase hiss him.

ɔ is pronounced like sh in shun.

ɔ is pronounced like ð 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.

ɔ has a sound intermediate between p and b.

ɔ is the aspirate of ɔ. It is pronounced like ph as heard in the phrase hap hazard.

∞ is pronounced like th as heard in thin.

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

ɔ 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 ɔ, ∞, ∞ and ɔ, 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 。。, will be found below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Illustration</th>
<th>Combination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>０</td>
<td>pleado</td>
<td>pleado</td>
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<td>ณ</td>
<td>ｂｙ</td>
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<td>ฉ</td>
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<td>ฉิ</td>
<td>ｂｌ</td>
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<tr>
<td>ฉิน</td>
<td>ｂｗ</td>
<td>ｂｗ</td>
<td>bw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**VOWELS.**

8. As has already been said, every consonant, when written alone, is understood to be followed by the short sound of ａ, as heard in *quota*.

9. This sound, when standing alone, is represented by the character 。。.

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 。。.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Illustration</th>
<th>Combination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ฉ</td>
<td>ａ</td>
<td>ａ</td>
<td>ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ฉิ</td>
<td>ｂ</td>
<td>ｂ</td>
<td>ba</td>
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<td>ฉิ</td>
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<td>bi</td>
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<td>ฉิ</td>
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<td>ฉิ</td>
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<td>ｂุ</td>
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<td>ฉิ</td>
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<td>ｂे</td>
<td>be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ฉิ</td>
<td>ｂอ</td>
<td>ｂอ</td>
<td>bo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ฉิ</td>
<td>ｂอ</td>
<td>ｂอ</td>
<td>baw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13. The subjoined table explains more definitely the powers of the vowels.

\( \infty \), \( a \) in *quota*.

\( \infty \), \( a \) in *father*.

\( \infty \), \( i \) in *machine*.

\( \infty \), German \( \ddot{o} \) in *Göthe*, or \( u \) in *Turkey*.

\( \infty \), German \( \ddot{u} \) in *Glück*, French \( u \) in *lune*.

\( \infty \), \( u \) in *rule*, \( oo \) in *moon*.

\( \infty \), approximately \( a \) in *rate*.

\( \infty \), French \( è \) in *Molière*, or \( e \) in *met*.

\( \infty \), \( o \) in *note*.

\( \infty \), \( aw \) in *raw*.

**TONES.**

14. In Sgaw Karen, every syllable consists of a vowel, either alone, or preceded by a single or double consonant. A syllable always ends in a vowel. Every syllable may be pronounced in six different tones of voice, the meaning varying according to the tone in which it is pronounced.

15. Where no tone is marked, the syllable is pronounced with a rising inflection.

A syllable marked with \( \delta \) (\( o\delta o\delta \)) is pronounced with a heavy falling inflection.

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

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

A syllable marked with \( \delta \) (\( o\delta o\delta \)) is pronounced with a falling circumflex inflection.

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

16. When the above mentioned signs follow \( \gamma \), the \( \gamma \) is omitted for the sake of brevity; e. g., instead of \( o\gamma \gamma \) we write \( o\delta \).
SUPERNUMERARY CHARACTERS.

17. A few characters not belonging to the Sgaw Karen alphabet have been introduced, and are occasionally used in transliteration from English into Karen.

The Burmese ə (pronounced ɛ) is sometimes used to represent the English j or soft g.

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

ARBITRARY CHARACTERS.

18. ʃ is generally pronounced like ɔ, and ʒ like ɔi; but at Tavoy and Mergui they are sometimes pronounced like ɔi and oi 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—

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 o o j r q ɬ Ȯ ɭ

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: ʁo o ɔo ñɔ o ɔi, Saw Wa builds a house. ʁo o, Saw Wa, subject; ɔɔ, builds, predicate; ɔɔ, house, object; ɔi, 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: orthoQ, sometimes old; Saw Wa builds a house quickly. orthoQ, sometimes, adverbial modifier; orthoQ, old, adjective modifying orthoQ; orthoQ, demonstrative adjective modifying orthoQ; orthoQ, quickly, adverb modifying orthoQ.

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 orthoQ, a big house, orthoQ appears as an adjective; in orthoQ, the house is big, orthoQ appears as a verb; in orthoQ orthoQ, the bigness of the house, orthoQ 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., ဗိုလ်, Burma, (ဗိုလ် meaning country); ရန်ကုန်, Rangoon, (ဗိုလ် meaning city). Names of men are preceded by the particle ဗိုလ်; e.g., ဗိုလ်အား, Saw Shwe Yaw. Names of women are preceded by the particle ဗိုလ်; e.g., ဗိုလ်အား, 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., ဗိုလ်, a house, အား, a book, ကျောင်း, gold, ကျောင်း, 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 ဗိုလ် to the verbal root; e.g., from the root ကျော်, to go, is formed the noun ကျော်ကျော်, going, journey.
(b) By simply using the verbal root as a noun, qualifying it by a demonstrative adjective; e. g., ḍi ṣe, to go.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(3) Two or more noun roots may be combined; e. g.,  ȩ, river,  ȩ, 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.,  ȩ, birds,  ȩ, grace,  ȩ, goodness,  ȩ, my country,  ȩ, your de-
scendents, င○ ဗောင်း, 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., ဗ, father, ဗ, mother, ဗ, husband, ဗ, wife, င, man, င, woman.

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

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

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

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

င, masculine, applied to animals.

င, feminine, applied to animals.

*E. g., င, child, င င, boy, င င, girl; င, horse, င င, stallion, င င, mare.*

**NUMBER.**

40. Karen nouns convey of themselves no idea of number; e. g., the noun င 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 ဗ, one; e. g., င ဗ, a house.
42. The plural may be denoted in the following ways—

(1) By the use of a numeral adjective; e. g., ṭি়ািি, two houses, ṭিিিাি, many houses.

(2) By any one of the following affixes—

িি, the usual affix; e. g., ṭিিি, houses.

িি, used with the vocative, or with pronouns; e. g., ঠিিি, brethren, ṭিি, they.

িিি, used principally with pronouns; e. g., ṭিি, they.

ি, িি, and িিি, used occasionally.

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

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

47. Karen nouns, like English nouns, are often governed by prepositions; *e.g.*, ဗိုသော ဗိုသော, *I go to Rangoon*. Here ဗိုသော is governed by the preposition ဗို. Nouns follow the propositions 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 ဗို; *e.g.*, where the English says, *I give Saw Wa a book*, the Karen may say, ဗိုယို ဗိုယို ဗိုယို, or ဗိုယို ဗိုယို ဗိုယို.

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

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

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

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

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

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

Singular. Plural.

First Person.
Nom. ə, o ə
Poss. ə, o ə
Obj. ə ə

Second Person.
Nom. ʁ ʁ
Poss. ʁ ʁ
Obj. ʁ ʁ

Third Person.
Nom. ə ə
Poss. ə ə
Obj. ə ə

56. The form ə 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 əə, əəə, or occasionally əəə, and in the plural generally as əəə.

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

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

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

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

61. In the plural forms the plural affix ꝨꝞ may be substituted for the particle Ꝩ; e. g., ꝨꝞ ꝨꝞ ꝨꝞ may be substituted for ꝨꝞ. To any form so arising the plural affix ꝨꝞ may be added, giving such forms as ꝨꝞ ꝨꝞ ꝨꝞ. 


62. The absolute forms of the pronoun (like the absolute forms of the noun) are generally followed by one of the demonstrative adjectives သာဗြိ, and sometimes by the particle သုံး; e.g., သာဗြိ, သာဗြိသာသာ, သာသာသာ.

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

65. The use of the absolute form is illustrated in the following sentences: သာဗြိ, သာသာသာ, As for me, I cannot go, သာဗြိသာသာသာ, သာသာသာသာ, 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 အကြီး, or အကြီး, self, and the particles သာ. They are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st pers.</td>
<td>အကြီးသာဗြိ</td>
<td>အကြီးသာဗြိ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>အကြီးသာသာသာ</td>
<td>အကြီးသာသာသာ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>အကြီးသာ</td>
<td>အကြီးသာ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>အကြီးသာသာ</td>
<td>အကြီးသာသာ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>အကြီးသာ</td>
<td>အကြီးသာ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>အကြီးသာသာ</td>
<td>အကြီးသာသာ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

68. The same thing may be indicated by affixing the forms အကြီး, အကြီး, etc. to the verb; e.g., သာသာသာသာ, 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., տուզարձ, *my own book*.

**REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.**

70. Reflexive forms of the personal pronouns are formed by affixing to the possessive case the word եր, *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>ուզամ եր</td>
<td>ուզամ եր</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd pers.</td>
<td>ջամ եր</td>
<td>ջամ եր</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd pers.</td>
<td>տամ եր</td>
<td>տամ եր</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., ծլուժագվազեր, *Saw Wa beats himself*. These forms always appear as direct objects, 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 եր 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., ծլուժագվազերել. *Saw Wa says that he (Saw Wa) will come.*

**POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.**

73. The possessive pronouns *mine, thine*, etc. are formed by affixing եր or երի to the possessive forms of the personal pronouns; e. g., տագիրբարեն, տագիրբամ, *That is mine."

74. եր and երի may be similarly used with nouns in the possessive case; e. g., տագիրբազերել. or տագիրբազերեր, *That is Saw Wa’s.*
PRONOUNS.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

75. Properly speaking, the Karen language has no demonstrative pronouns. Their place is supplied, however, by combining the demonstrative adjectives, ၶင်, this, and ၀ဖ, that, with the personal pronoun of the third person; ၶင်ကြာ, this, ၀ဖကြာ, that.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

76. The interrogative adjectives described in §§101, 102 are used also as interrogative pronouns; e. g., ၶင်မှာ, What are you doing? ၀ဖမှာ, Whom do you see? ၶင်ကြာမှာ, Which of the two books do you wish?

77. The interrogative possessive pronoun, whose, is formed by affixing ၶင် or ၀ဖ to the interrogative pronoun ၶင်; e. g., ၶင်မှာသီးသနီး၏, Whose is this book?

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

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

79. ၀ဖ or ၶင် 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., ၶင် (or ၀ဖ) သူကြည်၏, Somebody beat him.

80. ၀ဖ is often used indefinitely in the objective case, to express people in general.

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

82. ၀ဖ and ၶင် are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns: e. g., ၀ဖသီးသနီး၏, A certain person came.
83. Many of the indefinite adjectives described under § 99 are also used as indefinite pronouns; e. g., წჲგმეს წჲგმეს, წჲგმეს წჲგმეს, 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 ღი, expressive of goodness, means, not good, but to be good. So with many roots expressive of quantity; e. g., ღჲ 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 ღიღიღიღ, a man that is good. But it is commonly expressed in an abbreviated form, ღიღი, the relative conjunction, ღი, being omitted. It is sometimes still further abbreviated by omitting the pronoun ღი, when it would stand simply ღიღ.

ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

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

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

88. The following table shows the cardinal numerals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>က</th>
<th>စု</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ရ</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>လာ</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>ဆီ</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ရော</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>ပေါ်</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>လို</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ပေါ်</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>ပဲ</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>တို</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>တို</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>90</td>
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<td>စို</td>
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<tr>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>200</td>
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<td>စို</td>
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<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
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<td>10,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>တို</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>တို</td>
<td>စို</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E. g., 13,297,652 would be written ဝကရိန်ဖင့် and read ဆိုကြာင်မှာမိုင်ဖြင့်စိုက်ပျိုးကြသည်။

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., ကလေး, two men. စ is a numeral affix used in speaking of rational beings. ခေါင်း, four dogs. စ 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.

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

9, applied to quadrupeds; e. g., ṣoṣoṣo, two horses.

8, applied to bamboos and small trees; e. g., ṣoṣoṣo, one bamboo.

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

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

6 or 8, applied to flowers; e. g., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, two roses.

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

9, applied to felled trees; e. g., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, a teak log.

9, applied to things conceived of as spherical; e. g., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, two mangoes.

9, applied to openings; e. g., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, two doors.

9, applied to things conceived of as flat; e. g., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, a fowl.

9, applied to things conceived of as cylindrical; e. g., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, three snakes.

9, applied to blows, words and sentences; e. g., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, a word or two.

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

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

9, applied to places; e. g., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, 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., ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, a drink of water, ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, two bunches of rattans, ṣoṣoṣoṣoṣoṣo, 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., կիառատար, a kingdom. կիառատ, or կիառագիտ, a country.

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

94. Numerals are sometimes prefixed to the nouns which they modify; e. g., դեմեհասուր, from house to house, տառեր, 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 ա; e. g., երեսքույթ, twenty cattle.

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

առաջին, first (man); առաջին means beginning.

առաջին, first (thing).

երկրորդ, second (man)

երկրորդ, third (thing).

չորրորդ, fourth (quadruped).

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

98. Multiplicatives are formed by affixing ա to the cardinal numerals; e. g., երկու, 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 ան, many, զան, few, and զանի: several; e. g., զանի, many men; զանի, few words.
(2) The numeral ०, one, with an appropriate numeral affix, often has the sense of the English indefinite article; e.g., ॐ०, a house.

(3) The numeral ०, one, with a reduplicated numeral affix is used in referring indefinitely to one person or thing; e.g., लोल०, some man, ुछ०, some elephant.

(4) The indefinite adjective of quantity, तौँ, some, is formed from the numeral ० by means of the particle तौँ.

(5) The reduplicated form तौँ, is used in referring indefinitely to more than one person or thing; लोल०, some men, उछ०, some books.

(6) In a similar way are formed तौँ, a little, तौँतौँ and तौँपौँ, a great deal.

(7) Universality is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between ० and तौँ: e.g., लोल०, every man.

(8) The same idea is expressed by placing a numeral auxiliary between तौँ and तौँ: e.g., तौँल०, every bird.

(9) Completeness is expressed by placing a numeral affix between तौँ and तौँ; e.g., तौँल०, the whole earth.

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

(11) Singularity is expressed by placing the numeral ० with a suitable affix between तौँ and तौँ; e.g., तौँल०, only one (man).

(12) Identity is expressed by placing the numeral affix between ० and तौँ; e.g., तौँल०, the same house.

(13) Utter non-existence of a thing is expressed by affixing a numeral auxiliary to तौँ: e.g., तौँल०, तौँल०, तौँल०, तौँल०, There is not a single book.
100. Certain other indefinite adjectives of quantity are formed independently of the numeral system. Such are—

не, дод нь, all, which follows its noun; e. g., գիոր, all men.

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

սող, whoever, or whatever, which precedes its noun: e. g., գիոր, whatever man.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

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

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

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

104. Interrogative adjectives of number may be formed by prefixing ք or զ to the numeral affix; e. g., քորդ, զորդ, 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, သဝ, သဝဝ, this, and င်, င်င်, that. They may modify any substantive element, be it noun, pronoun, phrase or clause.

106. င်, and occasionally သဝ, is used to mark the end of a noun clause, or of a series of adjectival modifiers of a noun; e. g., င်ဦးဝါမြင့်သောကြာ၆ဆိုသေားသောချောင်းညှိန်ပိုးချင်း သော်လွှောက်စားတာသောကြာ၆, The good old man who lives in Rangoon.

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

108. င် 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 ဗ e. g., င်ဦးဝါမြင့်, a good man.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

110. The comparative degree is expressed by affixing ဝ to the adjective; e. g., ဝ, good, ဝဝဝ, better.

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

112. The superlative degree is formed by affixing ဝ or င် to the adjective; e. g., ဝဝဝဝ or င်ဝ, best.
VERBS.

113. Karen verbs express actions, states or qualities: e.g., จอง, to go, อยู่, to be, หน้า, 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 จอง, to go, is often used with the object อย่าง.

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

อยู่หลุม, I am seen.
อยู่หลุม, You are seen.
อยู่หลุม, Saw. Wa is seen.

120. In the last sentence, อยู่ is the subject, อยู่, encountered, the predicate, อยู่หลุม, the seeing, the object of อยู่, and อยู่ the object of the verbal noun อยู่หลุม.
121. Occasionally, in the above mentioned form of the passive voice, the reflexive pronouns ယား, စား, ဆား, 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 စား or ယား and followed by a reflexive pronoun; e. g., မှားစွာ, I am seen, I permit myself to be seen. စားမှားစွာ, 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., မှားစွာ, 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 စား, and a reflexive pronoun; e. g., စား, 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., စား, Run.

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

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

A sentence expressing a prohibition ends in ကိုရင်; e. g., ကိုရင်, Do not go. In such cases the verb may be preceded by ကို and the negative particle ကို; e. g., ကိုသူဦး ကိုရင်, Do not go.

A precative sentence is introduced by the particle စိ and otherwise has the form of a sentence expressing command or prohibition; e. g., စိသွားနေစိ, Let us go, စိသွား ကိုသွားနေစိ, Let us not go.

TENSE.

The verb standing by itself conveys no idea of time. It may refer to past or present time according to the context. E. g., ကိုသူဦး may mean I go, I am going, or I went.

An action the performance of which is contemplated, is expressed by prefixing the particle စိ to the verb. This form is commonly used to express a future action; e. g., ကိုသူဦး, I shall go, I will go.

The idea of intention or desire is brought out more strongly by prefixing ကို to စိ; e. g., ကိုကျွန်ုပ်သူဦး, Saw Wa desires to go, intends to go.

Completed action is indicated by affixing the particle စိ to the verb; e. g., ကိုသူဦး, I have gone.

The same idea is more emphatically expressed by introducing စိ before ကို; e. g., ကိုသူဦး.

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

To mark the completion of an action previous to a certain moment of past time, ကိုရင် is affixed to the verb, and is often followed by စိ; e. g., ကိုသူဦးကိုရင်, I have gone at once.
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 ो to the root and affixing ो or ो; e. g., ुँ रोड़ीच्छिप्थो दियो, 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 ो after it; e. g., धर्मोद्देश, 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., िकाःकरो, to believe, िकाःकरो, to grow up, िकाःकरो, to decrease, िकाःकरो, to direct, िकाःकरो, 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—
ो, prefixed to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g., िकाःकरो, to stir up.
ो: has a permissive or causative force; e. g., िकाःकरो, to dismiss, to send.
denotes a representing of the action as if done, often only in appearance; e. g.,  o5, to assume the appearance of death.

prefix to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g.,  o5, to inform.

has a causative force; e. g.,  o5, to kill.

prefix to verbs with the negative, indicates that the act is performed imperfectly, or in a slight degree; e. g.,  o5, I scarcely know.

indicates that the subject falls into the state indicated by the verb; e. g.,  o5, to become tired.

has also a causative force; e. g.,  o5, to make one laugh.

prefix to a few verbs, has a causative force; e. g.,  o5, to raise up.

has a permissive or causative force; e. g.,  o5, to increase (transitive).

The following particles are affixed to the verb—

has a sense of return, retaliation or opposition; e. g.,  o5, to return.

or  o5, has a concessive force; e. g.,  o5, admitting it to be so, admitting the truth of what you say.

indicates that the same action has been performed before; e. g.,  o5, 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.,  o5, come back, believe.

indicates that the act is performed by way of trial; e. g.,  o5, to try,  o5, to taste.
VERBS.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

denotes that the action is hastened; *e. g.*, ἐπιλήπτοντα, Come along quickly.

denotes an upward motion; *e. g.*, ἐπιτέλεσθαι, to go up.

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

indicates an upward motion, literal or figurative; *e. g.*, ἐπιστάμεθα, to ascend, ἐπιστάμεθα, to increase. It often denotes incipient action; *e. g.*, ἐπιστάμεθα, to come into being.
36 KAREN GRAMMAR.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

οιδα indicates that the action results in an ascent; e. g., οιδαμε, to ascend.

οιδα indicates that the action passes over onto an object; e. g., οιδαμε, I will tell him.

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

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

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

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

οιδα indicates that several persons or things act in company; e. g., οιδαμε, to go together.
VERBS.

37

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., 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.

 construcción, ability considered with reference to skill, also the generic expression of ability; e.g., ฉันเข้าห้องเรียนพร้อมๆกัน, I went to school once, and I can read.

ความสามารถ, ability considered with reference to physical health, or inclination; e.g., ฉันบริสุทธิ์, ฉันมีความสามารถจะสวด, My head aches, I cannot go to walk.

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

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

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

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

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

154. Possession is expressed by the verb သည်, to be, in the three following ways—

1. The possessor stands as the subject, and the thing possessed follows the verb, with which it is connected by the preposition သည်, e.g., ဝါကျင်၊ သည် ကြည့်နိုင်မည်။ လက်ချောင်း ချင်သို့ ကြည့်နိုင်သည်။, I have a book.

2. Or possessor and thing possessed may change places; e.g., ဝါကျင်၊ သည် ကြည့်နိုင်မည်။, 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., ဝါကျင်၊ သည် ကြည့်နိုင်မည်။, 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., များ, swiftly, နိုင်မည်။, strongly.

157. Adverbs so formed very commonly take the affix သည်, e.g., သည် ကြည့်နိုင်မည်။.

158. Sometimes an adjectival root is used in an adverbal sense. This is commonly the case when it is itself modified by another adverb; e.g., ဝါကျင်၊ အောင်မီးနိုင်မည်။, Suw Wa runs very fast, ဝါကျင်၊ အောင်မီးနိုင်မည်။, Suw Wa runs not swiftly.

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

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

161. Many adverbs of manner are irregular in their formation; e.g., သည်, openly, သည်, exactly.
162. Demonstrative adverbs of manner are formed by combining the preposition $, like, with the demonstratives $ and $, or with $; e.g., $, $, $, $, $, $, thus, $, how, $, 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, $ today, $ this morning, $ last night, $ yesterday, $ the other day, $ last time (in the immediate past), $ last time (in the more remote past).
166. Adverbs expressing future time may be formed in two ways—

(1) By the prefix ह, as follows—

होि, होिहूँ, now, denoting the immediate future, or the present.

होि, to day,
होि, this evening,

with verbs of future time.

होि, to night,

होि, to-morrow.

होि, the day after to-morrow.

होि, in the future.

होि, next time.

होि, next week.

होि, next month.

होि, next year.

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

The most common of these are—

होि, होिहूँ, afterwards.

होि, होि, in the future.

होि, henceforth.

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

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

होि, all day.

होि, all night.
daily.
nightly.
all day, (similarly always, daily, etc).
every day, (similarly every day, etc).

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

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

NUMERICAL ADVERBS.

171. Adverbs denoting how many times are formed from the cardinal numerals, in combination with the affix \( \frac{1}{2} \) or \( \frac{1}{4} \); e.g., once, twice, thrice.

172. \( \frac{1}{2} \) and \( \frac{1}{4} \) are treated like numeral auxiliaries, and may enter into all the combinations of which numeral auxiliaries are capable; e.g., simultaneously, at once, the second time, sometimes, every time, as many as three times.

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

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

ADVERBS OF DEGREE.

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

177. The following adverbs are intensive: ရှိ, ရှိ, ရှိ (used with adjectives denoting disagreeable sensations), and ရှိ (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., စိတ်ခြင်း, တတ်ခြင်း, moderately.

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

ADVERBS OF COMPARISON.

180. Equality is expressed by ညာစွဲ, equally; e. g., သူဦးနေသူ တွေချင်မှုတွေမှု ဖျင်တယ်, He understands Burmese and Karen equally, သူကိုတွေ့မဖိုးတွေ့ဖိုး တယ်, He speaks Burmese equally with Karen.

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

INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

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

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

184. Interrogative adverbs of quantity are formed by prefixing မှ to adjectives of quantity; e. g., မျက်နှာ, မျက်နှာ, how much.
185. These are also repeated in indirect discourse; e. g., ဝင်ဘဲ巡回သ်ဟောင်ကိုရှဲမှု၎င်း, I cannot tell how much I like it.

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

ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION.

187. Assent is expressed by ၎င်း or ၎င်း၏.

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

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

ADVERBS OF PROBABILITY.

190. These are irregular in formation; e. g., ၎င်းသွင်း, ၎င်းသွင်း, perhaps, ၎င်းသွင်း, certainly.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

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

ဝင်ဘဲ, before; e. g., ဝင်ဘဲသွင်းဝင်ဘဲသွင်းသို့မဟုတ်, We will eat rice before we go.

ဝင်ဘဲ, ၎င်းသွင်း, while; e. g., ဝင်ဘဲသွင်းဝင်ဘဲသွင်းသို့မဟုတ်, He fell sick while he was coming. See also § 222.

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

ADVERBIAL COUPLETS.

193. Adverbial couplets are common; e. g., ဝင်ဘဲ, in the beginning, ၎င်းသွင်း, here and there, ၎င်းသွင်း, 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.*, Sáw Wa runs faster than his brother.

PREPOSITIONS.

195. The Karen language has seven prepositions, ง, ณ, ณ, อ, ๕, ธ, and ง.

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

197. อ 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. อ 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. อ 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—

- ง, ณ, ณ, ณ, ณ, ณ, ณ, and ง.

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

201. ฉต, throughout, and ฉต; round about; govern the objective.

202. ฉ, like, as, always governs the secondary noun ฉ, the object of comparison being placed in the possessive case; e. g., ฉติฉจ ฉติฉจ, The pupil acts like the teacher. Sometimes the object of comparison is a noun clause, when ฉ corresponds in meaning to the English as; e. g., ฉติฉจ ฉติฉจ, 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. ฉ, 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., ὁ θεός έγέρθη ἀπὸ τοῦ ποταμοῦ, The
Lord God created both sun and moon.
§ — §, and also; e. g., ἀλλα ἡμέρα, ἡμέρα ἐκείνη, ofτεῦ, for;
You are a man and I also am a man, we are not afraid.
Both (or and), again.
Both (or and), moreover.
Both (or and), moreover.
Not only so.
Not only so.

ADVERSATIVE.
205. ὡς, ὡς (at the beginning of a clause) but.
Both, both, but.
Both, or else.
Either — or, either—or.
Either — or, either—or.
Either — or, either—or.
Either — or, either—or.
Either — or, either—or.
Either — or, either—or; e. g., ἦν εἷς ἄρης ἡμέρας ἐπὶ ἡμέρας ἐπὶ
αὐτοῦ τοῦ θεοῦ, Buy me either a fowl or a duck.

ILLATIVE.
206. ξανά, ξανά, ἁρμόζει, ἁρμόζει, ξανά, ἁρμόζει, ἁρμόζει, and
a few other phrases, take the place of the illative conjunction therefore.
207. The temporal adverbs ἢ μεθύνω and ὁμολογεῖ, then, sometimes have the force of illative conjunctions.

CAUSAL.
208. ὅτι ἐστι, ὅτι ἐστι, ὅτι ἐστι, because.
ὅτι, ὅτι, ὅτι, because.
ὅτι, because. This stands at the end of its clause;
e. g., ἐφέξεις ὅτι ἐκ τοῦ αἵματος ἡ σωτηρία ἐκ τῶν ἀσθενῶν, I cannot buy a jacket
because my money is scant.
209. ႏ, when.

 formulario, if.

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

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

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

 formulario formulario, nevertheless.

 TELIC.

 210. ႏ, that. See § 220.

 formulario formulario, formulario, in order that. See § 225, 226.

 COMPARATIVE.

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

NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

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

INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

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

စင်—စင် are used in an alternative question; e. g., စင်စင်စင် စစ်စင်စင် စစ်စင်စင်, Do you want a plantain or a mango?
စင်—စင် are used in alternative questions, especially in indirect discourse; e. g., စစ်စင်စင်စင် စစ်စင်စင် စစ်စင်စစ်စစ်စစ် စစ်စစ်စစ်စစ်, I do not know whether he comes from Bassein or Henzada.
စင် is equivalent to စင်စင်.

IMPERATIVE PARTICLES.

217. စင်စင် marks a command, စင်စင်, a prohibition, စစ်စစ်, or စစ်စစ်, a permission or a somewhat urgent request.
PRECATIVE PARTICLES.

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

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

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

223. Conditional clauses are introduced by ဒြပ်, which stands immediately after the subject, and are terminated by ဒြပ်; e. g., သတ်မှတ်မှသူသည်သူသည်, 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 ဒြပ်; e. g., သတ်မှတ်မှသူသည်သူသည်, If you can go, go by all means.
224. ဗျ is occasionally used to introduce a concessive conditional clause ending in အောက်စွာ, or အောက်ကြာ; e. g., ဗျက် မှားစွာ ပါသည်။ မှာ ဟာ ယခုလူ ရောဂါ သတ်မှတ်စေချင်း, Even though it rains we shall have to go.

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

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

228. Clauses of comparison are introduced by စ and terminated by စ, e. g., စွစ်ကား သုံးစွဲခြင်း ကြား, As Saw Wa does, so does Tun Tha also. See § 202, 211.
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