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OUTLINE OF BURMESE GRAMMAR

BY
WILLIAM CORNYN

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STATEMENT TO
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INTRODUCTION

The following study is an analysis of the speech of one speaker, Maung Shwe Waing (*máun šwéi wáin*) of Taw Wi village (*tó wí ywá*) in Lower Burma some one hundred miles north of Rangoon. Mr. Shwe Waing was born August 15, 1902 (*gôzá θagayi? tatháun hnayà chaussè ñágù hni?, wágáun làcán shè taye?, tanínlá nèi nyà shè tanáyí ?achéin* 'in the year 1265, eleventh day of the waxing moon, Monday at eleven o'clock in the evening'). For seven years, from his seventh to his fourteenth year, he attended the local monastery school. At the age of eighteen he left Taw Wi for Rangoon. In 1921 he shipped aboard a steamer as fireman. The next twenty years he spent aboard ship, until he came to the United States in 1940. From June 1943 to the present he has served as tutor for Burmese in the Army Specialized Training Program at Yale University.

Since this is a study of the subject's colloquial speech, it has been necessary to make a sharp and arbitrary distinction between his colloquial speech and his knowledge of the literary language. This task was made easier by two conditions: the literary language is in general quite distinct from the colloquial; the needs of the soldiers who were learning the language put the emphasis on everyday speech. The selection of examples in the following pages was made almost entirely from the material which was prepared for class work or which developed out of drill session activities.

Mr. Shwe Waing is an excellent informant. His knowledge of English is limited and his dislike of speaking it is marked. He has no tendency toward philosophizing about language in either Burmese or English, and his ability to explain in Burmese the meaning of a Burmese locution is phenomenal. His patience and co-operation are unlimited.

The first activity in Burmese at Yale began in the Fall of 1942 with Dr. Raven Ioor McDavid Jr. working under the general direction of Professor Leonard Bloomfield. The work was done under the auspices of the American Council of Learned Societies through fellowships from the National School of Modern Oriental Languages and Civilizations. Dr. McDavid was forced by ill health to retire from the project in the Spring of 1943. Up to that time we had had the opportunity of observing the speech of three Burmans, Mg. Thein Tin of Amyin, U Po Thoug Allamon of Moulmein, and, for a few hours, U Hpu of Mogok. The phonemic analysis of Burmese was completed by Dr. McDavid, and I am indebted to him for his permission to use in this study the results of his work. He is not, however, to be considered responsible for the presentation that follows.

Some time after the preliminary analysis of the syntax had been made it was my good fortune to obtain from England a copy of Stewart, *An Introduction to Colloquial Burmese*, Rangoon 1936. Stewart's analysis of the parts of speech of Burmese confirmed my own analysis. Beyond our agreement as to the two parts of speech in the language, an examination of the two studies will show that they have little in common.

Some help in breaking into the language was afforded by Grant Brown, *Half the Battle in Burmese*, London 1910. This little book is charmingly written

and sanely conceived. It pays no attention, however, to the problem which I have here attacked, that of syntax (cf. pp. 38-40).

Armstrong and Tin, *A Burmese Phonetic Reader*, London 1925, contains an elaborate description of the phonetics of the language. There is no attempt at a syntactic analysis, and in general the texts are in a style that 'is typical of that spoken by the educated classes of Lower Burma' (p. 1).

H. O. Reynolds, *Some Notes on Colloquial Burmese Syntax*, Rangoon 1933, suffers from its arrangement, which is based on the English equivalent of the Burmese. As the author says in his preface (p. i), 'The notes do not pretend to be a complete syntax of colloquial Burmese, or to replace the standard textbooks on the grammar and construction of the language'; and again (p. ii), 'no great precision in terminology is claimed, and inconsistencies will be found in the use of terms like adverb, preposition, conjunction, and particle.' As a matter of fact the book merely tries to fit Burmese forms into English categories.

Taw Sein Ko, *Elementary Handbook of the Burmese Language*⁴, Rangoon 1939, is a useful grouping of Burmese phrases. The attempt at syntactic analysis is based on the literary language. The author says in the Introduction (p. vii) that 'the Burmese language can be made interesting by studying it from a philological standpoint.'

A. Judson, *A Grammar of the Burmese Language*, Rangoon 1888, suffers from the author's attempt to force Burmese into the Indo-European pattern. Some of the chapter divisions are headed 'number, gender, case, nominative, objective, ablative,' and so on.

Of the older grammars, none of which was useful, I shall name those to which I have had access.

J. E. Bridges, *The Burmese Manual*, London and Rangoon 1906.

F. A. L. Davidson, *Anglicized Colloquial Burmese or, How to speak the language in three months*, London 1889.

H. K. Gordon, *A Hand-book to Colloquial Burmese in the Roman Character*, Rangoon 1886.

W. H. Sloan, *A Practical Method with the Burmese Language*, Rangoon 1876.

R. F. St. A. St. John, *Burmese Self-taught (in Burmese and Roman Characters) with phonetic pronunciation*, London 1936.

Considerable use has been made of the excellent Judson, *Burmese English Dictionary*, Rangoon 1921, and the Judson, *English Burmese Dictionary*, Rangoon 1922. Tun Nyein, *The Student's English Burmese Dictionary*, Rangoon 1936, has also been of some help.

In conclusion I should like to acknowledge my debt of gratitude to the American Council of Learned Societies and to Dr. J. Milton Cowan for their aid and encouragement in this undertaking. Professors Franklin Edgerton, George A. Kennedy, and Edgar H. Sturtevant have read and criticized the presentation and I have been able to make use of their suggestions. I am indebted to Professor Bernard Bloch for his advice and assistance in preparing the manuscript for the printer. My greatest obligation is to Professor Leonard Bloomfield for his guidance and for his unfailing patience and kindness.

CHAPTER 1
PHONEMES, 1-30

1. Burmese speech sounds will here be classed in the following pattern: twenty-nine consonants, nine vowels, and four tones.

2. The consonants are /k, kh, g, ŋ, hŋ, s, sh, z, š, c, ch, j, t, th, d, n, hn, p, ph, b, m, hm, l, hl, θ, y, w, h, ?/. The vowels are /a, i, u, ei, ou, e, o, ai, au/.

/r/, a tongue tip trill, occurs in two words: *tareisshán* 'animal', and *parìbbògà* 'household furnishings.' Both are Pali words.

3. Each syllable consists of a consonant or a cluster plus a vowel, spoken on one of the four tones or aclusively. Of the vowels, /a, i, u, ei, ou, ai, au/ occur also with nasal final.

4. There are four tones. For details see sections 25-30. Tone I is indicated by an acute accent /'/, tone II by a circumflex /^/, tone III by a grave /`/, and tone IV is written with a final ?.

	I	II	III	IV
PLAIN	<i>cá</i>	<i>câ</i>	<i>cà</i>	<i>ca?</i>
NASAL	<i>cán</i>	<i>cân</i>	<i>càn</i>	

cá 'water lily'; *cán* 'sugar cane'; *câ* tiger'; *cân* 'floor'; *càn* 'rhinoceros'; *ca?* 'rupee'; *càdè* 'falls' (verbs will be quoted throughout with -*té* final particle. See 36). Syllables in tone IV never have nasal finals.

5. Initial clusters consist of two consonants; the second is /w/ or /y/. /w/ as second member occurs after all consonants except /w/ and /?/. /y/ as second member occurs after /p, ph, b, m, hm, n, hn/.

6. The initial consonant or cluster is followed by a vowel. The vowels /a, i, u, ei, ou/ occur in all four tones as plain finals and in tones I, II, and III with final nasal. /e/ occurs in all four tones as plain final. /o/ occurs in tones I, II, and III as plain final. /ai, au/ occur in tones I, II, and III with final nasal and in tone IV as plain final.

7. Toneless syllables consist of consonant followed by a neutral vowel which we write as *a* without a tone mark. A toneless syllable never stands alone and is never final in a group.

CONSONANTS, 8-15

8. Stop, affricate, and sibilant consonants occur in five positions: velar stop, prepalatal affricate, normal sibilant, alveolar stop, and labial stop; and in three orders: plain voiceless, aspirated voiceless, and plain voiced.

	LABIAL	ALVEOLAR	NORMAL	PALATAL	VELAR
	STOP	STOP	SIBILANT	AFFRICATE	STOP
PLAIN	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>k</i>
ASPIRATED	<i>ph</i>	<i>th</i>	<i>sh</i>	<i>ch</i>	<i>kh</i>
VOICED	<i>b</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>j</i>	<i>g</i>

Examples:

<i>kâundé</i> 'is good'	<i>khâun</i> 'coffin'	<i>gâun</i> 'head'
<i>ca?</i> 'rupee'	<i>cha?</i> (classifier)	<i>ja?</i> 'castanets'
<i>sân</i> 'vigor'	<i>shân</i> 'rice for priest'	<i>zân</i> 'spoon'
<i>tûdé</i> 'digs'	<i>thûdé</i> 'is different'	<i>dû</i> 'knee'
<i>pîdé</i> 'finishes'	<i>phîdé</i> 'combs'	<i>bî</i> 'comb'

9. There is also an unvoiced hush sibilant: *šêi* 'former times'.

10. The nasals occur in three positions: velar, alveolar, and labial. In each position there are two members: plain and preaspirated.

<i>ŋâ</i> 'fish, five'	<i>hŋâdé</i> 'borrows, lends'
<i>nândé</i> 'kisses, smells'	<i>hnân</i> 'sesamum'
<i>mâdé</i> 'is hard'	<i>hmâdé</i> 'instructs'

11. The laterals are plain and preaspirated: *léi* 'wind'; *hléi* 'boat'.

12. The semivowels are /y/ and /w/: *yêidé* 'writes'; *wêidé* 'is distant'.

13. The interdental fricative /θ/ occurs in both voiceless and voiced variants. For convenience we write ð to represent the voiced variants: *θathâlâ* 'did (he) kill (it)?'; *θéiðalâ* 'is (he) dead?'

14. The glottal spirant is written /h/ and the glottal stop /ʔ/: *houtté* '(it) is so'; *ʔou?* 'brick'.

15. In the absolute form of words, voiceless stops, affricates, and sibilants are far more numerous than their voiced counterparts. Sandhi voicing (28-29) reduces the disparity.

VOWELS, 16-24

16. /a/: Tones I, II, III, plain and nasal final; low central retracted: *câ* 'water lily'; *câ* 'tiger'; *câdé* 'falls'; *cân* 'sugar cane'; *cân* 'floor'; *cân* 'rhinoceros'.

Tone IV; higher low central: *catté* 'is tight'; *za?* 'drama'.

Toneless; mid central, lax and variable: *zagabyân* 'interpreter'; *tayou?* 'Chinese'; *sâzayâ* 'food'.

17. /i/: Tones I, II, III, plain final; high front unrounded, slightly retracted and lowered: *thî* 'lottery'; *thî* 'umbrella'; *thîdé* 'touches'.

Tones I, II, III, nasal final and tone IV; lower high front unrounded, slightly retracted: *myîndé* 'sees'; *myîn* 'horse'; *myîndé* 'is tall'; *myi?* 'river'.

18. /u/: Tones I, II, III, plain final; high back rounded, slightly fronted: *shûdé* 'is boiling'; *shû* 'thorn'; *shû* 'reward'.

Tones I, II, III, nasal final and tone IV; lower high back rounded, slightly fronted: *wewwîn* 'bear'; *wîn* 'belly'; *šûn* 'mud'; *wutté* 'wears (clothes)'.

19. /ei/: Tones I, II, III, plain final; higher mid front unrounded, slightly lowered, not diphthongal when final: *néi* 'sun'; *lêi* 'four'; *nèi* 'day (of 12 hours)'.

Tones I, II, III, nasal final and tone IV; higher mid front unrounded, somewhat lower than the preceding, with a glide to lower high front, slightly retracted: *séin* 'diamond'; *sêindé* 'is green'; *sèindé* 'drips'; *sei?* 'mind'.

20. /ou/: Tones I, II, III, plain final; higher mid back rounded, slightly lowered, not diphthongal when final: *pôudé* 'exceeds'; *pôu* 'silk'; *pôudé* 'conveys'.

Tones I, II, III, nasal final and tone IV; higher mid back rounded, somewhat lower than the preceding, with a glide to lower high back, slightly fronted: *pôun* 'story, picture'; *pôun* 'container'; *pôundé* 'swells up'; *poutté* 'is putrid'.

21. /e/: Tones I, II, III, plain final and tone IV; lower mid front, slightly raised: *phédé* 'puts aside'; *phê* 'playing cards'; *phèdê* 'breaks off'; *phetté* 'hugs, embraces'.

22. /o/: Tones I, II, III, plain final; lower mid back rounded, slightly raised: *pyódé* 'is happy'; *pyôdé* 'says, speaks'; *pyòdé* 'is soft'.

23. /ai/: Tones I, II, III, nasal final and tone IV; low central, with a glide to lower high front, slightly retracted: *sháin* 'shop'; *sháindé* 'waits'; *jáin* 'hole in the road'; *saitté* 'plants, sets up'.

24. /au/: Tones I, II, III, nasal final and tone IV; low central, with a glide to lower high back, slightly fronted: *cáun* 'cat'; *cáun* 'school'; *dájáun* 'that reason'; *cautté* 'is afraid'.

JUNCTURE AND SANDHI, 25-30

25. Period, comma, space, and colon indicate open junctures. Syllables in close juncture are here written without space or punctuation between them, except where the initial of the second syllable is *ny-* (see 28).

26. Period and comma represent juncture in which the tone curve of the preceding syllable is that of the syllable in absolute position. Pause is always preceded by period or comma intonation, or by suspensive intonation (30).

Tone I: low, level, and long, accompanied often by a gentle rise at the end.

Tone II: high, long, and falling toward the end.

Tone III: high, short, and falling, with a slow glottal closure.

Tone IV: high, extremely short, with a sharp glottal closure.

27. Space represents juncture in which the tone curve of the preceding syllable is as follows:

Tone I: low, level, and shorter than before comma or period. It does not rise at the end.

Tone II: high and long, but does not fall.

Tone III: same as before comma or period, except that the glottal closure is not so slow.

Tone IV: same as before comma or period, except that in very rapid speech the final glottal stop sometimes assimilates as in close juncture (28).

Examples:

Tone I: *yú ládé* '(he) brought (it)'; *pyán ládé* '(he) came back'

Tone II: *thwá néidé* '(he) is going'; *lán šautté* '(he) walked'

Tone III: *tèdè thwábá* 'go straight ahead'; *kánlàn šidé* '(it) is crosswise'

Tone IV: *théi? káundé* '(it) is very good'

28. Syllables written together without intervening space or punctuation are spoken in close juncture. When a syllable precedes another syllable in close juncture its tone curve is as follows:

Tone I: low, level, and shorter than before space.

Tone II: high, not so long as before space, and rising.

Tone III: high, short, and without glottal closure.

Tone IV: high, and extremely short; the glottal closure is replaced by a plain unvoiced stop of the same position (8) as the initial sound of the following syllable.

Nasal finals of tones I, II, and III are replaced by nasals of the same position (10) as the initial sound of the following syllable.

Examples:

Tone I: *lábá* 'come'; *pímbándé* '(he) is tired'

Tone II: *léiyau?* 'four (people)'; *sínzádé* '(he) thinks'

Tone III: *tèdè* 'straight ahead'; *kànlàn* 'crosswise'

Tone IV: *θauppá* 'drink'; *θaummé* '(he) will drink'; *θautté* '(he) drinks'; *maθauθ-θéibú* '(he) has not drunk yet'; *chaunnáyí* '6 o'clock'; *θauccázòu* 'let us drink'; *paissán* 'money'; *laikkhèbá* 'follow'; *pha??θummé* '(I) will read on'

In one case, when a syllable with initial *ny-* follows a plain final, this way of writing is ambiguous. That is, *kúnyídé* might be interpreted either as *kú nyídé* or **kún yídé*. In this case *kú-nyídé* '(he) helps' will be written (see 25).

When two syllables spoken in one of tones II, III, or IV are in close juncture, the first is higher in pitch and louder than the second.

Examples:

khawwéiwéigá 'from afar'; *káungáun loutté* '(he) works well'; *tèdè θwábá* 'go straight ahead'; *kànlàn sídè* '(it) is crosswise'; *touttou? wàwà ?apyóuhlá* 'a short, fat, pretty girl'

29. When a syllable with an unvoiced initial consonant is preceded in close juncture by a syllable in tone I, II, or III, the unvoiced initial consonant is replaced by a voiced consonant as follows:

Unvoiced stops, affricates, and normal sibilants are replaced by the voiced phoneme of the same position:

louppá 'do (it)': *lábá* 'come': *θwábá* 'go': *pyábá* 'point'; *loutté* '(he) does (it)': *ládé* '(he) comes': *θwádé* '(he) goes': *pyádé* '(he) points'; *louccádé* '(they) do (it)': *lájádé* '(they) come': *θwájádé* '(they) go': *pyájádé* '(they) point': *lous-séijíndé* '(I) want to have (him) do (it)': *lázéijíndé* '(I) want to have (him) come': *θwázéijíndé* '(I) want to have (him) go': *pyázéijíndé* '(I) want to have (him) point'; *loukkhédé* '(it) is hard to do': *lágédé* '(it) is hard to come': *θwágédé* '(it) is hard to go': *twéigédé* '(they) are hard to find'

The dental fricative /θ/ appears in its voiced variant ð (13):

θaθθalá 'did (he) kill (it)?': *θéiðalá* 'is (he) dead?'

The phonemes /š, h, ?/ (9, 14) and the preaspirated nasals and lateral (10, 11) are not replaced:

sáunšautté '(he) looks after (it)'; *meisshwéiháun* 'old friend'; *yéi?ðu* 'water jar'; *yéibóhmá* 'on the water'; *θwáhnáíndé* '(he) can go'; *céizú cîhlâbí* 'thanks very much'. I have no examples of /hŋ/ following close juncture.

After atonic syllables the same replacements occur but seem not to be fixed:

taca? ~ *taja?* '1 rupee'; *takhùgù* 'one by one'

30. Colon represents suspensive intonation. This is extremely variable. The syllable before the colon is spoken with greatly increased length and on an undulating tone curve under which the four tones lose their special characteristics.

Examples:

ná tháumbá: 'listen ...'

šiðalá: *cou?* *maθibú* 'is there ...? I don't know.'

lámbyà: *badúlé* 'a guide ...? Who?'

taja?: *khwê* '1 rupee ... and a half'

CHAPTER 2

SURVEY OF GRAMMAR, 31-33

31. Since, as we have seen, the language consists of syllables of very uniform structure, the syllable stands out rather sharply in syntax and derivation.

32. The nouns and verbs, which are the minimal free forms of the language (its words), are preponderantly monosyllabic: *lú* 'person'; *lá* 'come'. Some nouns and verbs of more than one syllable are unanalyzable: *yauccá* 'man'; *mêimmà* 'woman'; *sínzà* 'think'; *côuzá* 'exert oneself'. In part, nouns of more than one syllable have foreign flavor: *ʔyggaleiʔ* 'English'; *θimbó* 'steamer'; *θamouddayá* 'ocean'. Most nouns and verbs of more than one syllable are clearly analyzable in several types: noun or verb with particle: *díhmá* 'here' (83); *θwádé* 'goes' (36); nouns derived from verbs with proclitic: *ʔalouʔ* 'work' (150); *talwé* 'wrong' (151); with enclitic: *louttá* 'work' (152); nouns formed by doubling, with or without proclitic or rhyming syllables: *káuygáun* 'good' (164), *mapyèi tabyèi* 'not quite full' (170), *kànlàn* 'across' (168), *ní tídi* 'reddish' (169). Particles, proclitics, enclitics, and rhyming syllables are bound forms.

33. The foregoing will be illustrated and discussed in the following pages. Chapter 3 treats sentence types and final, interrogative, and negative particles (34-49, 77); subordinate clauses and subordinating particles (50-60); general particles (61-76); parataxis (78). Chapter 4 treats verb expressions (79-120); subordinate verb expressions (81); noun expression attributes (82-86); secondary verb particles (87-108); auxiliary verbs (109-120). Chapter 5 treats noun expressions (121-148); noun expression attributes (124-128); verb expression attributes (129-130); interrogative nouns (131); numerals (132-140); classifiers (141-148). Chapter 6 treats derivation (149-178); by proclisis (150-151); by enclisis (152-162); doubled verbs (163-171); doubled nouns (172-178).

CHAPTER 3

THE SENTENCE, 34-78

34. The major sentences of Burmese fall into three types. These will be called NARRATIVE, IMPERATIVE, and EQUATIONAL. All three types have special negative forms. Narrative and equational sentences, both affirmative and negative, have special interrogative forms. The various types will be illustrated as follows: narrative statements (36-40); imperative (41); equational statements (42); interrogative (43-45); negative (46-49).

35. In the three types of sentence there occur particles which fall into five classes. Three of these classes will appear in our discussion as follows: final particles (36-40); interrogative particles (43-45); negative particles (46-49). The other two classes will be illustrated as follows: subordinating particles (50-60); general particles (61-76). As in the case of all particles, the juncture is close between these particles and the forms to which they are attached.

NARRATIVE STATEMENTS, 36-40

36. A narrative statement consists of a verb expression (79) which has as its final particle one of the group *-té*, *-yè*, *-kè*, *-mé*, *-pí*. For *-léi* see 72.

37. The final particle *-té* following a verb makes a statement without reference to time, which may be present or past:

θwáde 'goes, went'; *pyánde* 'returns, returned'; *pyán θwáde* 'goes, went back'; *nèidáin nèidáin nánáyí ?áchéin ?éingóu pyán θwáde* '(he) goes home every day at five o'clock'; *mahnikká yággóun myòugà mándalèi myòugóu θímbônè khayê θwáde* 'last year (he) made a trip from Rangoon to Mandalay by steamer'.

38. *-yè* and *-kè* are variants of *-té*. They are more literary; in normal speech they occur only in a limited number of phrases:

mábáyè '(I) am well'; *pyóbáyè* '(I) am happy'; *houkkè* '(it) is so'. The forms *mábádé*, *pyóbádé*, *houtté* also occur.

39. The final particle *-mé* refers to future time:

θwámé '(he) will go'; *manepphán θwámé* '(he) will go tomorrow'.

40. The final particle *-pí* indicates that the action or condition denoted by the verb to which it is attached has already begun:

θwábi '(he) has gone'; *yauppi* '(he) has arrived'; *yauthlùbt* '(he) will soon arrive; (he) is on the point of arriving'; *lá néibi* '(he) is (already) coming'.

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES, 41

41. The imperative sentence consists of a verb expression without final particle (36):

θwá 'go'; *?éingóu pyán θwá* 'go back home'; *θwábayàzéi* 'let me go'; *θwábázéi* 'let him go'; *θwájábázéi* 'let them go'; *θwájázòu* 'let us go'.

EQUATIONAL SENTENCES, 42

42. The equational sentence consists of two noun expressions which are equated. Often, especially when the sentence is long, the two expressions are separated by comma pause (26):

θú zagabyán 'he (is an) interpreter'; *tóðalín làgà nadó là ?athi* (,) *sháun ?ùdù* 'from the month of *tóðalín* to the month of *nadó* (is) the cold season'; *hóu lúhá* (,) *lúgáumbé* 'that person (is) a good person (emphatic)'.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES, 43-45

43. Narrative and equational sentences have special interrogative forms. These forms consist of a narrative or equational statement followed by one of the interrogative particles *-lá* or *-lê*.

44. In narrative questions before *-lá* or *-lê* the final particle *-té* is replaced by *-θa-*; *-mé* and *-pí* are replaced by the atonic forms *-ma-* and *-pa-*; *-yè* and *-kè* remain unchanged:

θwáde '(he) went' : *θwáðalá* 'did (he) go?' : *bégóu θwáðalé* 'where did (he) go?' ; *θwámé* '(he) will go' : *θwámalá* 'will (he) go?' : *bédò θwámalé* 'when will (he) go?' ; *θwábi* '(he) has gone' : *θwábalá* 'has (he) gone?' ; *ná léyèlá* 'do (you) understand?' ; *houkkèlá* 'is (it) so?'

45. In equational questions *-lá* or *-lê* is added to the equational statement:

θú zagabyán 'he (is an) interpreter' : *θú zagabyánlá* '(is) he (an) interpreter?' : *zagabyán béhmále* 'where (is there an) interpreter?' ; *tóðalín làgà nadó là ?athi* (,) *sháun ?ùdùlá* '(is it) the cold season from the month of *tóðalín* to the month of *nadó*?'

NEGATIVE SENTENCES, 46-49

46. A negative narrative statement consists of a narrative statement in which the negative particle *ma-* is prefixed to the head verb (80), less often to a subordinate verb (81) in a verb phrase (79), and the final particle (36) is replaced by the negative final particle *-phú*:

θwáde, *θwámé*, *θwábi* '(he) goes, went, will go; has gone' : *maθwábú* '(he) does not go, did not go, will not go, has not gone' ; *myín sí θwáde* '(he) went riding a horse' : *myín masí θwábú* '(he) went not riding a horse'.

47. A negative imperative sentence consists of an imperative sentence in which the negative particle *ma-* is prefixed to the head verb (80), less often to a subordinate verb (81) in a verb phrase (79), and the negative final particle *-nè* is added at the end:

θwá 'go' : *maθwânè* 'do not go' ; *myín sí θwá* 'go riding a horse' ; *myín sí maθwânè* : *myín masí θwânè* 'do not go riding a horse'.

48. A negative equational sentence consists of an equational statement plus *mahoupphú* 'it is not so'. This type of sentence may be considered a negative narrative sentence, since *houtté* is itself a verb expression (79, 36):

θú zagabyán mahoupphú 'he is not an interpreter' ; *hóu lúhá* (,) *lúgáun mahoupphú* 'that person is not good'.

49. A negative question consists of a negative narrative sentence or of a negative equational sentence plus interrogative particle *-lá* or *-lê* (43):

maθwábú '(he) did not go' : *maθwábúlá* 'did (he) not go?' ; *θú zagabyán mahoupphúlá* 'is he not an interpreter?'

Before the interrogative particle *-lê*, the negative final particle *-phú* (46) is replaced by *-θa-* (cf. 44):

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ERRATA

- §46. Delete: , less often to a subordinate verb (81)
For *myîn masî ðwâbû* read *myîn sî maðwâbû*
- §47. Delete: , less often to a subordinate verb (81)
Delete: *myîn masî ðwânè*

bégóumà maθwábú '(he) didn't go anywhere' : *bégóumà maθwáðalè* 'didn't (he) go anywhere?'

SUBORDINATING PARTICLES, 50-60

50. Verb expressions (79) are marked as SUBORDINATE CLAUSES by the substitution of SUBORDINATING PARTICLES for final particles (36). Subordinate clauses precede the head verb expression (80) and are separated from it by comma pause (26) after the subordinating particle.

51. -*áun*. Denotes purpose, goal:

khímbyá nâ léde 'you understand' : *khímbyá nâ léáun, pyó pyámé* '(I) will explain so that you understand'; *dìde? myánáun, makhouthnáimbúlá* 'can't (trains) go faster than this?'

52. -*hmà*. Denotes prior completion:

taye? hnayellau? nâ nêi pîhmà, takhá she? θwámé 'when (we) have finished staying a day or two, (we) shall go on'.

53. -*lòu*. Denotes cause:

θaji? éimhmá keissá šìlòu, khandá θwá zagá pyó néidé 'because of business at the headman's house, (I) am going (there) for a moment and talk'.

54. -*péidè*. Denotes concession:

dí myóuhmá θanjéjîn tayauummá mašibú. mašibéidè cou? dilau? mapyímbú '(I) do not have a single friend in this city. Although (I) do not, I am not bored to that extent'.

55. -*péimè*. Denotes future concession:

caθi? šìðalá 'are there leopards?' *šìde: šìbéimè, youttaye? myéijîbóhmá matwèihnáimbú* 'there are, even so (you) will not be able to find them right away on the ground'; *ywá mašibéimè, táunðúmyágóu twèihnáimbádé* 'although there are no villages, you will be able to find farmers'; *θùgóu cáun tháyâbéimè, bâmá cèizú mašibú* 'although he is put in school, there will be no advantage'.

56. -*tò*. Denotes time when:

áawukkóu lè píðò, cousshígóu lábá 'when you have changed clothes, come to me'; *lámmadógóu pathamá θwá píðò, zéigóu lánchá sî θwâhnáindé* 'when (you) have first gone to Lanmadaw (Station), (you) can take a rickshaw to the market'.

57. -*yín*. Denotes condition, prior completion:

yéi teyyín, sàun néibá 'if the water is up, wait'; *dílóu shóuyín, bènè loummalè* 'if that is the case, how shall I act?'; *bólóumbwè piyín, khímbyágóu cou? béhmá twèihnáimmalè* 'when the ball game is over, where will I be able to find you?'

58. -*yínlè*. Denotes condition:

naukkóu pyán cì pí, θwámé, shóuyínlè, póu kâunlèimmé '(it) will probably be better if (you) go along looking back'; *šìyínlè, šìlèimmé* 'maybe there is (if there is, there probably is)'.

59. -*yín*. Denotes simultaneous occurrence:

θaðnzá phayyín, shèileikkóulè θautté 'while (I) was reading the newspaper (I) also smoked a cigar'.

60. Zero is substituted for the final particle *-pí* (40) in case of concomitant action:

lân šau? píbí '(he) has walked' : *lân šau? pî, châyngóu phya? θwáhnáinšalá* 'can (one) cross the stream walking?'; *naukkóu pyán cì pî, θwá néidé* '(he) was going along looking back'.

GENERAL PARTICLES, 61-76

61. GENERAL PARTICLES differ from noun particles (82) in that when both are present the general particle comes last, and in that general particles do not indicate fundamental syntactic relations of noun expression to verb expression. They differ in the same way from final particles (36), but here a more important difference inheres in the fact that the general particles do not mark obligatory categoric distinctions. Particles which are attached only to noun expressions are *-há, -kô, -lê, -lóu, -má, -pá, -phê, -the?, -tò, -yé*; those which are attached only to verb expressions are *-léi, -nó*; those which are attached to both noun expressions and verb expressions are *-lòu, -tè, -θá*. As in the case of all particles the juncture between general particles and the form to which they are attached is close.

62. *-há* emphasizes. In equational sentences it often appears after the first member, never after the second:

dí lúhá (,) *lúgáumbè* 'this person (is a) good person (emphatic)'; *hóu chéiyáhá, bá chéiyá thínšalè* 'what (sort of) footprint do you think that footprint (is)?'; *hóuhá shìn chéiyábè* 'that is an elephant track'; *hóuhálè, cà chéiyábè* 'that also (is a) tiger track'.

63. *-kô* 'what of, how about'. Appears only in questions:

dí lúgô, bènélè 'what of this person, how about (him)?'; *θá ?alakkô bá lou? néišalè* 'what about the second oldest son—what does he do?'

64. *-lê* 'also':

θúlè θwádé 'he also went'; *khímbyálè ?éingóu tède θwábá* 'you too go straight home'.

64.1. *-lê . . . -lê* 'both . . . and':

tachòulè táunyá ?alou? lou? sâdé, tachòulè lé lou? sâdé, tachòu lúmyálè ?úyín šidé 'some work as farmers; some work the rice fields; some people have orchards'.

65. *-lóu* 'fashion, manner':

dílóu louppá 'do (it) this way'; *cou? pyôšalóu loutté* '(he) did as I said'.

66. *-má* '(not) even': Appears only in negative sentences, emphasizing the negation of the noun expression:

bámá mawéjimbú '(I) do not want to buy anything'; *bégóumá maθwánè* 'do not go anywhere'; *cou? ?apyín tayaummá mašibá* 'there is nobody besides me'.

67. *-pá* indicates politeness (cf. 92):

khímbyá námé badúlè 'what (is) your name?': *máun sán thúmbá* 'Mr. San Htun'.

68. *-phê* emphasizes; unlike *-há* (62), it is not limited to noun expressions that are in any one position:

dílóubê thwájàzòu 'let us go this way (and no other)'; *thúðòu nauphmábê lai?* *lálèimmé* 'they will probably come following behind (and no place else)'; *dájàun tódèhmábê néiyádé* 'for that reason (they) have to live right in the jungle'; *hólúáhá* (,) *lúgáumbê* 'that person (is a) good person (emphatic)'.

69. *-the?* 'more than, above'. This is added to a noun expression denoting that to which something is compared:

díde? *myán?áun*, *makhouthnáimbúlá* 'can't (trains) go faster than this?'; *myánde?* *khwéi yédé* 'a dog is smaller than a horse'.

70. *-tò* 'as for, concerning'. Marks a noun expression as the topic of the sentence:

thú ?acáundò mapyóbánè 'as for him—don't talk'; *thwázayádò mašibábú* 'as for having to go, (I) don't'; *bédò lóujínšalé* 'when do (you) want (it)?'

71. *-yé*. This is often added to each member of an enumeration, and often to a noun used in address:

badúnè badú thwášalé. *máun phyúyé*, *máun mēyé* . . . 'who went? Mr. Black, Mr. White . . . '.

72. *-léi* 'of course'. Emphasizes assertions and commands:

káunšalá 'is (it) good?' : *káundéléi* or *káunšaléi* '(of course it) is good'; *thwájín-yín*, *thwáléi* 'if (you) want to go, go (ahead)'.

This particle is common in aphoristic statements, where it replaces the final particle (36):

ɣwéi šádé 'looks for money' : *khetté* 'is difficult' : *ɣwéi šaléi*, *khelléi* 'the more you look for money, the more difficult (it is)'.

73. *-nó* expects acquiescence. Infrequent:

thwádòmé '(I) will have to be going, i.e. goodbye'; *thwádònó* 'go (then), i.e. goodbye [to person leaving]'.

74. *-lòu* marks what precedes as a quotation of another's speech or of one's own opinion. If no verb expression follows, this particle often marks what precedes as intended:

lámèlòu pyódé '(he) said (he) would come'; *ɣwá šídélòu mathimbú* '(I) do not think there is a village'; *dí thauyyéihá makáumbúlòu thíndé* '(I) think this drinking water is not good'; *hóu chéiyáhá*, *bá chéiyálòu thínšalé* 'what (sort of) footprint do you think that footprint (is)?'

bé thwámaldúlé 'where (is it your intention to) go?' : *?éiŋgóu thwámaldòu* '(I intend to) go home'.

75. *-tè* marks what precedes as a quotation, but differs from *-lòu* (74) in that it is not followed by a verb expression:

lámédé '(he said he) would come'; *sabwédé* '(he said the word) table'.

76. *-thá* 'only':

myòujíhmášá hóté šídé 'there are hotels only in big cities'; *thwášá thwábá* 'just go (don't hold back)'.

MINOR SENTENCES, 77

77. A sentence which does not consist of a verb expression or of two noun expressions equated (34 ff.) is a minor sentence:

díhmá 'here', cf. *díhmá šídé* 'here (it) is'; *bálê* 'what?', cf. *bá pyóðalê* 'what did (you) say?'

PARATAXIS, 78

78. Paratactic constructions consist of two major sentences (34 ff.), or of a major sentence and a minor sentence (77), separated by comma pause. They differ from a succession of two sentences in that when an interrogative particle (43) is present, it comes at the end of the entire paratactic sentence:

θú náimmé, thínðalá 'do (you) think he will win?'; *badú náimmé, thínðalê* 'who do (you) think will win?'; cf. *θú náimmalá* 'will he win?'; *badú náimmallê* 'who will win?'

CHAPTER 4

VERB EXPRESSIONS, 79-120

79. A verb, or a phrase with a verb head, or a coordinative phrase with verb expressions as members is a VERB EXPRESSION. A phrase which is a verb expression is a VERB PHRASE.

80. In a verb phrase the head verb has one or more attributes of the following types: subordinate verb expression (81); noun expression (82); secondary verb particle (87); auxiliary verb (109).

SUBORDINATE VERB EXPRESSIONS, 81

81. A SUBORDINATE VERB EXPRESSION precedes the verb head. The juncture is space between a subordinate verb expression and a following verb:

θwádé '(he) goes' : *pyándé* '(he) returns' : *pyán θwádé* '(he) goes back'; *néidé* '(he) remains, continues' : *pyán θwá néidé* '(he) is going back'.

NOUN EXPRESSION ATTRIBUTES, 82-86

82. A NOUN EXPRESSION ATTRIBUTE consists of a noun expression followed by one of the four noun particles *-hmá*, *-ká*, *-kóu*, *-nè*, or of a noun expression alone (zero particle), preceding a verb head in open juncture.

83. *-hmá* denotes place or time at which:

díhmá tháimbá 'sit here'; *díhmá mryathá lábi* : *hóuhmá dayyathá lá néidé* 'the train has already come here; over there the street car is coming'; *béhmá θwá sámalè* 'where will you go to eat'; *bamá lúmyóu phyáhmá tháindé* 'Burmans sit on mats'; *tóywáhmá mayáhnáimbú* '(it) can not be got in country villages'; *?apódap-hmá líndé* 'up stairs (it) is light'; *tédèhmá šídé* '(it) is situated straight ahead'; *nwéi ?ùdúhmá ?éilèimmé* '(it) will probably be cool in the hot season'; *cou? shíhmá shappýá mašibú* 'I haven't any soap' (cf. *shappýá mašibú* 'there isn't any soap'); *cou? shíhmá paissán malóunlaupphú* 'I do not have enough money'.

84. *-ká* denotes source or agency, past time:

couttòu dígà bégómà maθwábábú 'we won't go anywhere from here'; *coukkà shóuyín, θú checchín hñábálèimmé* 'if it is said (as coming) from me, he will probably lend (it to you) immediately'; *khawwèiwéigà šáun θwá* 'go avoiding (it) at a fair distance'; *myímbwégà nwéi náin ládé* '(he) came having won money at the races'; *yauttè ywágà ságèmé* '(I) will eat in the village to which I come'; *tayaukkà shè kóuhni?*, *tayaukkà hnashéjò šibábí* 'one (of them) is nineteen; one is over twenty'; *lúdáingábè pyòjádé* 'everybody says (so)'; *?acígà bá lou? sâðalè* 'what does the big one do for a living?' (the context refers to the son of one of the speakers); *?ayíngà bamá pyéihmá néidé* 'formerly (I) lived in Burma'; *?ayíngàde? póu wádé* '(he) is fatter than formerly'; *hóudungádò ?alou? myádé* 'at that time (I) was busy'; *θú manèi-nyàgà θwázayá šídélòu coukkóu pyódé* 'he told me that he had to go last night'; *khúdíngábè pyán θwádé* 'he went back just now'; *lúngédè θóunlálaukkà dí ywánàgà θwádá myíndé* 'about three months ago (I) saw (them) going from the neighborhood of this village'.

85. *-kóu* denotes place or time to which, receiver of action, material:

yáŋgóun myòugóu θwáðé '(he) went to Rangoon'; *dígóu lágèbá* 'come here'; *?athègóu wímbá* 'go inside'; *taníŋganwéi nèigóu ?athin šimé* '(it) will be ready Sunday'; *lèináyígóu pyán lábá* 'come back at four o'clock'; *khímbyá naukkóu cou?* *malaicchímbú* 'I do not want to follow you'; *mí mapábé nyágóu lán mašauwúmbú* '(I) do not dare to walk at night without a light'; *manekkóu káphí takhwennè ce? ?ù hnalóun pyou? péibá* 'in the morning prepare two boiled eggs and a cup of coffee'; *sázayámyágóu ?alóu mašibú* '(we) have no need of food'; *khawwéiwéihmá mīgóu thwe? néidágóu myínyadé* '(I) see smoke issuing in the distance'; *lóunjígóu bamá lúmyóudòu wutté* 'Burmans wear skirts'; *dóubígóu θwá péibá* 'go and give (it) to the launderer'; *?awukkóu dóubí péijíndé* '(I) want to give clothes to the launderer'; *šwéi ?asikkóu lou? tháyadé ?atwe? tayágá šò mayáunhnáimbú* 'because it is made of real gold (I) cannot sell (it) for less than a hundred'; *thúgóu mèi cìbá* 'ask him and see' (note change of tone: cf. *thú mèi cìdè* 'he asked').

86. *-nè* denotes accompaniment, instrumentality:

bá hìnnè sámalé 'with what curry will (you) eat?'; *θímbónè θwáde* '(he) went by steamer'; *dánè phyatté* '(he) cut (it) with a knife'; *dí nyá ?atwe? dánèbè tóbábí* 'for tonight that will be enough indeed'; *θadínè θwá* 'go with care'; *takhá taléi kán káunynín, ŋwéi šálòu lwélwénè yádatté* 'sometimes if (your) luck is good, (you) can find money with ease'; *counnè ?atú laikkhèbá* 'come along with me'; *khímbyánè badú badú laiθhalé* 'who went with you?'; *lephma? tazáunnè tazáun ?ayáunjín matúbú* 'the color of the tickets is not the same'; *myòunè bélau? wéiðéiðalé* 'how far is the city still?' (cf. *myòu bélau? wéiðéiðalé*); *shín ?ayínnè shín ?ayáingóu bèné lou? θihnáimmalé* 'how will we be able to tell tame elephants from wild ones?'; *myéibóundéhmá bé ywánè nílèimmé, thínðalé* 'according to the map what village is near, do (you) think?'; *?ánándá phayánè θappýínnnyú phayágóu wín phájínðéidé* '(I) want still to go in and view the Ananda and That-pyinnyu Pagodas'; *dí ywágá ywá θajíhá, counnè ?ímmatán khíndé θañéjímbe* 'the headman of this village is a very dear friend of mine'.

SECONDARY VERB PARTICLES, 87-108

87. SECONDARY VERB PARTICLES follow the verb head. They fall into three groups: those which occur in both narrative and imperative sentences (88-93); those which occur only in narrative sentences (94-103); those which occur only in imperative sentences (104-108). Juncture is close preceding the secondary verb particle, and in a narrative sentence between the secondary particle and a following final particle (36).

88. *-cà* denotes plurality:

májáyèlá 'how are (you, they)?'; *májábáyè* '(we, they) are well'; *khímbyádòu ?akóunlóun ná léjðalá* 'do you all understand?'; *couttòu ?akóunlóun ná léjðadé* 'we all understand'; *θwájábá* 'go'; *θwájázòu* 'let us go'.

89. *-khè* denotes different place or time:

khímbyádòu ?akhù mane? bé ywágá manessá ságèðalé 'at which village did you eat breakfast this morning?'; *ywáðégá maságèbú* '(we) did not eat in a village'; *cou? ?akhámhmá mèi néigèdè* 'I forgot and left (it) in my room'; *manepphámhmábé lagémé* '(I) will come tomorrow for sure'; *dígóu lágèbá* 'come here'.

90. *-lai?* denotes action away from the situation; definitive action:

siθθábáun bélau? *myádá myínlaiθθalé* 'how many soldiers altogether did you see?'; *?akhù lánchágóu khólaippá* 'now call a rickshaw'; *jápán lúmyóu tamyóulðun ?amyóu phyou?* *phyellaimmé* 'the entire Japanese race will be completely destroyed'.

91. *-?ðun* denotes continuance, repetition, further action:

θwá?ðumménó '(I) am going to go, i.e. goodbye'; *cou?* *θùgóu sàun?ðummé* '(I) shall continue to wait for him'; *dájáun θanējimmyágóu θwá mèi cì?ðummé* 'for that reason I'll go and ask some of my friends and see'; *šyínlé, šjálèin-?ðummé* '(I think) they might possibly still be (here)'; *shé mani?* *nábá?ðun* 'rest for ten minutes'; *khanà nájá?ðunzòu* 'let us rest for a moment'; *pyán pyóbbá?ðun* 'please repeat'; *thamín yú lábá?ðun* 'bring more rice'; *maθwánè?ðun* 'don't go yet' (note that *-?ðun* in a negative command follows the negative final particle 47).

92. *-pá* denotes politeness:

θwábá 'go', cf. *θwá* (41); *pyóyèlá* 'are (you) happy?': *pyóbáyè* '(I) am happy': *dílóu ?immatán káumbalèimmé* 'this way (it) will be very good'; *bámà maphyí-pázéinè* 'don't let anything happen'.

92.1. In first-person commands and in third-person commands with *-léi* (72), *-pá* is replaced by atonic *-pa-*:

?éingóu θwábayazéi 'let me go home': *ta-nyá-lau?* *tébayazéi* 'let me stay for a night or so'; *θwábaléizéi* 'let him go'.

92.2. Before the final particle *-mé* (39), *-pá* is sometimes replaced by *-pà* (tone III):

lounlauppámálá 'will (it) be sufficient?'; *lounlauppámé* '(it) will be sufficient'.

93. *-tò* denotes necessity, permission:

θwádòmé '(I) must be going, i.e. goodbye'; *θwádò* or *θwádònó* 'go, i.e. goodbye [to one leaving]'; *šìðéiðalá* 'are (there) still (some)?': *mašìdòbú* '(there) are not of necessity'.

Narrative, 94-103

94. *-chín* denotes desire:

bá lóujínðalé 'what do (you) want?'; *bámà malóujimbú* '(I) don't want anything'; *θwájíndé* '(I) want to go'; *maθwájimbú* '(I) don't want to go'.

95. *-hlà* denotes excess. Infrequent:

céizá cihlábí 'thanks very much'; *dí myóuhmá néilòu pyóðalá* 'are (you) happy living in this city?': *témapyóhlábábú* '(I) am not very happy'; *coullè khímbyádòugóu twèijíndá cáhlábí* '(it) has been a very long time that I have wanted to see you too'.

96. *-hnáin* denotes ability:

θwáhnáinðalá 'can (you) go?'; *maθwáhnáimbú* '(I) can not go'; *dìde? zéi mašò-hnáimbálá* 'can't (you) make the price less than this?'; *mašòhnáimbú* '(I) can't make (it) less'; *bé ?akhámashóu cou?* *?éingóu wínhnáin thwethnáimbádé* 'at any time at all (you) can enter or leave my house'.

97. *-lèin* denotes probability. This particle is used only in conjunction with the final particle *-mé* (39):

θwálèimmé '(he) will probably go'; *môu ywálèimmé, thínðalá* 'do (you) think it will rain?'; *môu ywálèimmé, mathimbú* '(I) don't think it will rain'; *dílou ?immatán káumbálèimmé* 'this way (it) will probably be very good'.

98. *-hlù* denotes imminence. Very infrequent:

yauthlùbt '(he) is just about to arrive'.

99. *-mì* denotes inadvertence:

pyómìdé '(he) misspoke inadvertently'; *maθìlòu pyómìdé* '(he) inadvertently misspoke because (he) didn't know'; *?alou? šou? néidè ?atwe? péimibádé* 'because business is in a state of confusion, (I) gave (it to you) by mistake'.

100. *-phú* denotes past time:

myín síbúðalá 'have (you) ever ridden a horse?'; *masíbúbú* '(I) have never ridden'; *maloupphúbú* '(he) has never worked'; *bélau? cájá néibúðalé* 'how long did (you) live (there) at that time?'; *cou? θùgòu takhá taléi twéibúdé* 'I used to see him sometimes'.

101. *-θéi* denotes further action:

ywá bélau? wéiðéiðalé 'how far is the village still?'; *θéi? mawéiðéibábú* '(it) is not very far still'; *lú léi náyau? lóuðéidé* 'four or five people are still missing'.

102. *-wùn* denotes daring:

tódégóu khímbyá θwáwùnðalá 'do you dare go into the forest?'; *tayauthé maθwá-wùmbú* '(I) don't dare go alone'.

103. *-yà* denotes compulsion:

θwáyàdé '(he) had to go'; *maθwáyábú* '(he) didn't have to go'; *pyán lágèyàdè* '(he) had to come back'.

Imperative, 104-108

104. *-lá* denotes urgent imperative. Infrequent:

dígóu lágèbálá 'come here!'; *louppálá* 'do (it)!'

105. *-sán* denotes polite urgency:

cizán 'look'; *hmánzán* 'try (it)'; *pyózá* 'speak up'.

106. *-séi* marks first-person-singular and third-person commands:

θwábayázéi 'let me go'; *θwábázéi* 'let him (them) go'; *θwájábázéi* 'let them go'; *θwábaléizéi* 'let him (them) go' (expecting compliance); *maθwábayázéinè* 'let me not go'; *maθwábázéinè* 'let him (them) not go'.

107. *-sòu* marks first-person-plural commands:

θwájàzòu 'let us go'; *?éingóu pyánjàzòu* 'let us return home'; *thamìn θwá sàjà-bàzòu* 'let us go eat'; *maθwàzòuné* 'let us not go'.

108. *-yà?áun* marks first-person-plural commands:

θwá mèi cìyà?áun 'let us go ask and see'; *còuttòu θwá cìyà?áun* 'let us go and see'.

AUXILIARY VERBS, 109-120

109. Auxiliary verbs function both as full verbs and as modifiers immediately following full verbs in close juncture. In negative sentences the negative particle *ma-* (46) is never attached to an auxiliary verb.

110. *?ádé* 'is free, disengaged, at leisure':

khímbyá θwá?áðalá 'are you free to go?'; *maθwá?ábú* '(I) am not free to go'.

111. *ʔatté* 'is right, proper':
pyóʔaθθalá 'is (it) right, proper to say?', *mapyóʔapphú* '(it) is not proper to say'.
112. *káundé* 'is good'. This is infrequent:
maθwágáumbú '(it) is not good to go', cf. the more frequent *θwábòu makáumbú* '(it) is not good to go'; *θwágáun θwálèimmé* '(he) may go'; *houkkáun houllèimmé* '(it) may be so'.
113. *khédé* 'is hard, difficult':
ʔimmatán twèigèdé '(they) are very difficult to find'.
114. *loutté* 'is enough, sufficient':
paissán malóunlaupphú 'money is not sufficient, i.e. (I) don't have enough money'; *khímbyá làgà sálauθθalá* 'is your salary sufficient to live on?'; *masálapphú* '(it) is not sufficient to live on'.
115. *phyitté* 'happens, takes effect, is practicable':
khímbyálé lábyiʔʔáun, *pyán lágèbá* 'you too actually come back'; *malábyipphú* '(he) did not actually come back'; *maloupphyipphú* '(he) did not actually do (it)'.
116. *séidé* 'sends, causes to do'. This is infrequent:
pyózéijéndé '(I) want to have (you) talk'; *mapyózéijimbú* '(I) do not want to have (you) talk'; *malousséijimbú* '(I) do not want to have (him) do (it)'.
117. *tatté* 'knows how, is customary, is the usual course':
ʔingaleiʔ zagá pyódathθalá 'do (you) speak English?'; *mapyódapphú* '(I) do not speak (it)'; *mwéizòu lúgòu kaiyyín, lú θéidatté* 'if a poisonous snake bites a person, the person usually dies'; *nyágòu mwéi θeiʔ twèidatté* 'at night (one) can find lots of snakes'; *shèileiʔ maθauttapphú* '(I) do not smoke cigars'.
118. *thaitté* 'is suitable, fit':
dí mwéizòugòu θatthaitθalá 'is it proper to kill these poisonous snakes?'; *dáuygòu pyitthaitθalá* 'is it proper to shoot peacocks?'; *mapyitthaiipphú* 'it is not proper to shoot (them)'.
119. *θindé* 'is suitable, proper, becoming':
dílóu mapyóðimbú '(it) is not becoming to speak this way'; *maθwáðimbú* '(it) is not suitable to go'; *yóunðindé* '(it) is to be believed'; *mayóunðimbú* '(it) is not to be believed'.
120. *yádé* 'gets, obtains'; as auxiliary verb: 'has the opportunity of'; cf. -yá (103):
ná tháumbá : couʔ nádèhmá θanaʔ pyiθámmýá cáyàdé 'listen ... I heard the sound of shots near here'; *bébekká cáyàðalé* 'from which side did (you) hear (them)?'; *couʔ macáyábú* 'I did not hear (them)'.

CHAPTER 5

NOUN EXPRESSIONS, 121-148

121. A noun, or a phrase with a noun head, or a co-ordinative phrase with noun expressions as members, is a NOUN EXPRESSION. A phrase which is a noun expression is a NOUN PHRASE.

122. Nouns are of four types: ordinary nouns, interrogative nouns (131), numerals (132-140), classifiers (141-148).

123. In a noun phrase the head noun or a noun member has one or more attributes of the following types: noun expression (124-128), verb expression following (129), verb expression preceding (130).

124. A noun expression attribute is a noun expression which precedes the head noun. Juncture is close between the attribute and the head noun unless a particle intervenes (125-128):

yéi 'water' : *káphí* 'coffee' : *káphíyéi* 'coffee (beverage)'; *pyá* 'bee' : *pyáyéi* 'honey'; *léimmóðí* 'orange (fruit)' : *léimmóyéi* 'orange juice'; *thámbayáðí* 'lemon (fruit)' : *thámbayáyéi* 'lemon juice'; *póun* 'container' : *yéibóun* 'bucket'; *?óu* 'jar' : *yéi?óu* 'water jar'; *twín* 'cave, hole' : *yéidwín* 'well'.

hín 'curry' : *há* 'fish' : *háhín* 'fish curry'; *we?* 'pig' : *?aθá* 'flesh' : *weθá* 'pork' : *weθáhín* 'pork curry'; *ceθá* 'chicken (meat)' : *ceθáhín* 'chicken curry'; *?aθí* 'fruit' : *ywe?* 'leaf' : *hínðí hínywe?* 'vegetables'.

tai? 'brick building' : *sá* 'letter, writing' : *sáðai?* 'post office'; *?asóuyá* 'government' : *?asóuyáðai?* 'government building'; *?éin* 'house' : *tai?éin* 'brick house'.

tòu 'plurality' : *cou?* 'I' : *couttòu* 'we'; *khímbyá* 'you' : *khímbyáðòu* 'you (pl.)'; *thú* 'he, she, it' : *thúðòu* 'they'; *lú* 'person' : *lúmyá* 'people' cf. 129 : *lúmyáðòu* 'people (in general)'; *siθá* 'soldier' : *siθáðòu* 'soldiers'.

125. Certain noun expression attributes, which consist of a syllable in tone I or II, change to tone III before the head noun:

thú zagabyán 'he (is an) interpreter' : *thú nyt zagabyán* 'his younger brother (is an) interpreter'; *khímbyá badúlê* 'who (are) you?' : *khímbyá θayéjín badúlê* 'who (is) your friend?'; *sháin* 'shop' : *šin* 'master' : *sháin šin* 'storekeeper'; *?éin* 'house' : *?éin šin* 'householder'.

Quite often, however, the tone remains unchanged: *?éinšin* occurs beside *?éin šin*, *sháinšin* beside *sháin šin*, with no difference of meaning.

126. Noun expression attributes formed from verb expressions by means of the enclitic particles *-tè* (134) or *-mè* (155) precede the head noun with open juncture:

lú káundé 'the person is good' : *káundè lú* 'good person', cf. *lúgáun* (129); *shóudé* 'is bad' : *shóudè lú* 'evil person', cf. *luzóu* (129); *méimma hóuhmá ya?* *néidé* 'a woman is standing there' : *hóuhmá ya? néidé méimma* 'the woman who is standing there'; *lú manepphán yaummé* 'a person will arrive tomorrow' : *manepphán yauttè lú* 'the person who arrives tomorrow', cf. next paragraph; *hóu lúhá bamá mahoupphá* 'that person is not Burmese' : *bamá mahouttè lú* 'a person who is not Burmese'.

Noun expression attributes in *-mè* are very infrequent:

ywágóu θwámè '(they) will go to the village' : *θwámè ywágóu* 'the village to which (they) will go'.

127. Noun expression attributes formed from verb expressions by means of the enclitic particle *-phòu* (157) precede the head noun with open juncture:

θαυπφòu yéi 'water for drinking', cf. *θαυyyéi* (130); *ταιπφòu cwè* 'buffalo for fighting'; *pyáimβòu myín* 'race horse'; *θwábòu lán* 'road for going'.

128. Noun expression attributes plus *-kà* (84) or *-nè* (86) precede the head noun with open juncture:

dí ywágà θajíhá, counnè ?immatán khíndè θajéjimbè 'the headman of this village is a very dear friend of mine'; *dí cháundégà yéihá, yéi nautté* 'the water of this stream is dirty'; *hóubekkàngà ywá, bá ywá khóðalé* 'what is the village on that bank called?'; *léinè léi bélaullé* 'how much is four and four?'; *shabín hnyattánè mousshei? yeikkhá, bélaullé* 'what is the charge for a haircut and shave?'

129. Certain verb expression attributes follow the head noun. The juncture is close:

khédé 'is hard' : *yéigé* 'ice'; *chóudé* 'is sweet, not salt' : *yéijóu* 'fresh water'; *γándé* 'is salty' : *yéiyán* 'salt water'; *séindé* 'is raw, uncooked' : *yéizéin* 'fresh water, i.e. unboiled water'.

lú káundé 'the person is good' : *lúgáun* 'good person', cf. *káundé lú* (126); *shóudé* 'is bad' : *lúzòu* 'evil person', cf. *shóudé lú* (126); *pyíndé* 'is lazy, bored' : *lúbyín* 'lazy person'; *mádé* 'is well' : *mamába* 'is not well' : *lúmamá* 'sick person, patient'.

130. Some verb expression attributes precede the head noun in close juncture. Attributes of this type are limited in occurrence. They occur only where a parallel phrase may be spoken in which the noun head is preceded by a noun attribute of the type in 127:

θαυtté 'drinks' : *θαυyyéi* 'drinking water', cf. *θαυπφòu yéi* (127); *θòundé* 'uses' : *θòunyéi* 'general purpose water'; *le? shéidé* 'washes hands' : *le? shéiyéi* 'water for washing the hands'; *yéi chóudé* 'bathes' : *chóuyéi* 'bath water'; *taitté* 'fights' : *ce?* 'chicken' : *taicce?* 'game cock'; *cwè* 'buffalo' : *taiccwè* 'fighting buffalo'; *pyáindé* 'competes' : *myín* 'horse' : *pyáimmyín* 'race horse'.

INTERROGATIVE NOUNS, 131

131. The interrogative nouns *bá* 'what' and *bé* 'which', and noun expressions in which they appear, are accompanied in questions by the interrogative particle *-lé* (43):

bá lóujínðalé or *bágóu lóujínðalé* 'what do (you) want?'; *bá phyillòulé* 'why'; *bájáunlé* 'why'; *bá keissà sílòu θají ?éingóu θwáðalé* 'because of what business did (you) go to the headman's house?'; *bámyágóu wéjínðalé* 'what do (you) want to buy?'

béhmá néiðalé 'where do (you) live?'; *bégóu θwáðalé* 'where did (you) go?'; *bégà láðalé* 'where did (you) come from?'; *bélóu louθhalé* 'how is (it) done?'; *bélau? càðalé* 'how much does (it) come to?'; *bédò yaummalé* 'when will (he) arrive?'; *bénáhmá šiðalé* 'in which neighborhood is it?'; *bé pyéihmá néiðalé* 'in which country does (he) live?'; *lé tabeiθhá khé tabeiθhá, bédìngà póu léiðalé* 'which

is heavier, a viss of cotton or a viss of lead?'; *badú θwáðalé* 'who went?' (spoken slowly this often appears as *béðá θwáðalé*).

Contrast between *bá* and *bé* appears in pairs like the following:

bá yánðúlé 'what enemy?'; *bé yánðúlé* 'which (of more than one) enemy?'

NUMERALS, 132-140

132. The cardinal numerals from 1 to 9 are as follows:

1 <i>ti?</i> (<i>ta-</i>)	6 <i>chau?</i>
2 <i>hni?</i> (<i>hna-</i>)	7 <i>khúnni?</i> (<i>khúnna-</i>)
3 <i>θoun</i>	8 <i>ši?</i>
4 <i>léi</i>	9 <i>kóu</i>
5 <i>ηá</i>	

In close juncture with a following classifier (141), *ti?*, *hni?*, and *khúnni?* are replaced by the atonic forms *ta-*, *hna-*, and *khúnna-*.

133. The tens from 10 to 90 consist of *shé* preceded in close juncture by a digit.

10 <i>tashé</i>	60 <i>chaussé</i>
20 <i>hnashé</i>	70 <i>khúnnashé</i>
30 <i>θounzé</i>	80 <i>šissé</i>
40 <i>léizé</i>	90 <i>kóuzé</i>
50 <i>ηázé</i>	

134. The numerals from 11 to 99, except for the tens, consist of *shè* (tone III) preceded by a digit in close juncture and followed by a digit in open juncture. From 11 to 19 there occur also numerals which consist of *shè* (tone III) followed in open juncture by a digit.

11 <i>tashè ti?</i> or <i>shè ti?</i>	57 <i>ηázè khúnni?</i> or <i>ηázè khún</i>
12 <i>tashè hni?</i> or <i>shè hni?</i>	68 <i>chaussè ši?</i>
13 <i>tashè θoun</i> or <i>shè θoun</i>	79 <i>khúnnashè kóu</i>
24 <i>hnashè léi</i>	81 <i>šissè ti?</i>
35 <i>θounzé ηá</i>	92 <i>kóuzè hni?</i>
46 <i>léizè chau?</i>	

135. The hundreds consist of *yá* preceded in close juncture by a digit.

100 <i>tayá</i>
200 <i>hnayá</i>
300 <i>θounyá</i>
400 <i>léiyá</i>
500 <i>ηáyá</i>

136. The numerals from 101 to 999, except for the hundreds, consist of *yá* (tone III) preceded by a digit in close juncture and followed by a number in open juncture.

101 <i>tayá ti?</i>
202 <i>hnayá hni?</i>
330 <i>θounyá θounzé</i>
555 <i>ηáyá ηázè ηá</i>
678 <i>chauyá khúnnashè ši?</i>

137. Variants of the numerals from 11 to 999 consist of *shé* or *yá* preceded by a

digit in close juncture and followed by the noun particle *-nè* (86), and the whole expression followed by a number.

88 *šiss'héné ší?*

101 *tayánè tí?*

330 *θóunyánè θóunzé*

678 *chawyyánè khánnashè ší?*

138. The numerals from 1,000 to 9,999 consist of *táun* used as follows:

1,000 *táun*

1,001 *táun tí?*; *tháun tí?*; *táunnè tí?*

1,100 *táun tayá*; *tháun tayá*; *táunnè tayá*

1,101 *táun tayá tí?*; and as above

1,944 *táun kóuyà léizè léi*

139. From 10,000 on the numerals are formed as in 138, using as a basis the following list:

10,000 *taáun*

100,000 *taéin*

1,000,000 *taán*

10,000,000 *tagadéi*

140. A special group of ordinal numerals consists of borrowings from Pali. Only the first three are in common use:

pathamá '1st'; *dùtiyá* '2nd'; *tatiyá* '3rd'.

The ordinals from 4th to 10th are recited by the informant but not used in conversation. They are:

zadouttà '4th'; *pyínsamá* '5th'; *shathamá* '6th'; *θattamá* '7th'; *?athamá* '8th'; *nawamá* '9th'; *daθamá* '10th'.

CLASSIFIERS, 141-148

141. CLASSIFIERS are nouns which occur immediately after numerals or *bèhna-* 'how many'. Phrases which consist of a classifier preceded in close juncture by a numeral or *bèhna-* are CLASSIFIER PHRASES. Classifier phrases often appear with a preceding noun expression attribute in open juncture; the noun expression attribute means that which is counted:

lú tayau? '1 person'.

There are three types of classifiers (142-144).

142. A classifier phrase containing a classifier of type 1 can be preceded by various noun expression attributes:

lú tayau? '1 person'; *mèimmá hnayau?* '2 women'; *hlàdè ?apyóu θóunyaw?* '3 pretty girls'; *chawyyau?* '6 (of them)'.

143. A classifier phrase containing a classifier of type 2 is preceded only by a noun expression whose head is the same word as the classifier:

?éin ta?éin '1 house'; *tai?éinjì hna?éin* '2 big brick houses'; *ywá θóunywá* '3 villages'; *tóywágaléi léiywá* '4 little country villages'.

144. A classifier phrase whose classifier is of type 3 is never preceded by a noun expression attribute:

hnahni? '2 years'; *θóunlà* '3 months'; *léiye?* '4 days'; *ηámani?* '5 minutes'.

145. Tens, hundreds, and so on, are not followed by a classifier. The numeral

ten, *tashé*, occurs both with and without a classifier, but when it is used with a classifier it lacks the prefixed *ta-*:

lú shéyau? '10 people'; *lú tashé* '10 people'; *myîn léizé* '40 horses'; *máin tayá* '100 miles'; *?éin tatháun gáyá* '1500 houses'.

146. Common classifiers of type 1 are the following:

cha? 'flat things' : *kózó hnacha?* '2 carpets'; *sekkú thúnja?* '3 sheets of paper'.

cháun 'long and slender things' : *khédán tacháun* '1 pencil'; *zún chaucáun* 'half a dozen spoons'.

káun 'animals' : *myau?* *hnakáun* '2 monkeys'; *myîn thungáun* '3 horses'.

khù 'units'; often substitute for another classifier (148): *myepmán takhù* '1 pair of spectacles'; *zagabóun takhù* '1 story, fable'.

khún 'words, utterances'; *zagá takhún* '1 word, sentence, utterance'.

kwîn 'circles, hoops' : *lessu?* *hnakwîn* '2 finger rings'; *lekkau?* *thungwîn* '3 bracelets'.

le? 'tools and weapons' : *dá tale?* '1 knife'; *thana?* *tale?* '1 gun'.

loun 'spherical or cubical things' : *tittá taloun* '1 box'; *?ou taloun* '1 pot'.

pá 'sacred or immaterial things' : *phóunji hnapá* '2 priests'; *?ayei?* *thóumbá* '3 intimations, warnings'.

phe? 'one of a pair' : *myessi taphe?* '1 eye'; *le?* *hnaphe?* '2 hands (of different individuals)'.

pín 'trees, hairs, threads' : *?amwéi tapín* '1 hair of the body'; *kóukóu hnapín* '2 cocoa trees'.

sáun 'writings' : *lephma?* *thóunzáun* '3 tickets'; *ságaléi hnasáun* '2 notes'.

sháun 'buildings' : *cáun tasháun* '1 monastery'; *?éin tasháun* '1 house'.

shú 'pagodas, images of the Buddha' : *phayá hmasú* '2 pagodas'.

sí 'things ridden' : *shín hnasí* '2 riding elephants'; *hlé hnasí* '2 carts'.

sín 'ships, automobiles, cutting and piercing instruments'; *thimbó tazín* '1 ship'; *mótóká hnasín* '2 automobiles'; *hmyá chaussín* '6 arrows'.

sóun 'pairs, complete assortments' : *le?ei?* *tazóun* '1 pair of gloves'; *?awu?* *hnasóun* '2 suits of clothes'.

šin 'yokes of animals' : *nvá tašin* '1 yoke of bullocks'; *cwé tašin* '1 yoke of buffalo'.

thé 'articles of clothing' : *chwéigán ?éinji chautthé* '6 undershirts'; *báumbí tathé* '1 pair of pants'.

yán 'pairs' : *lekkau?* *tayán* '1 pair of bracelets'; *nadáun tayán* '1 pair of earrings'.

yau? 'human beings' : *lú tayau?* '1 person'; *thamínje?* *tayau?* '1 cook'.

147. Some nouns appear both in ordinary noun use and as classifiers of type 1. They denote units of measure and the like:

shán tabeiθá '1 viss of rice'; *?aye?* *tabalín* '1 bottle of whiskey'; *lé bēhna?éiká* 'how many acres of paddy field'; *zagá hnamyóu* '2 kinds of language'; *billaye?* *tabwé* '1 game of billiards'.

148. As indicated in the preceding paragraphs, type 1 classifiers determine classes of nouns with which the several classifiers are used. However, the selection of a classifier is not rigidly restricted.

In many expressions *khù* 'unit' occurs with nouns which are also counted by means of another classifier of type 1 or 2:

kalatháin talóun, kalatháin takhù '1 chair'; *lephma? tazáun, lephma? takhù* '1 ticket'.

Otherwise also, some nouns appear with more than one classifier of type 1:
mìbà hnayau?, mìbà hnapá '2 parents'; *shín hnakáun, shín hnasí, shín tašín* '2 elephants'.

In some cases nouns which are counted by means of type 2 classifiers are also counted by means of type 1 classifiers:

?éin ta?éin, ?éin talóun, ?éin tasháun, ?éin takhù '1 house'; *tó tadó, tó takhù* '1 forest'.

CHAPTER 6

DERIVATION, 149-178

149. Noun expressions are derived from verb expressions by means of proclitic atonic particles (150, 151), and enclitic particles (152-162).

150. Proclitic *ʔa-*:

loutté '(he) works' : *ʔalouʔ* 'work' : *ʔalouʔ loutté* '(he) does as work' : *ʔaloukkóu* *θwámé* '(he) will go to work'; *myádé* 'is many' : *ʔamyá* 'many' : *céizú ʔamyájí* *tímbádé* 'very many thanks'; *tídé* 'beats or plucks, as a musical instrument' : *hmoutté* 'blows, plays a wind instrument' : *ʔatí ʔahmouʔ* 'music'; *θóundé* 'uses' : *ʔathóun* 'use' : *ʔathóun macábú* 'is not of use'.

151. Proclitic *ta-*. This particle is not freely productive and occurs in a limited number of fairly common words. It is more frequent in doubled nouns (173):

lwédé 'errs, is wrong' : *talwé loutté* '(he) does (it) wrong'; *chòudé* 'is defective, wanting, incomplete' : *tachòu* 'some' : *tachòu táunyá ʔalouʔ louʔ sádé* 'some make their living as farmers'; *sáundé* 'slants' : *tazáun* 'slanting' : *tazáun ʔeiʔ néidé* '(he) is sleeping on (his) side'; *šautté* 'passes lengthwise' : *lán* 'road' : *lán šautté* 'walks' : *lán tašaułłóun bá sháímmá matwèibú* '(I) did not find a shop on the whole walk'.

ENCLITIC PARTICLES, 152-162

152. Enclitic *-tá*:

myádé 'is many' : *myádá* 'many' : *lúbáun bélaunʔ myádá myínlaiθθalé* 'how many men altogether did (you) see?'; *loutté* 'works' : *louttá* 'work' : *couʔ louttá káunđalá* 'is what I did good?'; *pyódé* 'speaks' : *pyódá* 'speech, speaking' : *pyódágóu ná léđalá* 'did (you) understand what was said?'; *myíndé* 'sees' : *twèidé* 'finds, meets' : *mamyímbábú* 'never saw' : *matwèibábú* 'never met' : *mamyímbú matwèibú-dámyágóulé mýínyá twèiyádé* '(you) have the opportunity of observing what (you) have never seen, too'.

153. Enclitic *-hmá*:

yautté 'arrives' : *yaummé* 'will arrive' : *lúgóu doukkhá yauphmá sóuyéinyádé* '(the government) is concerned lest people get into trouble'; *hmámé* 'will err' : *lán hmáhmá sóuyéindé* '(he) is concerned about missing the road'.

154. Enclitic *-té*:

šidé 'is present' : *mašíbú* 'is not present' : *mathúyín, khímbyá šidé mašidégóu bené louʔ θíhnáímmalé* 'if (you) do not answer, how can (I) know whether you are present or not?'.

154.1. When a noun expression formed with the enclitic *-té* precedes a noun which it modifies (126), the enclitic changes to *-tè* (tone III):

hmándé 'is correct' : *hmándè ʔaphyéigóu lóujtndé* '(I) want the correct answer'; *ʔasheiʔ mašíbú* 'there is no poison' : *ʔasheiʔ mašidè mwéilè šidé* 'there are also non-poisonous snakes'; *lephmaʔ wédé* '(he) buys tickets' : *lephmaʔ wédé ʔapauʔ hóuhmá šidé* 'the ticket window is over there'; *šèigá myínyádé* '(you) have the opportunity of seeing (it) ahead' : *šèigá myínyádè tóhóubephmá ka-nyukkwin*

myòu šìdè 'Kanyutkwín City is on the other side of the forest (you) see ahead'; *θwádè* 'goes' : *ládè* 'comes' : *bé ?akhámashóu θwádè ládè ?akhá θadìnè θwábá* 'when-ever (you) come or go, go with care'.

154.2. When a noun expression formed with the enclitic *-té* is followed by a modifying verb (129), or by one of the general particles (61), the *-té* is replaced by the atonic *-θa-* (cf. 44):

lóujínθalau? yáhnáimbádé '(you) can get as much as (you) want'; *tathnaindé* '(he) can (do it)'; *tathnáinθalau? kú-nyí sàunšauppá* 'help as much as (you) can'; *sádémá yèidè* 'is written (in books) : *sádéhámá yèiθalóu mathnínθéibú* '(I) do not want to learn (the language) as it is written (in books)'; *khímbyá nèidáin pyóθalóu θínjindé* '(I) want to learn your everyday speech'.

155. Enclitic *-mé*. This is very infrequent:

θwádè 'goes' : *θwámé* 'will go' : *bé ?achéinlau? ?akhù θwámè ywágóu yaummalé* 'about what time will (we) get to the village to which (we) are now coming?'

156. Enclitic *-sayá* denotes necessity or purpose:

θwázayá šìdè 'it is necessary to go'; *myau? θei? θanáizayá káundé* 'monkeys are much to be pitied'; *sázayámyá lóuθalá* 'is there need of food?'; *sázayá néizayá ?atwe? masóuyéimbánè* 'do not be concerned about food and lodging'; *dí twéhmá tháinzayá néiyá mašibú* 'there is no place to sit in this car'; *θimbónè θwáyín, ?immatán pyózayá káundé* 'it is very enjoyable to go by steamer'.

157. Enclitic *-phòu* denotes possibility or purpose:

bégóu θwábòu káunθalè 'where is it good to go?' *nyéi šábòu θei? khetté* 'it is very difficult to find money'; *cou? néibòu néiyá šá néidé* 'I am looking for a place to live'; *lánchânè θwábòu θei? wèidé* 'it is too far to go by rickshaw'; *dí yéigóu θaup-phòu cou? cautté* 'I am afraid to drink this water'; *cou? ?akhù θwábòu lân hmádé* 'I have missed the road I should now be going'; *ywádéhámá tébòu zayammyá šibádé* 'there are rest houses for staying in the village'; *dájáun khímbyáðòu táin pyéigóu kú-nyí sàunšaupphòu couttòu ?améiyikán pyéigá ládé* 'that is the reason we came from America to help your country'.

158. Enclitic *-táin* 'every time'. This is infrequent:

bámashóu θúðòu twèidáin phyesshídé 'whenever they find anything they destroy (it)'; *khwèi háundáin thá chímé, shóuyín, lú ?eipphòu ?achéin mašibú* 'if you tie up a dog every time it barks, there is no time for people to sleep'.

159. Enclitic *-tòun* 'time when'. This is infrequent:

bamá pyéihámá néidòungá kalá lúmyóu coukkóu pyódé 'when (I) lived in Burma, Indian people talked to me'.

160. Enclitic *-yóun* 'just so much and no more'. This is infrequent:

myethná θiypphòu le? shéibòu shóuyín, bènèlè 'how (would it be) if (we use this water) for washing (our) hands and faces?' *myethná θiyyóunlé le? shéiyóunnè, keissá mašibú* 'never mind (what water it is) if it is just (a matter of) washing (your) hands and faces'.

161. Enclitic *-khín*. This is attached to negated verbs with the meaning 'before':

chaunnáyí mathòugín yau??áun, láyín, θá káunlèimmé 'if (you) come so as to arrive before (it) strikes six o'clock, it will probably be better'; *khúnnanáyí makhwégin yau??áun, pyán lágèbá* 'come back so as to arrive before seven-thirty'.

o'clock'; *macágin káungáun pyódappálemmé* 'before long (you) will probably be able to talk well'.

162. Enclitic *-phé*. This is attached to negated verbs with the meaning 'without':

má mapábé tódégóu maṭwánè 'do not go into the forest without a light'; *maṭibénè mapyónè* 'do not speak without knowing'.

DOUBLED VERBS, 163-171

163. Doubled verbs are noun expressions which consist of two verb members. The verb members may be the same verb repeated (164), the parts of a dissyllabic verb repeated (165), a negated verb repeated (166), two different negated verbs (167), a verb first member followed by a rhyming syllable (168), a verb first member followed by two rhyming syllables with initial *t-t* (169), a negated verb first member followed by a verb with prefixed *ta-* (170). Doubled verbs are often preceded by *kha?* (171).

164. When the members of a doubled verb are the same verb repeated, the juncture is close:

káundé 'is good' : *káungáun loutté* '(he) works well'; *hnèidé* 'is slow' : *hnèihnèi pyóbá* 'speak slowly'; *tándé* 'extends in a straight line' : *tándán ṭwá* 'go straight'; *tódé* 'is sufficient' : *tódó nyán káundé* 'is fairly intelligent'; *dá phyìn, khímbyá ṭáṭamádwéi tódó cī kóumbí* 'that being the case, your children are almost grown up'; *lwédé* 'is easy' : *ṭwéi lwélwénè mxyáhnáimbú* 'money can not be got with ease'; *nédé* 'is few, little' : *nèné ṭédé* '(he) is a little young (for that)' : *couttòugóu thín nènélau?* *śá pèibá* 'look for a little firewood for us'; *túdé* 'is the same' : *túdúbé* 'just the same'; *códé* 'is refined, genteel' : *?apyóu cójógaléimýálé ṭei? pódé* 'there are plenty of refined little girls too'; *tèdè* 'is straight' : *tèdè ṭwábá* 'go straight ahead' : *tèdèhmá śídé* '(it) is straight ahead'; *toutté* 'is short and thick' : *wádé* 'is fat' : *hládé* 'is pretty' : *touttou?* *wàwà ?apyóuhlá* 'short, fat, pretty girl'.

165. When the members of a doubled verb are the parts of a dissyllabic verb repeated, each syllable is repeated in close juncture with open juncture between the resulting doublings:

ṭéijádé 'is precise' : *ṭéiṭéi chájá mapyóhnáimbú* '(I) can not say precisely'; *thúzándé* 'is peculiar, strange' : *thúṭú shánzán loutté* '(he) acts peculiar'.

166. When the members of a doubled verb are a negated verb, the juncture is close:

cádé 'is long (in time)' : *macábú* 'is not long (in time)' : *cájá manéihnáimbú* '(I) can not stay long' : *ṭúlè cou? ?éingóu macámacá yautté* 'he also comes often to my house'.

167. When the members of a doubled verb are two different negated verbs, the juncture is close:

nídé 'is near' : *wèidé* 'is far' : *ywáné manáimawéihmá śídé* '(it) is not very far from the village'; *ládé* 'comes' : *chíndé* 'approaches' : *khímbyádòu malámachín couttòu dígá bégóumá maṭwábábú* 'until you come we will not go anywhere from here'.

168. When the members of a doubled verb are a verb followed by a rhyming syllable, the juncture is close:

kàndé 'marks across' : *kànlàn šidé* 'it is situated across'. *pháðá* 'of own accord' is apparently a construction of this kind in which neither member occurs as a free form; *pháðá néibázi* 'leave (him) alone'.

169. When the members of a doubled verb are a verb first member followed by two rhyming syllables with initial *t- t-*, the juncture is variable. Between the verb first member and the second syllable there is space juncture. Between the two rhyming syllables there may be open juncture, close juncture, or close juncture with loss of tone of the prior member:

nidé 'is red' : *ní tí tí* or *ní tídí* 'reddish'; *séindé* 'is green' : *séin téindéin* or *séin tadéin* 'greenish'; *nwéidé* 'is warm' : *nwéi téidéi* 'warmish'.

170. When the members of a doubled verb are a negated verb first member followed by a verb with prefixed *ta-*, the juncture is open. The first member, if tone I, changes to tone III:

pyèidé 'is full' : *mapyéi tabyéi* 'not quite full'; *thidé* 'touches' : *mathi tadì* 'not quite touching'; *hmíde* 'reaches' : *mahmì tahmì* 'not quite reaching'.

The second member is different in *mató tashà* 'by accident' (perhaps this is from *tózàdé* 'guesses, presumes').

171. Doubled verbs are often preceded by *kha?* 'rather, somewhat'. The juncture between *kha?* and what follows is close:

phyéibyèi θwábá 'go slowly' : *khapphyéibyèi θwábá* 'go rather slowly'; *khaccíjé* 'rather big'; *khayyòyò* 'rather slack'; *khathlànhlàn* 'not very far'; *khawwèiwéi* 'rather far'.

DOUBLED NOUNS, 172-178

172. Doubled nouns are noun expressions which consist of two noun members. The noun members may be the same noun repeated (173); the parts of a dissyllabic noun repeated (174); two different nouns (175); the same noun repeated with *ta-* prefixed to the first member (176); the same noun repeated, or two different nouns, with *ta-* prefixed to both parts (177).

173. When the members of a doubled noun are the same noun repeated, the juncture is close. When the noun members are derived nouns in *?a-* (150) or *ta-* (151), the *?a-* or *ta-* of the second member is dropped. When the nouns are independent nouns, which do not have *?a-* or *ta-*, *?a-* is prefixed to the prior member:

?amyóu 'race, people' : *?amyóumyóu* 'various on all races'; *?asà* 'start, beginning' : *?ayá* 'place' : *?asàzà ?ayáyá šádé* '(I) looked everywhere'.

taphyéibyèi phappá 'read slowly'; *talwélwé loutté* '(he) did it wrong'.

myóu 'city' : *?amyóumyóu* 'cities, in general'; *ywá* 'village' : *?aywáywá* 'villages, in general'.

174. When the members of a doubled noun are the parts of a dissyllabic noun with a modifier accompanying each part, the juncture is open between the two parts:

seille? 'mind' : *?éidé* 'is cool' : *sei??éi le??éi* 'relaxed' : *sei??éi le??éi shóuðalóu taphyéibyèi θwámé* '(I) will go slowly, relaxed, as the saying is'.

175. When the members of a doubled noun are two different nouns, the junc-

ture is close. The only examples of this construction quotable are nouns derived from verbs with the proclitic *ʔa-* (150):

ʔanî 'near' : *ʔaná* 'near' : *ʔanîʔanáhmá šídé* '(it) is near'; *ʔalouʔ* 'work' : *ʔakáin* (*káindé* 'uses, does') : *θù ʔalouʔʔakáin zagabyán* 'his profession (is that of) interpreter'.

176. When the members of a doubled noun are a noun repeated with *ta-* prefixed to the first member, the juncture is close. The prefixed *ta-* is the numeral *tíʔ* (132), and the members of this type of doubled noun are classifiers (141):

takhúgù 'one by one'; *tayauyyauʔ* 'one (person) by one'.

177. When the members of a doubled noun are nouns repeated with *ta-* (cf. 176) prefixed to both members, there is space juncture between them. The nouns used in this type of doubled noun are classifiers (141):

takhá takhá 'from time to time'; *tachéin takhá* 'from time to time'; *takhá taléi* 'from time to time'; *tayaussí tayaussí* 'one (person) after another'.

178. Doubled nouns with distributive force are used in questions requiring an enumeration (71):

hóu ʔalán, bá ʔayáun bá ʔayáunlé 'what color is that flag?' *khímbyá θajéjín, badú badúlé* 'who are your friends?'

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