A GRAMMATICAL STUDY OF THE DIALOGUE PASSAGES
OF THE NOVEL, NGA BA, BY MAUNG HTIN

Thesis submitted for the degree of
Master of Philosophy
in the University of London

by
MAUNG TUN MYINT

School of Oriental and African Studies
1971
ABSTRACT

The introductory chapter includes a short account of the author and his novel *Nga Ba*, with a brief study on the development of the Burmese novel. It also includes the type of transliteration used, and a statement about the theories on which this thesis is based.

The second chapter describes the types of sentences, i.e. Simple, Complex and Compound Sentences and their constituents, i.e. dependent clauses, independent clauses; sentence final particles or clusters of particles together with the sentence final intonation contours.

The third chapter describes the types of clauses, i.e. dependent and independent clauses and their constituents, i.e. noun groups, verb groups and clause markers.

The fourth chapter describes the non-basic constituents, i.e. vocatives and exclamations and their structures; and, optional constituents, i.e. adjuncts - locative and temporal adjuncts and their structures.

The fifth chapter includes the types of groups, i.e. noun groups and verb groups and their constituents nouns, verbs, post-noun particles and post-verb particles. The sub-types of groups, i.e. co-ordinate noun groups, item appositive noun groups and the verb groups with rank-shifted noun and verb groups as their
constituents together with the connectors, suffixes are also included.

The sixth chapter discusses words and word-classes, i.e. simple, complex and compound nouns, verbs/ particles. Their subclasses, i.e. pronouns, post-noun particles, post-verb particles, sentence final particles, nominalizing particles and interjections are also discussed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my most profound gratitude to my supervisor, Professor E.J.A. Henderson, for her able guidance, constant encouragement and limitless patience during the writing of this thesis and by whose criticism, suggestions and advice every page has benefited.

Grateful acknowledgements are due to Professor Hla Pe not only for his kind help and advice in matters connected with this thesis, but also for the deep interest he has always taken in my work.

I also wish to thank all the members of the staff of the Department of Phonetics and General Linguistics at the School of Oriental and African Studies for the knowledge I have gleaned from their lectures.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Title page</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of Contents</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of non-letter symbols</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Abbreviations</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER I  INTRODUCTION</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Short account of the author</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Maung Htin&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 The historical background of Burmese literature</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Synopsis of the novel Nga Ba</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 The linguistic aspect of Nga Ba</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 The aim and object of this thesis</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 Transliteration</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 Translation</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 Theoretical considerations</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER II  SENTENCES</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Sentences</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Sentence constituents</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Sentence final intonation contours</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Clause linking intonations</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.5 Sentence types 35
2.6 Simple sentences 36
2.7 Complex sentences 39
2.8 Sentence linkers 43
2.9 Particle-form sentence linkers 43
2.10 Construction-form sentence linkers 44
2.11 Pauses 45
2.12 Compound sentences 45
2.13 Sub-types of sentences 50
2.14 Non-basic constituents of sentences 57
2.15 Vocatives 58
2.16 Exclamations 59
2.17 Optional constituents of sentences 61
2.18 Expanded sentences 63

CHAPTER III CLAUSES

3.1 Clauses 72
3.2 Clause constituents 72
3.3 Clause types 73
3.4 Independent clauses 73
3.5 Group linking particles 74
3.6 The principal independent clause 74
  structures
3.7 Dependent clauses 82
3.8 Clause markers 83
3.9 Criteria for distinguishing 84
  independent and dependent clauses
CHAPTER IV  STRUCTURES OF NON-BASIC AND OPTIONAL SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS

4.1 Structure of non-basic and optional sentence constituents 93
4.2 Structure of vocatives 93
4.3 Structure of exclamations 95
4.4 Structure of temporal and locative adjuncts 96

CHAPTER V  GROUPS

5.1 Groups 99
5.2 Group constituents 99
5.3 Group types 100
5.4 Sub-types of groups 100
5.5 Simple noun groups 100
5.6 Co-ordinate noun groups 107
5.7 Connectors 107
5.8 Item appositive noun groups 110
5.9 Criterion to distinguish a co-ordinate noun group from an item appositive noun group 110
5.10 Rank-shifted groups 113
5.11 Suffixation 113
5.12 Suffixes 114
CHAPTER VI

5.13 Reduplication 115
5.14 Sub-types of verb groups 117
5.15 Simple verb groups 117
5.16 Auxiliaries 120
5.17 Intensifiers 123
5.18 Negative particles 126
5.19 Rank-shifted verb groups 129

CHAPTER VI

WORDS

6.1 Words 131
6.2 Word-classes 131
6.3 Nouns 131
6.4 Noun-types 132
6.5 Simple nouns 132
6.6 Complex nouns 134
6.7 Compound nouns 136
6.8 Sub-classes of nouns - prouns 139
6.9 Verbs 141
6.10 Verb-types 141
6.11 Simple verbs 142
6.12 Complex verbs 144
6.13 Compound verbs 145
6.14 Particles - particle types 148
6.15 Post-noun particles 149
6.16 Post-verb particles 151
6.17 Noun-verb particles 153
6.18 Sentence final particles 155
6.19 Nominalizing particles

6.20 Interjections

BIBLIOGRAPHY
LIST OF NON-LETTER SYMBOLS

||

sentence boundary

|

clause boundary

|

group boundary

[  ]

rank-shifted sentence boundary

{  }

non-basic and optional sentence constituent boundary

/ / 

word boundary

<  >

rank-shifted group

\rightarrow

 inexperienced

string

 indicates a broken unit

indicates the sequence as one word

obligatory

optional

indicates continuation
indicates pause

x indicates complex words

n (superscript) indicates any number

1-3 (superscript) number varies from one to three

suf. (superscript) indicates suffixation
**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

A = clause linking intonation (i.e. final fall)

aux. = Auxiliary verb (or auxiliaries)

B = Clause linking intonation (i.e. final rise)

CL = Clause linker

CM = Clause marker

c = Connector

Compd. n = Compound noun

Compd. S = Compound sentence

Compd. v = Compound verb

Compl. n = Complex noun

Compl. S = Complex sentence

Compl. v = Complex verb

DCL = Dependent clause

Ex. Compd. S = Expanded compound sentence

Ex. Compl. S = Expanded complex sentence

Ex. QS = Expanded question sentence

Gp = Group linking particle

ICL = Independent clause

intj. = Interjection

ints. = Intensifier

Loc. adjt = Locative adjunct

N = Noun group

Napp. = Item appositive noun group

Nco. = Co-ordinate noun group

n = Noun
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>neg.</td>
<td>Negative particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>np</td>
<td>Post-noun particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nvp</td>
<td>Noun-verb particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>np</td>
<td>Post-noun particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nvp</td>
<td>Noun-verb particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>Particle (sentence final) or cluster of particles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plp</td>
<td>Plural particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prn.</td>
<td>Pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RN</td>
<td>Rank-shifted noun group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RV</td>
<td>Rank-shifted verb group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS</td>
<td>Rank-shifted sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIC 1</td>
<td>Sentence final intonation contour 1 (i.e. final fall)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIC 2</td>
<td>Sentence final intonation contour 2 (i.e. rise-fall)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIC 3</td>
<td>Sentence final intonation contour 3 (i.e. final-rise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simp. n</td>
<td>Simple noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simp. S</td>
<td>Simple sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simp. v</td>
<td>Simple verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. adjt</td>
<td>Temporal adjunct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Verb group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc</td>
<td>Vocative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vp</td>
<td>Post-verb particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vs</td>
<td>verb-support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Short account of the author "Maung Htin"

Maung Htin was born in 1910 in Latputta. Latputta is a small town in Myaungmya district in the delta region. Since the delta region is essentially an agricultural area in lower Burma, it is inhabited mostly by farmers, peasants and tenants. So Maung Htin being brought up in such a community is no doubt well conversant in the life and amusements of agricultural people. That he has been their intimate friend and companion from his childhood is reflected in most of his writings.

Even though he was brought up among the farmers, peasants and tenants, he has had the opportunity of acquiring higher education. His well-to-do parents sent him to schools and to the university. He joined the University of Rangoon in 1926. It could be said that he started his literary career at that time. He wrote a few literary bits and pieces such as poems, short stories, articles and one-act plays and so on, which were published in the various journals and magazines of the 1930s. Since that time, he has had a firm foothold in the field of Burmese literature.
Besides these writings, he also took part in the creation of the new style of Burmese writing known as Khit-San (Testing the Era) which actually diverges from the traditional style of Burmese writings. The contribution of Khit-San writers to Burmese literature was

(a) a new form and fresh outlook

(b) a deliberate and careful re-invigoration of the language with translated English idioms and loan-words.

They started a modern literary renaissance, developing literary style not far removed from current colloquial speech.¹

During the year 1928-1929, there was a group of young Burmese writers in the University of Rangoon. Being well versed in English they studied the history of English literature and came to know the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century literary revolution of the west (often referred to as the Romantic movement) and its development. They were deeply impressed by the new attitude to writing of those young revolutionary writers such as Keats, Shelley, Byron, and Wordsworth in his youth. This example inspired them and they tried to introduce a new style of Burmese writing with fresh imagery and a more original and adventurous approach to subject matter. At first they were bitterly criticized by orthodox Burmese writers of the old school. But they ignored all

such criticisms and carried on with their revolution. At last, like the many literary revolutions in the west, the Burmese literary revolution bore fruits. A new form of writing known as Khit-San came to be accepted by the majority of the younger intellectuals. Maung Htin was a leading founder of the Khit-San movement, and is still one of its leading figures.

In 1933, he graduated with the Bachelor of Arts degree from the university of Rangoon and he took up the post of junior township officer (myo-ok) in the civil service. As a junior township officer, he moved from town to town and thus opportunities came his way to study the rural life of Burma. It naturally enriched his knowledge of the life of ordinary people. While he was in the civil service, he composed a few poems called "Bon-yon-kabya-nya" (Poems from the public house) which appeared in numbers of "The World of Books" magazines in the 1930s and 1940s. As he was so much interested in literary pursuits he resigned his civil service post to devote his time to writing. After his resignation, he tried to earn his living as a writer. But at that time in Burma, it was impossible for a writer to keep body and soul together by writing alone.

While he was leading such a precarious life, he was offered a number of governmental posts, such as the Deputy Directorship in the Foreign Ministry, an Assistant Directorship in the Ministry of Information, the Directorship of the Burma
Broadcasting Service, a Commissioner's post in the Arakanese Division, the Chief Editor's post in the "Rangoon Newspaper" and the job of Advisory Member of the Burmese Encyclopaedia in the Burma Translation Society. No matter how high the post in which he was functioning, he could not enjoy his life as an administrator and felt bound to give up all these posts after a time. Only then did he settle down to being a writer.

As I have mentioned above, he has written in various genres. But his fame mainly rests on his short stories and on some of his novels. Among his famous novels, one called Nga Ba can be regarded as his masterpiece. Most of his readers and admirers like Nga Ba best. Nga Ba was written in 1945 and was published in 1947, just before the declaration of Burma's Independence.

1.2 The historical background of Burmese novels

Before discussing the novel, Nga Ba, it will be helpful to give a brief account of the rise of the Burmese novel from its very beginning. The beginnings of the Burmese novel are as follows:

It has been accepted by Burmese scholars that the first Burmese novel is Maung Yin Maung Ma May Ma. "In 1904, James Hla Kyaw (1866-1920) adapted part of the Count of Monte Cristo into Burmese under the title Maung Yin Maung Ma May Ma as a novel in Burmese being the first in the language." This novel set the pattern and it had many followers; for example Chin-baung-ywet-the-Maung Hmaing (The Roselle Seller) in 1905, Sagadaung Za (The Governor of Sagadaung Village) in 1906, Chit-yo Ahman (True Love) by a lady novelist, Ma E Khin, in 1909, and Ma Mya Gale, (the name of a girl) in 1912.

---

The most outstanding novels during the first two decades of the twentieth century were Sabe-bin (Jasmine) in 1913, and Shwe-pyi-zo (the name of a young man) in 1914 by U Latt. The other famous novels were Khin Myint Gyi (the name of a girl), and Than Than (the name of a girl) in 1914, by Mandalay Maung Khin Maung and Hma-daw-bon (Message) by U Lun in 1916. Many novels were issued from the presses and the circle of the reading public grew larger. Then came the Second World War in 1942. Burma was occupied by the Japanese. During the war almost all forms of cultural activity ceased, since the people were too preoccupied with the perils that beset their every-day life.

The war ended in 1945, and Burma regained her independence in 1948. Many novelists - young and old, picked up again the thread of literary activities, that was left lying neglected during the years of hostilities.

Amongst the novels, produced since the end of the war, the most remarkable is Nga Ba, (the name of a peasant). It was written in 1945 by Maung Htin and was published in 1947.

The synopsis of Nga Ba is as follows:

The scene is set during the period of 1942-1945. This was a most uneasy and troubled time, when law and order were almost non-existent, and when only the fittest survived. The Japanese were cruel masters, and robberies and maltreatment by bullies were rife. Against this background we can see the unfolding of the story of this unfortunate man.

1.3. Synopsis of Nga Ba.

Nga Ba is a tenant farmer with a family of five to support. He and his family live in a hut in a rice-field called Nok-pyan-toe, which is a few miles away from the village of Seik-gyi-gon. In
Seik-gyi-gon, there live two of Nga Ba's benefactors: one is U Tha Gaung, his land owner, and the other is Hton Ah, the Chinese shopkeeper. U Tha Gaung is a respectable and good natured man. He lends out money to Nga Ba at the beginning of every paddy season and Nga Ba usually repays the debt together with the interest after the harvest. Hton Ah sells on credit to Nga Ba many of his household requirements, such as food, clothes, pots and pans and many others. Nga Ba and his family are happy and contented with their life among a small group of neighbours in Nok-pyan-toe rice field.

When the second world war comes to Burma, the peace and security of every community is affected, not excluding those of Nga Ba's community.

When the first sign of unrest appears, his Indian neighbour, Hori, comes to Nga Ba to entrust his property for safe keeping. In the meantime, the opportunist Phyo Toke begins to agitate by pretending to be a member of the nationalist "Do-bama" "We Burmans" party. He is a chameleon-like person who changes his character and attitude with the changing of events. He will never hesitate to commit any misdeed so long as it brings him some reward.

Phyo Toke assumes the title of Tha Khin Phyo Toke and comes to Nok-pyan-toe rice field with a group of followers and seizes Hori. He takes the property of Hori from Nga Ba on the ground that Hori is a foreigner and his property should therefore be nationalized. Not only does he take away the property but he also
beats up Hori and Nga Ba.

Hori and Nga Ba go to town for treatment. On their way to town they come across a battle between Burmese and Karens. But fortunately they manage to escape from this encounter and arrive at the hospital. On their way home after the treatment Nga Ba is captured by the Karens and then released.

But a few days later Nga Ba is again arrested, this time by Phyo Toke, and his property is taken away. Then Nga Ba is kept in prison on the ground that he has been involved in a dacoity case. However a Japanese officer examines Nga Ba and finds that he is not guilty, and so the Japanese officer releases him.

Nga Ba witnesses Japanese atrocities while in prison, and receives maltreatment himself before eventually being released. After his return to his home, his daughter, Mi Ni gets engaged. Suddenly a band of Japanese arrive. Nga Ba is carried off again by the Japanese for forced labour. While his wife tries to intercede with them, their daughter Mi Ni is raped by the Japanese. When her fiance learns about the event, he suddenly disappears from the rice field.

In the forced labour gang, Nga Ba suffers hunger and vile conditions. So he and the other labourers secretly plan to run away from the gang. They carried out their plan and escaped. On their way home Nga Ba sees Rangoon for the first time in his life. As he approaches home he hears noises from the direction of his home. To his surprise, he sees his wife Mi Phaw running away with a bundle
of clothes. Later on he learns that the bundle contains the embryo of his daughter's baby which has been aborted on purpose. Nga Ba approves of this, since he himself does not want to keep a Japanese baby.

Nga Ba resumes his daily routine of work. By this time, he has begun to take interest in the activities of the Do-bama party and of the other revolutionaries. For taking such an interest, he and a few others are arrested by the Japanese again. They are carried away by the Japanese and are made to dig their own graves. While digging his grave, Nga Ba takes a chance and runs away, thus escaping from death at the last minute. On his way Nga Ba comes across a small squad of Burmese soldiers and tells them his story. The Burmese leader turns out to be his daughter's ex-fiancé, Chat Gyi.

The Burma Army revolts against the Japanese in 1945, and their success affords Nga Ba and his neighbours peace again. But Nga Ba cannot understand the actual meaning of Independence. So he discusses it with his future son-in-law Chat Gyi. But even after a long discussion, Nga Ba cannot see the point of the peoples' desire to gain Independence.

A few days later Nga Ba goes up to the village to buy things for his daughter's wedding and finds that his Japanese money is valueless. So he has to buy the necessities on credit. When he arrives home, he burns up all the Japanese currencies in front of his hut. Thus the story ends.
1.4 The Linguistic aspect of Nga Ba.

As is evident in the synopsis above, the whole story is nothing but a series of misfortunes and catastrophes befalling Nga Ba, almost without relief from the beginning to the end.

To some people Maung Htin seems to be over-doing the tragic elements in his story. But he is a humanist and a reformer and he wishes to convey a message to the public. He wants to show the miserable conditions in which the peasants of that time had to live and struggle with the harsh realities of life to make both ends meet. He feels that it is only by lurid accounts of Nga Ba, each worse than the next, that his message will reach the public.

Maung Htin is a talented and experienced author. He sees that the most effective way to unfold the plot, that is, the sufferings of Nga Ba, is to make much judicious use of dialogue as possible. A short dialogue, he thinks, is sometimes more effective than one page of narrative. He employs his medium most effectively in his characterization of dramatic personae: for example the villainy of Phyo Toke and the meek and mild character of Nga Ba. The dialogue strikes me as realistic, as if it were straight from the mouths of country people. The dialogue is the language which can be heard almost all over the delta region of Burma. It may, as in every novel or in every short story, sound artificial in parts; but it is on the whole much nearer to every-day spoken language than to Burmese written style.
The characters in the story are all rustic people; mostly Burmese with a sprinkle of foreigners such as Chinese, Indians, and Japanese. The members of the Burmese communities in the Delta region use their own language, a kind of jargon. The idioms, interjections, vocabulary and accent are all redolent of rusticity, and are far removed from those heard in cities such as Rangoon and Mandalay. The other nationalities, namely the Indian, the Chinese, and the Japanese, naturally speak each in his own characteristic way. The most prominent features in their speech, to mention only a few, are mispronunciations, hybrid forms and, occasionally unidiomatic expressions. All these features Maung Htin, for the first time in a Burmese novel, tries to represent in his dialogue.

1.5. The aim and object of this thesis.

My main purpose is to present a study of the grammar of the spoken language of a Burmese rustic community. This topic is extremely wide in scope, and I plan therefore to confine myself to the novel, Nga Ba, which is a mine of information on this subject.

There are rustic languages and rustic languages. I however wish to concentrate my study on one particular work that exemplifies all that is rustic. Nga Ba is one such work. Moreover this novel, as far as I am aware, contains many more passages of dialogue than any other single work so far written in Burmese.
1.6 Transliteration

The examples are given in a direct transliteration of the Burmese script rather than in phonetic transcription. The transliteration follows the system devised by C.O. Blagden and Chas. Duroiselle (See Epigraphia Burmanica, I (i), pp. 6-12), with the addition of the tone marks (:), (¬), (‘), and the symbol (^) representing the Burmese ( CreateUser Error).

Transliterated Burmese consonants and vowels are as follows:

Consonants (with inherent vowels)

| ka | kha | ga | gha | ŋa |
| ca | cha | ja | jha | ŋa (ŋña) |
| ṭa | ṭha | da | ḍha | na |
| ṭa | ṭha | da | ḍha | na |
| pa | pha | ba | bha | ma |
| ya | ra | la | wa |
| sa | ha | la | a |

Vowels

a á, i ñ, u ŋ, e, ai, o, ui, ɔ (= [ɔ])

Tone marks

Creaky tone
Level tone
Heavy tone
1.7. Translation

In translating Burmese into English, two languages with different cultural backgrounds, and different syntactical structures, one is apt to meet many different problems. The first is the method of translation and the second is the rendering of Burmese idioms and expressions that have no equivalents in English. As regards the first problem, I have adopted as faithful a rendering as possible without murdering the English language. With regard to problems in the second category, I have tried to give an English rendering that is not far removed from the idea embodied in the Burmese, i.e. a "free" rather than a literal translation.

Naturally I have consulted as many dictionaries as have been able to get hold of - both from Burmese to English and vice versa. But these are not always adequate to fulfil my purpose.

1.8. Theoretical considerations

In the analysis, an attempt is made to study the grammatical structures of the dialogue passages of the novel Nga Ba, and their relationship between one another. Before the attempt was carried out a survey of grammatical theories was made in order to select a theory upon which to base the analysis. But it was found that no one of the grammatical theories surveyed so far was usable without modifications. Modifications here mean that the theory adopted would have to be modified in some cases so as to
meet the requirements of the texts analysed. But modifying a well-established theory of grammar is no easy matter. Of the theories surveyed, it is felt that a blend of the methods proposed by Halliday in his "Categories of the theories of grammar"¹ and those used in Tagmemic Analysis² would after some modifications be suitable for the analysis of the texts. It would be evident from the following pages that the terminology and the methods used are on the whole more in line with Halliday's proposals than with those used in Tagmemic Analysis. But the formulating devices utilised are similar to those used in Tagmemic Analysis with certain modifications so as to make them suitable for the texts analysed here.

Following Halliday, a hierarchy of grammatical units is set up as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---


3 In my analysis the scale of rank is approached up to the word and it is therefore not necessary to bring in the Morpheme rank.
As regards the description of the clause structures, the traditional terms such as subject, predicate, complement and adjuncts are used and symbolized as S, P, C and A in Halliday's theory while subject, predicate, object, temporal and locational adjuncts are used and symbolized as S, P, O, L and T in Tagmemics. In Tagmemic theory these terms are often referred to as "functional slots".

The use of such functional labels as subject, predicate, object and complement, whilst no doubt appropriate to the analysis of English clause structure, is found to be less helpful in Burmese in the texts analysed. I have found it more useful, except in the case of adjuncts, to employ formal labels, such as "noun group", "verb group", etc. rather than functional ones, in the statement of the constituents at the different rank of analysis. The term adjunct is used in the same sense as in Tagmemic theory.

In the texts analysed, the characteristics of the adjuncts are found to be:

1. they are optional
2. they may occur more than once in succession
3. they occur in different places in the sequence of constituents.

The adjuncts postulated on the basis of these characteristics, many of which consist of noun groups, are found to be adjuncts of time and adjuncts of place. At the group rank of analysis,
Halliday has suggested the terms modifier, head and qualifier, which he symbolizes by M, H and Q respectively. But in the texts analysed, since modifying and qualifying constructions may always be analysed formally as being rank-shifted verb or noun groups, I have preferred in this thesis to avoid the functional terms modifier (M) and qualifier (Q), and simply to indicate rank-shifting in the notation where necessary.
CHAPTER II

SENTENCES

2.1 SENTENCES

The sentence is a unit of grammar and as a rank it stands above the clause rank. The sentence has been defined by Bloomfield as an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger form.¹ This definition is paraphrased by Hockett as a constituent which is not a constituent, a grammatical form which is not in construction with any other grammatical form.²

2.2 SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS

In my analysis of the sentences of the dialogue passages of the novel Nga Ba, the basic sentence constituents³ are found to be:

1. Independent Clauses (ICL)
2. Dependent Clauses (DCL)
3. Particles or clusters of particles (P)

---

¹ See Bloomfield "Language", 1933, p.170
² See Hockett "A Course in Modern Linguistics", 1958, p.199
³ For other, i.e. non-basic and optional constituents see pp.44-48
4. Sentence final intonation contours (SIC)
5. Clause linking intonation (CL)
6. Sentence linkers (SL)

2.3 **SENTENCE FINAL INTONATION CONTOURS (SIC)**

In studying the dialogue passages of the novel *Nga Ba*, sentence final intonation contours (SIC) are postulated. It must however be remembered that the examples studied are taken from the written form (the texts) and as such they depend, to a large extent, on my own personal interpretation. To embark on an exhaustive treatment of these sentence final intonation contours (SIC) would be far beyond the scope of this thesis. Nevertheless it is felt that a brief note on the sentence final intonation contours (SIC) must be included, since they are postulated as sentence constituents.

From the sentences analysed, it is observed that there are generally speaking, three common types of sentence final intonation patterns which may be described as follows:-

**SIC 1** - This type of sentence final intonation contour is characterized by a falling pitch pattern, i.e. there is an overall drop in pitch towards the end of the sentence ultimately resulting in a final fall in pitch on the last syllable or on the penultimate syllable. When this syllable
is on the creaky tone or is closed by glottal stop, the pitch-fall will be followed by glottal closure.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kyup hā tōlhan-re-samā:</td>
<td>bhai 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I p revolutionist</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I (am) a revolutionist.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p. 187 474

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dā gyāpan-lup</td>
<td>pai 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this Japan-made</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This (is the thing) made in Japan.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p. 9 4

1 By convention the three vertical lines mark the sentence boundary, and the two vertical lines mark the clause boundary.

The number below SIC means that the sentence is uttered with SIC 1. If it were SIC 2, the number will be 2 and so on.

The first set of figures on the right hand side indicates the page of the novel analysed, and second set indicates the number of the sentence referred to.

The hyphens (-) between the words indicate that the whole sequence is to be taken as one word.

The words in the parentheses are added to mitigate the awkwardness of the literal translation into English.

The texts analysed in this thesis consist of seven hundred and eighty one (781) sentences.

For the indication of the range and use of the particles appearing in these examples, see p 148 ff.
SIC 2 - This type of sentence final intonation contour (SIC) is characterized by a rise fall pitch pattern, i.e. the pitch on the last syllable rises from a relatively low level to a high level and rapidly falls to a low again.¹

Examples

1

ICL | P | SIC
---|---|---
kywan-tə | pə | 2
slave-royal Nga Ba | p |
I (am) Nga Ba.

2

ICL | P | SIC
---|---|---
dī | tā bhai | 2
here | p | 2
(I) have arrived here.

¹ SIC 2 is heard when a sentence is uttered with emphasis.
SIC 3 - This type of sentence final intonation contour (SIC) is characterized by a rising pitch pattern on the last syllable, i.e. the pitch rises from a relatively low level to a high one.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>su-pe: mha A</td>
<td>ra</td>
<td>mha tai'la: 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he give p</td>
<td>get</td>
<td>p p p</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Do (we) get only when he gives? p.20 28

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bha-lu pro</td>
<td>sa-lai 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who-lu speak</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Who said (so)? p.18 14

1 For clause linking intonation 'A' see page 29, section 2.4.
2.4 **CLAUSE LINKING INTONATION** (CL)

In the clauses of the texts analysed, it is found that clauses within a sentence may be linked together by a clause linking intonation (CL). The most usual clause linking intonation in the texts analysed is characterized by a falling pitch pattern on the last syllable or on the penultimate syllable of the dependent clause (or clauses), i.e. there is an overall drop in pitch towards the end of a dependent clause ultimately resulting in a final fall in pitch on the last syllable or on the penultimate syllable of the clause which is the same pitch pattern as SIC 1 (See page 30, section 2.3). Therefore in order to distinguish it from SIC 1, the symbol "A" will be used to denote this clause linking intonation. The next most common clause linking intonation in the texts analysed is characterized by a rising pitch pattern on the last syllable of the dependent clause (or clauses), i.e. the pitch rises from a relatively low level to a high one, which is the same pattern as SIC 3. (See page 33, section 2.3). Therefore in order to distinguish it from the SIC 3, the symbol "B" will be used to denote this second clause linking intonation.

Clause linking intonations "A" and "B" as found in the texts analysed are illustrated in the pitch and intonation pattern of the following sentence.

---

are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

If we (think it's) okay, then it's okay.

The possible clause intonation patterns in the above example are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CL A</th>
<th>SIC 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CL B</th>
<th>SIC 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2.5 **SENTENCE TYPES**

According to the texts analysed, sentences may be classified as:

(i) Simple (simp.)
(ii) Complex (compl.)
(iii) Compound (compd.)

1. By A/B is meant that the clause linking intonation may either be A or B, but that A is more usual than B.
2.6 (i) SIMPLE SENTENCES (Simp. S.)

A simple sentence consists of one and only one independent clause (ICL) which may or may not be followed in close juncture by a sentence final particle or a cluster of particles (P). One of the sentence final intonation contours is realized at the end of the sentence (SIC).

\[ \text{Simp. S.} \quad \text{ICL} \quad \text{P} \quad \text{SIC} \]

Thus a simple sentence may be represented by a formula:

\[ \text{Simp. S.} \rightarrow \text{ICL} \quad \text{P} \quad \text{SIC} \]

---

1 For detailed information about close juncture
(b) W.S. Cornyn, "Outline of Burmese Grammar" Language, Vol.20, No.4, Supplement.
Examples of simple sentences illustrating the formula:

Simp. S. → ICL + P + SIC

1

ICL  P  SIC

| dā gyāpan-lup | pai 1 |
| this Japan-made | p |

This (is the thing) made (in) Japan.

p.9 4

2

ICL  P  SIC

| nwe -nhac-kyap -khwai 'akun ma khañ nuin | pā 1 |
| silver-two -rupee-half exhaust not suffer can | p |

(I) can't afford to spend two and a half rupees.

p.15 7

3

ICL  SIC

| hā' kui kraññ' | 1 |
| me p look |

Look (at) me.

p.61 130

4

ICL  SIC

| nacpwan-cac-buil -křī: 'i 'amin' | 1 |
| Nippon -war-officer-big of order |

(The) order of (the) Japanese military officer

p.83 203
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>kywan-tô nà bha</td>
<td>pà 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>slave-royal Nga Ba</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I (am) Nga Ba.</td>
<td>p.135 325b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>kywan-ma -tui' sà:-'ami -tatwe kui kay</td>
<td>pà 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>slave-female-many son-mother-many</td>
<td>p save</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Please) save (me and my family) us.</td>
<td>p.143 372b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>kyup kuiy-tuin tak khô</td>
<td>may 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I self climb call</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I will go up (and) fetch(her)myself</td>
<td>p.151 400b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>nûi: lai 'asi</td>
<td>sà: bhai 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you p know</td>
<td>p p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You also know (about it)</td>
<td>p.174 424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>kyup hā tölhan-re:-sama:</td>
<td>bhai 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I p revolutionist</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I (am) a revolutionist.</td>
<td>p.187 474</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Perhaps, the Karen comrades would probably come.

2.7 (ii) COMPLEX SENTENCES (Compl. S.)

A complex sentence consists of an independent clause (ICL) which may or may not be followed in close juncture by a sentence final particle or a cluster of particles (P) and is preceded in open juncture\(^1\) by any number of dependent clauses (DCL\(^n\)).\(^2\) These clauses (i.e. both the dependent and independent clauses) are linked together by clause linking intonations (CL). A sentence final intonation contour (SIC) is realized at the end of each sentence.

\[
\text{Compl. S} \quad \Rightarrow \text{DCL}^n + \text{CL}^n + \text{ICL} + p + \text{SIC}
\]

Thus a complex sentence (Compl. S.) may be represented by a formula:

---

1 For detailed information about open juncture, see the references given in the foot-note on page 28.

2 The superscript \(n\) after DCL indicates that there may be, in theory at least, any number of dependent clauses.

3 Since the number of clause linking intonations is directly proportional to the number of dependent clauses in a sentence, the superscript \(n\) after CL indicates that the number of the clause linking intonations may be the same as that of dependent clauses.
Examples of complex sentences illustrating the formula:

Compl. S. \( \rightarrow \text{DCL}^n + \text{CL}^n + \text{ICL} \pm \text{P} + \text{SIC} \)

1. 'arap pyak yah A/B | sarokri: -khui: | 'u: mha bhai 1
   place destroy p | catastrophe-fall | p p p
   If the world (is) destroyed, a catastrophe would happen. p. 16 8b

2. saññ kon -ma ka 'akhre rhi' tai ha -ma mha A
   this creature-female p base have p thing-female p
   This woman (is) destitute. p. 35 86b

3. dhä: -pra -tuik rä mhä ma -pä -kroñ: si lui' A
   sword-show-rob p p not-involve p know p
   If (you are) going to release me for (you) know that (I was) not
   involved in the robbery, (then) release me (please). p. 131 311

---

1 By A/B is meant that the clause linking intonation may either be A or B, but that A is more usual than B.
If you behave in such a way, the Japanese would be angry and the whole nation would perish.

Marry me only if you want to.

Being afraid of them (I) have to gather (the men) for the sweat-gang as well (forced labour).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>mran -mran se yañ A/B</td>
<td>mran -mran 'ip ra</td>
<td>tā bhai 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quick-quick die p</td>
<td>quick-quick sleep must</td>
<td>p p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(The) sooner (I) die, (the) sooner I sleep.</td>
<td>p.206 583b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When (one's) desire is fulfilled, (one) becomes satisfied. p.245 680

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>'alui prann' to' A</td>
<td>cit kye-nap</td>
<td>ka ro 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>want full p</td>
<td>mind satisfy</td>
<td>p p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we (think it's) okay, then it's okay. p.257 740

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>hā-tui' pri: yañ A/B</td>
<td>pri: pā tay 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I -many finish p</td>
<td>finish</td>
<td>p p</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Japanese-paper legal not-enter p p declare p

It has been declared that the Japanese currency is illegal. (Chinese accent). p.263 762
2.9  **SENTENCE LINKERS (SL)**

It has been mentioned in the definition of the compound sentence that the constituent-sentences are linked together by sentence linkers (SL). In the texts analysed, the sentence linkers are found to be divisible into three groups:

1. Particle-form sentence linkers.
2. Construction-form sentence linkers.
3. Pauses.

2.10  **1. PARTICLE-FORM SENTENCE LINKERS**

A particle-form sentence linker may be defined as a particle that follows the sentence final particle or the cluster of particles of the preceding sentence (in the compound sentence type) which is more closely linked with the preceding sentence than with the following one. The criterion that distinguishes it from the sentence final particle or the cluster of particles of the preceding sentence is that -- if the preceding sentence preserves its status as a sentence when this particle is removed then the particle is to be regarded as a sentence linker (SL). (See examples 7, 8 and 9 on p. 48).

---

1 Sections 2.9 to 2.12 to be transferred to p. 46.
2.10 CONSTRUCTION-FORM SENTENCE LINKERS

A construction-form sentence linker may be defined as a construction, usually of particles and demonstrative pronouns,\(^1\) and sometimes of verbs and nouns, which is more closely linked with the following sentence than with the preceding one of the compound sentence (see example 2 and footnote 1 on page 56). When a sentence preceded by one of the construction-form sentence linkers appears, it may always be assumed that the sentence has been preceded by another sentence in continuous discourse, which is shown as \((S)\) in the formulae.\(^2\) The following examples illustrate the construction-form sentence linkers.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{e.g. 1. } & \text{da pe mai'} = \text{but} \\
& \text{this p p p}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{2. } & \text{sui' pe mai'} = \text{but} \\
& \text{p p p}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{3. } & \text{da kroñ'} = \text{so, that's why} \\
& \text{this p}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{4. } & \text{da nai' toñ} = \text{even then} \\
& \text{this p p}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{5. } & \text{di lui chuñ} = \text{If so happens} \\
& \text{this like speak}
\end{align*}
\]

and so on.

---


2 Reference page 45, section 2.12.
2.12  3. PAUSES (,)

In the texts analysed, the compound sentences are mostly found to be paratactic constructions which would be manifested in speech by pauses (,) with appropriate accompanying intonations. (See examples on pp. 46-47).

2.12  (iii) COMPOUND SENTENCES (Compd. S)

A compound sentence is a sequence of two or more interrelated sentences which may either be simple or complex. These sentences are linked together by sentence linkers (SL).

\[
\text{Compd. } S \\
\quad S^n \quad SL \quad S^n \\
\quad ICL \quad \text{IP} \quad SIC \quad ICL \quad \text{IP} \quad SIC
\]

1 Pauses are symbolized by commas (,).

2 Theoretically in a compound sentence there may be any number of sentences, but in the texts analysed, a compound sentence consists of only two interrelated sentences.
Thus a compound sentence (compd. S) may be represented by a formula:

\[\text{Compd. } S \rightarrow S^n + SL + S^n\]

OR

\[\text{Compd. } S \rightarrow (S)^1 + SL + S^n\]

Where

\[S \rightarrow ICL \#P + SIC \text{ (or) } DCL^n + CL^n + ICL \]

\[\#P + SIC\]

1

Examples of Compound sentence, illustrating the formula:

Compd. S \(\rightarrow\) S + SL + S

where S \(\rightarrow\) ICL \#P + SIC

ICI P SIC SL ICL P SIC

1 || khak lim' || may 1 ||, || thanh || tay 1 ||

|| difficult will || p ||, || think || p ||

(I) think (it) would be difficult.

p.22 48c

ICI P SIC SL ICL P SIC

2 || Kywan-to' 'ana krif: || tay 1 ||, || pro || tay 1 ||

|| slave-royal wound big || p ||, || speak || p ||

(They) said my wound (is rather) serious.

p.82 200a

---

1 (S) means that it is assumed there is a related sentence which precedes the construction-form sentence linkers (see page 48, section 2.11), but in practice it is very rarely present in the texts. Only one example is found. (See page 48 example 10).

Elsewhere the link is to non-verbal features of the situation, which serve and contextualise the utterance in the same way as if there had been an appropriate preceding sentence.

*within the confines of the compound sentence itself*
We, the Karens (are) rather stupid, (while) they, the Burmans (are) rather bumptious.

(I) will search, (I) will search.

(It is) said (that) Burma has gained her independence.

(Let me) see, move (away).
**ICL**  |  **SL**  |  **ICL**  |  **P**  |  **SIC**  
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- 
7  |  dhā: -pra -tuik  |  tay  |  nō  |  rhwe 'amyā:-krī: rhi  |  tay  
8  |  sword-show-rob  |  p  |  p  |  gold many -big have  |  p  

Having robbed (the people) (you) have plenty of gold.  

No, No. (Chinese accent)  

If all the Japanese would die in such a way, it would be  

Independence! What's that for?  

---

1 Pause is also present when the sentence linker is in a particle-form (see examples 7, 8 and 9)  

2 Example no. 10 is the only example found where the (S), which is always implicit in other examples, is explicit. (See example 10 above)  

3 By 1/3 is meant that either sentence intonation contour 1 or sentence intonation contour 3 is likely to be realized here.
Examples of Compound sentences preceded by construction-form sentence linkers, which assume some link with another in continuous discourse, here indicated by (S), and illustrating the formula:

\[
\text{Compd. } S \rightarrow (S) + SL + S \\
\text{Where } S \rightarrow ICL \not\equiv P + SIC \text{ (or) } DCL^n + CL + ICL \not\equiv P + SIC
\]

(S) \hspace{1cm} SL \hspace{1cm} DCL \hspace{1cm} CL \hspace{1cm} ICL
1 || 'ai-da-nai' caka: cap yaŋ: A || kui phru:tup 'akroŋ:
   thus-this-p word join p || Ko Phyo Toke about
   P SIC
   rok swa: || ro 1 ||
   arrive go || p

We thus, came to the topic about Ko Phyo Toke p.19 19

(S) \hspace{1cm} SL \hspace{1cm} ICL
2 || da-kroŋ-mui' 'a'kui-krî: chi mhā
  this-p -p brother-big p p
  P SIC
  prackyî: 'ap khyaŋ || tay 1 ||
  property entrust want || p

That's why (I) would like to entrust (my) property to you. p.24 55

(S) \hspace{1cm} SL \hspace{1cm} ICL \hspace{1cm} P \hspace{1cm} SIC
3 || dā pe-mai' phru:tup kui krok ra || sa-kui: 1/2
   this-p -p Phyo Toke p afraid must || p

But (he) has to be afraid of Phyo Toke. p.62 139a

1 See page 46, footnote .
2 The construction-form sentence linkers are for convenience included in the boundaries of the following sentence.
(S) SL ICL P SIC
4 \[ pri: -to' d\bar{i} kui rok l\bar{a} \parallel t\bar{a} bhai 1 \]
\[ finish\-p \quad here \quad p \quad arrive \quad come \quad p \quad p \]
Then (I) have arrived here.

(S) SL ICL P SIC
5 \[ da\-ka-to' mo\bar{n}\circ kui y\bar{u}m lui' pro \parallel t\bar{a} bhai 1 \]
\[ this\-p\-p \quad you \quad p \quad trust \quad p \quad speak \quad p \quad p \]
Well! (in that case) (I) told you, because I trusted you.

(S) SL ICL P SIC
6 \[ da\-nai\-to\h\bar{n} h\bar{n}a \quad ka\ 'akro\h\bar{n}: \quad kyup-tui' \quad kui \]
\[ this\-p\-p \quad night \quad p \quad about \quad I \quad -many \quad p \]
\[ ma\-me: \quad wa\h\bar{u}r' \quad se: \quad \parallel \quad bh\bar{u}: \quad 1 \quad \|
\[ not\-ask \quad dare \quad still \quad p \quad \parallel \quad p \quad \}
Even then (they) dare not ask us about (last) night.

2.13 SUB-TYPES OF SENTENCES

Simple, Complex and Compound sentences may be further classified into three sub-types namely

1. Simple question sentences
2. Complex question sentences
3. Compound question sentences
Anyone of these three sub-types of sentences has special formal characteristics in that they may include one of a restricted class of interrogative pronouns and all of them include one of a restricted class of question particles and an appropriate intonation contour usually SIC 1 or SIC 3.

The final question particles in the texts analysed may be listed:

1. la:
2. lai
3. tun:
4. lim'
5. nô

In question sentences with the final question particles la: and nô, the appearance of one of the interrogative pronouns i.e. bhā or bhay, at the head or in the middle of the sentence is optional, whereas in question sentences with the final particles lai, tun; and lim', the appearance of one of the interrogative pronouns i.e. bhā or bhay, at the head or in the middle of the sentence is obligatory. In some cases the interrogative pronouns bhā or bhay may be reduced to their atonic forms i.e. bha (bhā and bha (bhay respectively.

In the texts analysed no examples were found of questions marked by intonation contour only. All contain specific question particles. This may be because the written form of Burmese does not like English, have marks such as ? or ! to indicate questions or exclamations, without accompanying interrogative or exclamatory marks. (Everyday spoken Burmese does contain question sentences in which the only indicator that the sentence is a question is the intonation with which it is pronounced.)
Examples with bhā

1. bhā cā 'up lai = What book is it?

2. bhā pā lim' = What would it be?

3. bhā pro tun: = What does (he) speak (about)?

4. sū bhā mha ma-si bhū: nō = He doesn't know anything (doesn't he)?

5. swā: pā nō = Please go, (won't you)?

6. bhā mha ma-cā: bhū: lā: = Don't you eat anything?

7. cā: ma lā: = Will you eat?

Examples with bhay

1. bhay swā: lai = Where does (he) go?

2. bhay swā: pā lim' = Where would (he) go?

3. bhay sū tun: = Who (is) he?

4. bhay mha ma-swā: bhū: lā: = Don't (you) go anywhere?

5. ma-swā: bhū: lā: = Are you not going?

6. ma-swā: bhū: nō = (You) will not go, (won't you)?

7. bhay mha ma swā: bhū: nō = You are not going anywhere else (aren't you)?

---

1 Examples 4 and 5 of the first set with bhā show that with the final question particle nō, the interrogative pronoun bhā is optional; and examples 6 and 7 show that with the final question particle lā:, the interrogative pronoun bhay is also optional.

2 Examples 4 and 5 of the second set with bhay show that with the final question particle lā:, the interrogative pronoun bhay is optional; and examples 6 and 7 show that with the final question particle nō, the interrogative pronoun bhay is also optional.
These two interrogative pronouns i.e. bhā and bhay are very productive for they lend themselves to combination with certain particles or with other nouns or pronouns so as to form variety of interrogative noun and pronoun constructions. When such a combination occurs, the interrogative pronouns bhā and bhay may or may not be reduced to their atonic forms.

**Examples**

bhā + kui \(\rightarrow\) bha kui = which

bhay/bhā + su \(\rightarrow\) bhay/bhā su = who

bhay/bhā + lui \(\rightarrow\) bhay/bhā lui = how

bhay' + nhay \(\rightarrow\) bhay'nhay = how

bhā/bhay + kron' \(\rightarrow\) bhā/bhay kron' = why

bhay + to' \(\rightarrow\) bhay to' = when

As regards the final question particles laː and no, it is not necessary for them to be accompanied by any interrogative noun. Their appearance at the end of a sentence is sufficient to mark the sentence as a question.

**e.g.**

sū laː = (Is it) he?

swāː laː = Does (he) go?

sū no = (Is it) he?

swāː no = Will (you) go?
Examples of question sentences, using the question particle la:

ICL P SIC
1 || bhaŋgalā: pran || ma-lā: 2 1/3 ||
   Bengal return || p

(Are you) going back to Bengal? p.24 53

ICL P SIC
2 || kyup kui si || sa-lā: 1/3 ||
   I p know || p

Do (you) know me? p.215 594

DCL CL ICL P SIC
3 || sū pe mha A/B || ra || mha tai' lā: 3 ||
   he give p || get || p p p

Do (we) get, only when he gives? p.20 28

ICL P SIC SL ICL P SIC
4 || nui-saʊ || lā: 3 ||, || rhuik -saʊ || lā: 3 ||
   cry-sound || p ||, || sobbing-sound || p

(Is it) a weeping or a sobbing sound? p.148 387a

---

1 The examples of question sentences in this section will not be grouped and illustrated as simple question sentences, complex question sentences and compound question sentences, but will be grouped and illustrated as: question sentences using the question particle laː; question sentences using the question particle lai, and so on.

2 In some cases, a sentence final particle, when followed by a question particle, may be reduced to its atonic form and becomes the proclitic of the question particle. Therefore such an atonic form of a sentence final particle is treated as part of the question particle (see examples 1 and 2 above).
Examples of question sentences, using the question particle lai

**Examples of question sentences, using the question particle lai**

**ICL**

1 || bha-lū pro || lai 1/3 ||
   who-man speak ||
   Who said (so)?

2 || bhay'-nhay' ne || sa-lai 3 ||
   how - p live || p
   How do (you) feel?

**DCL**

3 || dī 'akoñ pā nai chui yañ A/B ||
   this creature p with speak p

**ICL**

dī: -pra -mhu tarā: khañ bhay-nhay-yok || lai 1/3 ||
sword-show- p defendant how -many-person || p
If (you) include this fellow, how many defendants involved in the dacoity case would there be? p.121 289

4 || bhā ga bha || lai 3 ||
   what Nga Ba || p
   What (is) Nga Ba? What (is) Nga Ba? p.135 326
   (Japanese accent)
Examples of question sentences, using the question particle **tun**:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bhā -kicca la</td>
<td>sa-tun:</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>what-affair come</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On what business have you come?  

**p. 143 371**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>SIC</th>
<th>SL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lwat-lap-re: 1/3, 'ai-dā ka</td>
<td>bha lup phui’ tun:</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>independence</td>
<td>SL</td>
<td>what do</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Independence! What's that for?  

**p. 136 334**

Examples of question sentences using the question particle **lim**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sañ:-tui’ tarup -twe ha bhai-lui puik-cham rha</td>
<td>pa lim’</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he -many Chinese-many p how - p money search</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(I wonder) how these Chinese earn money?  

**p. 61 129a**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sarokrika -myañ khuiñ: yañ A</td>
<td>bhai-lui -myañ: ne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>catastrophe-many fall p how -like -many live</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mahā pa lim’</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How would it be, if a catastrophe happens?  

**p. 17 9**

1 In utterance, there would always be a slight pause between lwat-lap-re: and 'ai-dā ka. This illustrates that the construction-form sentence linker (SL) when present between the two sentences, is more closely linked with the second sentence.
Examples of question sentences using the question particle nô

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>su ka khap nan&quot;-nan'</td>
<td>nô</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he'khu p very flirty</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Isn't she very flirty?  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kyup-tui' kui ta-kay yum yah A/B</td>
<td>ta-khu phwan' pro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I -many p really trust p</td>
<td>one-thing open speak</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>SIC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may nô</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you really trust us, (we) would (like) to tell you one thing openly.  

2.14 NON-BASIC CONSTITUENTS OF SENTENCES

Apart from the basic constituents of sentence (see page 29 section 2.2) there are other constituents which may be termed non-basic constituents of sentence. The non-basic constituents of sentences found in the texts analysed may be listed as:-

1. Vocative (Voc)
2. Exclamations (Excl.)
2.15 **VOCATIVES** (Voc.)

A vocative may be defined as a form used in direct address. The typical vocative may consist of a noun or noun group, very commonly a proper noun. It has the ability to stand alone by itself and when it does so it constitutes a sentence, and may or may not be followed in close juncture by a particle or cluster of particles:

**Examples**

Voc

{kui na bha}

{Ko Nga Ba} The name of a person

Voc p

{kui na bha ray}

{Ko Nga Ba p} The name of a person (when addressed by someone)

Ko Nga Ba

When a vocative occurs in a sentence with other constituents it may occur freely in initial, medial and final position.

**Examples**

Voc ICL P SIC

{kui na bha re} kyup to la may 1

{Ko Nga Ba p} I p come p

Ko Nga Ba, I will come.

---

1. Within the braces may either be vocative or exclamations or adjuncts.
examples¹

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ICL} & = \text{Voc} & = \text{ICL} & = \text{P} & = \text{SIC} \\
1 & \quad \text{kyup to}^* \quad \left\{ \text{kui ŋa bha ray} \right\} \quad \text{lā} & \quad \text{may} & \quad 1 \\
& \quad \text{I} \quad \text{p} \quad \left\{ \text{Ko Nga Ba} \quad \text{p} \right\} \quad \text{come} \quad \text{p}
\end{align*}
\]

I will come Ko Nga Ba.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ICL} & = \text{P} & = \text{Voc} & = \text{SIC} \\
\text{kyup to}^* \quad \text{lā} & \quad \text{may} & \quad \left\{ \text{kui ŋa bha ray} \right\} & \quad 1 \\
\text{I} \quad \text{p} \quad \text{come} & \quad \text{p} \quad \left\{ \text{Ko Nga Ba} \quad \text{p} \right\}
\end{align*}
\]

I will come Ko Nga Ba.

2.16 **EXCLAMATIONS** (Excl.)

Exclamations, in some cases, are found to consist of nouns or noun groups which may or may not be followed in close juncture by particles or clusters of particles. In other cases, they are found to consist of sound-imitative or other expressive words which are in no sense natural sounds that man has instinctively and automatically reproduced.² Such words are here terms interjections (section 6.20, page 159).

Examples

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Excl.} & = \text{SIC} \\
1 & \quad \text{'alui bhura}: \quad 1 \\
& \quad \text{Oh! God. (Exclamation of fear or alarm)}
\end{align*}
\]

¹ The equal sign (=) is placed after the first ICL and before the second ICL indicates that the ICL is interrupted by the vocative.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excl</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>bhūrā:</td>
<td>re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>God</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oh! God (Exclamation of fear and alarm)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excl</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>'e:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aye (interjection)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes (Answer to question)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excl</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>'añ:</td>
<td>po'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>um.</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uml! Yes. (Answer to question)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An exclamation has an ability to stand alone by itself and when it does so it constitutes a sentence (see the examples 1, 2, 3 and 4) which is referred to by J.R. Firth as one word sentence.¹

When an exclamation occurs in a sentence with other constituents, it may occur freely in initial, medial and final position.

### Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excl</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>'amale:</td>
<td>kyup</td>
<td>kui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oh! dear</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Oh! dear (they are) beating me.

---

2.17 OPTIONAL CONSTITUENTS OF SENTENCES

ADJUNCTS (adjt.)

As has been explained in the introductory chapter (sec p. 27) the adjuncts of time (T. adjt) and the adjuncts of place (Loc. adjt) are treated as optional constituents of sentences. They may occur more than once in succession and may occupy only initial and medial positions of the sentence. They are usually consisted of noun groups and less commonly of verb groups. They are structurally dispensible constituents of the sentence.

Examples

\[
\text{ma -krā khaṅ} \quad = \quad \text{not very long}
\]
\[
\text{not-long before}
\]
\[
\text{tō tō krā} \quad = \quad \text{in a fairly long time}
\]
\[
\text{fairly fairly long}
\]
\[
\text{manak phran}\quad = \quad \text{tomorrow}
\]
\[
\text{to-morrow}
\]
yankun kui} = to Rangoon
Rangoon to

and so on.

Examples of sentences containing adjuncts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T. adjt</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>{mane' ka}</td>
<td>su la</td>
<td>tay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yesterday p</td>
<td>he come</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yesterday, he came.

ICL = T. adjt = ICL

| 2       | su {mane' ka} | la | tay | 1 |
|         | he {yesterday p} | come | p |

He came yesterday.

Loc. adjt

| 3       | {mranma-praññ ka} | su la | tay | 1 |
|         | {Burma -country p} | he come | p |

From Burma, he came.

ICL = {Loc. adjt} = ICL

| 4       | su {mranma-praññ ka} | la | tay | 1 |
|         | he {Burma -country p} | come | p |

He came from Burma.
Sometimes, even simple, complex and compound and question sentences may be structurally expanded by the non-basic constituents of sentences, i.e. vocatives, and exclamations, and by the optional constituents, i.e. temporal and locative adjuncts. When the non-basic constituents occur in sentences, they may occupy initial, medial and final positions whereas the optional constituents, when they occur in sentences, may occupy initial and medial positions only.

The formulae on p.36, section 2.6, p.39, section 2.7 and p.45, section 2.12, may now be amended to allow of expansion by non-basic or optional constituents as follows:-

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Simp. } S \rightarrow & + \begin{cases} 
\text{Voc} \\
\text{Excl} \\
\text{adjt}
\end{cases} + \text{ICL} + P + \begin{cases} 
\text{Voc} \\
\text{Excl} \\
\text{adjt}
\end{cases} + \text{SIC} \\
\text{Compl. } S \rightarrow & \pm \begin{cases} 
\text{Voc} \\
\text{Excl} \\
\text{adjt}
\end{cases} + \text{DCL}^n + \text{CL}^n + \pm \begin{cases} 
\text{Voc} \\
\text{Excl} \\
\text{adjt}
\end{cases} + \text{ICL} + P + \\
\text{Compd. } S \rightarrow & \pm \begin{cases} 
\text{Voc} \\
\text{Excl} \\
\text{adjt}
\end{cases} + \text{ICL} + P + \text{SIC} + \text{SL} + \pm \begin{cases} 
\text{Voc} \\
\text{Excl} \\
\text{adjt}
\end{cases} + \text{ICL} \\
+ P + \begin{cases} 
\text{Excl}
\end{cases} + \text{SIC}
\end{align*}
\]

Examples of expanded sentences, expanded by vocatives (Voc.) and illustrating the formulae

(1) Ex. Simp. \( S \rightarrow \text{Voc} + \text{Voc} + \text{ICL} + P + \text{SIC} \)

Ex. Simp. \( S \rightarrow \text{ICL} + P + \text{Voc} + \text{SIC} \)
Examples of expanded simple sentences expanded by exclamations (Excl.)

and illustrating the formulae:-

(1) Ex. Simp. S. \rightarrow ICL + P + Excl + SIC

(2) Ex. Simp. S. \rightarrow Excl + ICL + P Excl + SIC

Examples of expanded simple sentences expanded by exclamations (Excl.)

and illustrating the formulae:-

(1) Ex. Simp. S. \rightarrow ICL + P + Excl + SIC

(2) Ex. Simp. S. \rightarrow Excl + ICL + P Excl + SIC

---

1 'akhwak' is a typical Burmese term used by the farmers to denote a plot of land.
Examples of expanded simple sentences, expanded by adjuncts (adjs.)
(i.e. locative adjuncts, Loc. Adjt., and temporal adjuncts, T. Adjt.)
and illustrating the formulae:

Ex. Simp. S. ----> adjt + ICL + P + SIC

Ex. Simp. S. ----> ICL = adjt = ICL + P + SIC

Loc. adjt  ICL = Loc. adjt  = ICL
1 |||| (lay -kwañ: ka) kulā:-twe kui (kulā: -prē ) nhañ
||| {farm-loop p} Indian-many {Indian-country}

P  SIC
ma lui' 'tai' 1
p  p  p

(It is) said (that) the Indians from the rice-field would be
expelled to India.  p.22 47c

T. adjt  ICL  P  SIC
2 |||| (manak mha bhai) kap kra cui' 1
||| {morning p p} embark p let

Let's approach (the river bank) (to-morrow) morning. p.73 178a

ICL = T. adjt = ICL  P  SIC
3 |||| 'akui -tu'i' ka (khu mha) la kra tā kui: 1/2
||| brother-many p {now p} come p p p

Brothers! You have come too late.  p.102 239a
Examples of expanded complex sentences expanded by vocatives (Voc.),
and illustrating the formulae:

(1) Ex. Compl. S. \(\rightarrow\) Excl + DCL + CL + ICL + P + Voc
    + SIC

(2) Ex. Compl. S. \(\rightarrow\) Excl + Voc + DCL = T.adjt = DCL + CL
    + ICL + P + SIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excl</th>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Voc</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>δ</td>
<td>cui:</td>
<td>rim</td>
<td>lui</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>pro</td>
<td>ra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oh</td>
<td>worry</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>speak</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>Voc</td>
<td>1/2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Oh! (I) told (you) because (I was) worried. p.36 92

Excl   | Voc    | DCL = T.adjt = DCL  |
--------|--------|---------------------|
 kai    | kui na bha | khan byā:                |
 injt  | Ko Nga Ba  | you (this night) word |
        |          | p                    |

ICL    | P      | SIC    |
-------|--------|--------|
 da    | bhai   | 1      |

this  | p      |        |

(All right), Ko Nga Ba, that's what you have to do tonight. p.192 496

---

1 It is found that the non-basic constituents, i.e. vocatives and exclamations and optional constituents, i.e. temporal and locative adjuncts may occur together in a sentence.
Examples of expanded complex sentences expanded by the exclamations, and illustrating the formulae:

(1) Ex. Compl. S. —— Excl + DCL + CL + ICL + P + SIC

(2) Ex. Compl. S. —— Excl + DCL + CL + ICL + P + Excl + SIC

Excl | DCL | CL | ICL | P | SIC
---|---|---|---|---|---
1 | 'ui kway | kuiy'ā:kui: lui | la | tai 'uccā bhai | 1
| Oh! | self rely p | come | p | p | p

Oh! he has come (only) because he believes in us. p. 24 59

Excl | DCL | CL | ICL | P | Excl | SIC
---|---|---|---|---|---|---
2 | 'amele: | tō mrań bhū: tā ka | cac-buil -krī: | pā (to') | 1
| Oh! dear | you see p p p | war-officer-big p | (intj)

Oh dear! What you have seen is the officer. p. 115 273a

Examples of expanded complex sentences expanded by the adjuncts, and illustrating the formulae:

(1) Ex. Compl. S. —— DCL + CL + adjt + Adjt + ICL + P + SIC

(2) Ex. Compl. S. —— adjt + DCL + CL + ICL + P + SIC

DCL | CL | T. adjt
---|---|---
1 | mań: kui mi to'lai A | tuik prī: chay'rhac nārī 'akrā
| you p caught p p | rob finish ten -eight hour long

Loc. adjt | ICL | P | SIC
---|---|---|---
{pattō 'rwā mhā} | mi | tay | 1
{Pattor-village p} | caught | p

You were caught in Pattor village eighteen hours after the robbery. p. 134 318
(I) will make detailed enquiries in the morning to find out the causes.

Loc. adjt

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DCL</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>ICL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dī</td>
<td>kwañ: nā: ka</td>
<td>karañ mhan yañ A/B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this loop near p</td>
<td>Karen true p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We are in contact with almost all the Karens near this field. p.192 50k

Examples of expanded compound sentences expanded by the vocatives, and illustrating the formula:

Ex. Compd. S. → ICL + SIC + SL + Voc + ICL + SIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>SIC</th>
<th>SL</th>
<th>Voc.</th>
<th>ICL</th>
<th>SIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'on' thāi:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>,</td>
<td>samī: ray</td>
<td>'on' thāi:</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constriction keep</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>daughter p</td>
<td>constriction keep</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Be brave, daughter, be brave. p.175 437
Example of an expanded compound sentence expanded by an exclamation, and illustrating the formula:-

Ex. Compd. S. → Excl + ICL + SIC + SL + ICL + SIC

Excl ICL SIC SL ICL SIC
1 | {‘amale:} se 1 | {Oh dear!} die 1 |
   | Oh! (let me) die, (let me) die.

p.151 398

Example of an expanded compound sentence expanded by adjuncts, and illustrating the formula:-

Ex. Compd. S. → adjt + DCL + CL + ICL + SIC + SL + ICL + P + SIC

Loc. adjt DCL CL
1 | {bhe: ka} tarup kulā: -twe kroñ’ A/B |
   | beside p Chinese Indian-many p |
   | ICL SIC SL ICL P SIC |
   | kyup-tui’ pui khak lim’ may 1 | than tay 1 |
   | I -many move difficult will p | think p |

Because of the Chinese and Indians beside us, it seems (that) we would be (in) more difficult (situations).

p.21 39c
Examples of expanded question sentences using the question particle la:,
expanded by exclamations, vocatives and adjuncts, and illustrating the
formulae:-

(1) Ex. QS. ——> Excl + adjt + adjt + ICL + P + SIC

(2) Ex. QS. ——> Voc + adjt = ICL + P + SIC

Hey! Would it be possible to approach the town before it gets dark?

Mother! Would it be all right in such darkness?

Example of expanded question sentence using the question particle lim'
expanded by exclamation, and illustrating the formula:—

EX. QS ——> ICL + P + Excl + SIC

What would it be?
Examples of expanded question sentences using the question particle lai, expanded by vocatives and exclamations, and illustrating the formulae:-

(1) Ex. QS ——> Excl + ICL + P + SIC

(2) Ex. QS ——> Voc + ICL + P + SIC

Excl | ICL | P | SIC
---|---|---|---
1 | {′e: 'e:} man bha thā: khyan | sa-lai | 1
   | {intj} you what keep want | p |

Yes, Yes. What do you want to leave (with me)?

Excl | ICL | P | SIC
---|---|---|---
2 | {he΄ kon} bhā-luiὉ thamaː: hāt ra mhā lai | 3
   | {hey creature} why rice starve | p | p | p |

Hey, you! Why must (we) starve? (Karen accent)

Example of expanded question sentence using the question particle no, expanded by exclamation, and illustrating the formula:-

Ex. QS ——> Excl + ICL + P + SIC

Excl | ICL | P | SIC
---|---|---|---
1 | {hā} dī gyaːpan -cakkū hā 'alakā: | po΄nō | 3
   | {intj} this Japanese-paper useless | p | p | p |

Ha! This Japanese currency is valueless, isn't it?
CHAPTER III

CLAUSES

3.1 CLAUSES (Cl)

A clause is a unit of grammar and as a rank it stands below the sentence rank and above the group rank.

A clause may contain one or more than one noun group (N) and/or more than one verb group (V). In a clause containing more than one noun group and/or more than one verb group, the groups may or may not be linked together by the group linking particles (Gp). In the case of dependent clauses the clause markers (CM) are always present.

3.2 CLAUSE CONSTITUENTS

The constituents of the clauses as found in the texts analysed are:

1. Noun groups (N)
2. Verb groups (V)
3. Group linking particles (Gp)
4. Clause markers (CM)
5. Rank-shifted sentences (RS)
Clauses may be classified into two main types, namely

(i) Independent Clauses (ICL)

(ii) Dependent Clauses (DCL)

3.4 (i) INDEPENDENT CLAUSES (ICL)

An independent clause may be defined as a clause that can stand alone as a sentence. It may contain one or more than one noun group and/or one or more than one verb group. In an independent clause containing more than one noun group, these groups may or may not be linked together by a group linking particle. An independent clause always follows the dependent clause in Complex sentences (see pp 39-42 , section 2.7).

Thus an independent clause may be represented by a formula:

\[
\text{ICL} \rightarrow N^n/V^n
\]

\[
\text{OR}
\]

\[
\text{ICL} \rightarrow N^n/V^n \pm G_p + N^n/V^n
\]

1 The superscript \( ^n \) indicates any number.
3.5 GROUP-LINKING PARTICLES (Gp)

A group linking particle may be defined as a particle which links the groups, i.e. noun groups and/or verb groups within a clause (either dependent or independent). In the texts analysed the only group linking particles found are nai' and nhan'.

examples

1  lu-chui:  nai'  lu-koh:
    man-bad  and/with  man-good

(The) bad man and/(with) a good man.  p.63 142

2  khañ byâ:-tui  nai'  kyup-tui'  ha
   you  -many  and/with  I -many  p

You (all) and we (are).  p.92 213a

3  kui khyak kri:  nai'  ma-tan
    Ko Chat Gyi  p  not-suit

Not suitable for Ko Chat Gyi.  p.54 403

3.6 THE PRINCIPAL DEPENDENT CLAUSE STRUCTURES

The principal dependent clause structures as found in the texts analysed may be summarized as follows:-

I.  ICL ———> N

II.  ICL ———> N  +Gp  + N

III.  ICL ———> N  +Gp  + N  +Gp  + N

IV.  ICL ———> V

V.  ICL ———> N  +Gp  + V
VI.  ICL \rightarrow N  \pm Gp + N  \pm Gp + V \\
VII. ICL \rightarrow N + N + N + V \\

Examples of independent clauses, illustrating the formula:-

I.  ICL \rightarrow N \\

N \\
1  \parallel nacpw\text{n cac-buil}  \-kri:  'i 'amin' \parallel  \\
   Nippon war-officer-big of order \parallel  \\
   (The) order of the Japanese Military officer. \hspace{1cm} p.83 204a \\

N \\
2  \parallel sabh\text{o} \parallel  \\
   wish \parallel  \\
   (As you) wish. \hspace{1cm} p.139 348 \\

N \\
3  \parallel kyup sami:  -kale:  \parallel  \\
   my daughter-little \parallel  \\
   My little daughter. \hspace{1cm} p.225 631 \\

N \\
4  \parallel 'aphe ka lai \parallel  \\
   father p p \parallel  \\
   (You father (you). \hspace{1cm} p.239 667 \\

---

1  The hyphens (\(-\)) between the words indicates that the whole sequence is to be taken as one word and the words in the parentheses are added to mitigate the awkwardness of the literal translation into English.

The two vertical lines mark the clause boundaries.
N
5 | tay tō tai' koň -kale: |
   | very fair p creature-little |
   (A) good little chap. 

Examples of independent clauses illustrating the formula:-

II. ICL N ±Gp + N

N   N
1 | dā | gyāpan -lup |
   | this | Japanese-made |

This (is the thing) made (in) Japan. 

N   N
2 | hori: ka lai | kula: |
   | Hori p p | Indian |

Hori (is) also (an) Indian. 

N   N
3 | lay-sama: ha | lay-sama: |
   | farmer p | farmer |

Farmer(s) (are) farmer(s). 

N   N
4 | sū | ha bha |
   | he | Nga Ba |

He (is) Nga Ba. 

p.262 747 

p.9 4 

p.21 39a 

p.21 40b 

p.135 328
Examples of independent clauses illustrating the formula:-

III. ICL $\rightarrow$ N $\pm$ Gp + N $\pm$ Gp + N

1. tap-krap-kale: buil kray nǐ nai' kyup nai nhac-yok thai
   sergent -little Bo Kye Ni p I p two -person only
   (There are) only two, (i.e.) Corporal Kye Ni and I.  p. 191 488

2. kywan-ma -tui' ka to -sū-toh -sā: lay-sama:
   slave-female-many p jungle-he-mountain-son farmer
   We (are) just farmers (and) rustics.  p. 229 640

3. kywan-tū -tui' Bamā-twe-lui nāḥ-khoṅ: nhac-pok nhaṅ'
   slave-royal-many Burman-many nose two-hole p

4. lū khyaṅā
   man almost
   Like we, Burmans, (each has) only two nostrils.  p. 237 662
Examples of independent clauses illustrating the formula: ICL → V

IV. ICL → V

1  
| 'ā:krī: 'ōh' |
| very pain |
| Very painful. |

2  
| Khwañ-pru kra |
| permission-do p |
| Excuse (me) please. |

3.  
| pran -ma-pro |
| return-not-speak |
| (Don't) answer back. |

4  
| 'atō -sä: |
| fair- p |
| Not bad. |

5  
| yuũ -yuũ -kraňñ-kraňñ tuĩñ pañ-lup |
| believe-believe-clear-clear discuss-do |
| Do confidently. |

6  
| ma -se -ma -khyañ: mhat |
| not-die-not- p remember |
| Remember until (you) die. |
Examples of independent clauses illustrating the formula: 

\[ V. \quad \text{ICL} \rightarrow N \#Gp + V \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>ñwe nhao-kyap-khwai</code></td>
<td><code>'akun -ma-kha+a muih</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>silver two-rupee-half</td>
<td>exhaust-not-suffer can</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(I) can't afford to spend two and a half rupees.  

I have lived with (you) brother.  

(When could we live) with (our) own rice-fields (like) human beings.  

(He is) suspected of robbery.  

(I) will speak honestly.
mi -bha -twe ka lai | sabho-kya
mother-father-many | wish-drop
(The) parents also agree.

N      V
7     tai-kale: to' | khyai' ra
      hut-little | extend must
(The) hut (would) have to be extended.

N      V
8     khwe:-tap lui' | krä:
dog -troop | hear
(I) hear that (it's a) dog-gang.

N      V
9     kywan-ma -tui' kui | kay sañ'
      slave-female-many | save ought
(You) ought to save us.

Examples of independent clauses illustrating the formula:-

VI. ICL ----> N ± Gp + N ± Gp + V

lū -chuū: nai' lū -koh: khwai-khra: sī ra
man-bad | p | man-good | differentiate | know | must
(I now) realize the difference between a good man and an evil man.
You have not seen (the Japanese) soldier yet.  

I (am) not (at all) suitable for Ko Chat Gyi.  

You don't know anything.  

You (are) not Nga Ba.  

I pity you.  

All comrades (should) only think of God.
Examples of independent clauses illustrating the formula:

VII. ICL → N + N + N + V

1. kyup sabho ka to' | kulā: ray | tarup ray lui | ma -twe: tat
   | my wish p p | Indian p | Chinese p p | not-think skillful

   I cannot differentiate between Chinese and Indians.  p.21 40a

2. kyup-to' | muiñ ūam-re: so | lū-myui: -re: so | nā:-ma-laññ
   | I p | politics p | nationalism p | not-understand

   I don't understand either politics or nationalism.  p.113 263

3. kyup ka | kyup lam: | kyup swā: ne
   | I p | my road | I go live

   I (was) going my own way.  p.116 281a

3.7 (ii) DEPENDENT CLAUSES (DCL)

A dependent clause may be defined as a clause that cannot stand alone as a sentence. It may contain one or more than one noun group and/or one or more than one verb group. In a dependent clause containing more than one noun group and/or more than one verb group,
the groups may or may not be linked together by group-linking particles. (See pp. 74, section 3.5.) These groups, i.e., noun groups and/or verb groups are always followed in close juncture by the clause markers (CM).

A dependent clause precedes an independent clause in a complex sentence (see pp. 39-42, section 2.7).

Thus a dependent clause may be represented by a formula:

\[ \text{DCL} \rightarrow N^n/V^n + \text{CM} \]

or

\[ \text{DCL} \rightarrow N^n/V^n \pm \text{Gp} + N^n/V^n + \text{CM} \]

3.8 CLAUSE MARKERS (CM)

A clause marker may be defined as a particle or a cluster of particles which follows the constituent groups, i.e., noun groups and/or verb groups, of a dependent clause in close juncture.

The types of clause markers, i.e., particles or clusters of particles, which mark the dependent clause may be listed as:

1. kroñ'
2. lui'
3. mui'
4. yañ/lhyañ
5. bhui'
6. yañ:
7. ka to'
8. kui to'
9. mui'lui'
10. bhui' to'
11. ma-lui' 'uccā
12. mha phrañ'
3.9 CRITERIA FOR DISTINGUISHING INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES

An independent clause differs from a dependent clause in three respects

(i) In an independent clause there is no particle or cluster of particles to mark the clause as independent, whereas in a dependent clause there is a particle or a cluster of particles to serve as a marker to mark the clause as dependent.

(ii) An independent clause follows a dependent clause in a complex sentence.

(iii) An independent clause can be formed into a question independent clause, but not so a dependent clause.

3.10 THE PRINCIPAL DEPENDENT CLAUSE STRUCTURES

The principal dependent clause structures as found in the texts analysed may be summarized as follows

I. DCL \rightarrow N + CM

II. DCL \rightarrow N \pm Gp + N + CM

III. DCL \rightarrow V + CM

IV. DCL \rightarrow N + V + CM

V. DCL \rightarrow N + N + V + CM
Examples of dependent clauses illustrating the formula:

I. DCL \( \rightarrow \) N + CM

1
\[\begin{array}{c|c|c}
N & CM \\
\hline
lu-chui:-twe & ka to' & \\
man-bad & p & p \\
\end{array}\]

As for the robbers ...

2
\[\begin{array}{c|c|c}
N & CM \\
\hline
tarup kulä:-twe & kron' & \\
Chinese Indian & p & \\
\end{array}\]

Because of Chinese (and) Indians ...

3
\[\begin{array}{c|c|c}
N & CM \\
\hline
maŋgalä-kicca & kui to' & \\
wedding-occasion & p & p \\
\end{array}\]

As regards the wedding ceremony ...

II. DCL \( \rightarrow \) N \( \pm \)Gp + N + CM

1
\[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
N & Gp & N & CM \\
\hline
dui' 'acui:ra & na' & dui' & mui' lui' & \\
our government & p & we & p & p \\
\end{array}\]

As we (have) our own government ...

1 The dots indicate sense of continuation.
<p>| 2 | dan-rā ka | haktak-krī: | mui' |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>wound</th>
<th>crack-big</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As (it is) a gaping wound ...</td>
<td>p.73 180</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 3 | sū ka | san:-kōñ | lui' |
|  | he | mid-night | p |
| As he (said) midnight ... | p.192 495 |

| 4 | sakhañ-myui: | ʔnwan' ka | buil-kray ni | lui' |
|  | Thakin Myo Nyunt | Bo Kye Ni | p |
| As Thakin Myo Nyunt (said it was) Bo Kye Ni ... | p.215 595 |

**Examples of dependent clauses illustrating the formula:**

**III. DCL**  
**V + CM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>CM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ma -yuñ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not-believe</td>
<td>if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If (you) don't believe ...</td>
<td>p.63 44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>CM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>pyak-kwak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absent</td>
<td>if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If absent ...</td>
<td>p.83 203b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examples of dependent clauses illustrating the formula:-

IV. DCL → N + V + CM

1

| 'arap | pyak | yah |
| place | destroy | if |

If the world (is) destroyed ...

p.16 8b

2

| dhani-si: | khü: | ma-lui | 'ucca |
| dani-fruit | pluck | p | p |

While (planning) to pluck (the) dani-fruits ...

p.19 18a
Whenever you think ... 

If you want to be prosperous ... 

(It seems) (they) would start to fight us ... 

If you (are) released ... 

Examples of dependent clauses illustrating the formula:

V. DCL ——— N + N + V + CM

As (you) know that (I was) not involved in the robbery ...
3.11 RANK-SHIFTED SENTENCES

This (phenomenon) happens when a given unit is as it were "shifted" down the rank scale to operate as part of the pattern of one further down or of equal rank to itself.¹ In the texts analysed

¹ See M.A.K. Halliday; Angus McIntosh, Peter Strevens "The Linguistic Sciences and Language teaching", 1968, p. 27.
it is found, at the clause rank analysis, that sentences may be shifted down the rank scale to operate as constituents of dependent clauses. Therefore a rank-shifted sentence may be defined as the one which is shifted down from the sentence rank and operates as a constituent of a dependent clause.

Example

\[ \text{DCL} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{N} \\
\text{ICL} \\
\text{SIC} \\
\end{array} \]

\[ \quad \begin{array}{c}
\text{RS} \\
\text{CM} \\
\end{array} \]

(We have received the information) that the Karens will surround the town.

\[ \text{p.73 179} \]

---

2 The square brackets mark the rank-shifted sentence boundary; two vertical lines mark the clause boundary and the single vertical line marks the group boundary.
Examples of rank-shifted sentences operating as constituents of dependent clauses.

1 | kyup to | phu: tup tapann | thai kha bhai | lui |
   | I     | Phyto Toke pupil | p p p |

I (think that they may be) some of the disciples of Phyto Toke. p.101

2 | da lok nai | pri: tan ko: | rai | lui |
   | this nearly with | finish ought good | p |

(I think) it ought to be enough. p.138 342

3 | bama -muinham-kr: | lwat-lap | tay | chui | yahn |
   | Burma-country-big | free | p | speak | p |

The fact (that) Burma is free ... p.237 660
(The fact) that I robbed ...
CHAPTER IV

STRUCTURE OF NON-BASIC AND OPTIONAL SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS

4.1  STRUCTURE OF NON-BASIC AND OPTIONAL SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS

I have already mentioned that the vocatives and exclamations are non-basic constituents and the adjuncts, i.e. temporal and locative adjuncts are the optional constituents of sentences.

But since as yet, I have not mentioned and exemplified the structures of those non-basic and optional sentence constituents, they will be briefly described below.

4.2  STRUCTURE OF VOCATIVES

Vocatives, as found in the texts analysed, are always noun groups, constituted of nouns which may or may not be followed in close juncture by a post noun particle or a cluster of post noun particles. In some cases interjections (see p.159, section 6.20) may precede the nouns.
Examples

1. bha-thwe: re
   Uncle!
   p.4 2

2. mi pho' rā
   Mi Phaw
   Mi Phaw (the name of a lady)
   p.17-8 10

3. min: ma rā
   woman
   (My) wife
   p.22 44a

4. he' phui: tup
   Hey! Phyo Toke
   Hey! Phyo Toke (the name of a man)
   p.103 243

5. he' ọa bha
   Hey! Nga Ba
   Hey! Nga Ba (the name of a man)
   p.106 246

6. 'aphe
   father
   Father!
   p.237 657
4.3 STRUCTURE OF EXCLAMATIONS

In the texts analysed Exclamations are either verb groups, constituted of interjections followed in close juncture by post-verb particles or a cluster of post-verb particles, or noun groups, constituted of nouns which may or may not be followed in close juncture by post-noun particles or clusters of post-noun particles.

Examples of exclamations (excl)

\[ V \]  
\[ \text{intj vp} \]  
\[ 1 \]  
\[ 'e: po' \]  
\[ Ah! p \]  
\[ Ah yes. \]  

\[ V \]  
\[ \text{intj vp vp} \]  
\[ 2 \]  
\[ 'a\text{ñ} po' le \]  
\[ Ah p p \]  
\[ Yes. \]  

\[ N \]  
\[ n np \]  
\[ 3 \]  
\[ 'aphe re' \]  
\[ father p \]  
\[ Oh father! (Alarm) of four \]  

p.17 9
p.35 58
p.237 659
4.4 STRUCTURE OF TEMPORAL AND LOCATIVE ADJUNCTS

The optional sentence constituents, i.e. the temporal and locative adjuncts as found in the texts analysed are always noun groups constituted of nouns which may or may not be followed in close juncture by post-noun particles or clusters of post-noun particles.

Examples of Locative adjuncts (Loc. adjts)
From Yegyawwa (village)  p.65  149

In Burma  p.19  21

In (the) garden

Examples of temporal adjuncts (T. adjt)

In this year  p.15  6

In the morning  p.73  198a
just now

At first
CHAPTER V

GROUPS

5.1 GROUPS

A group is a grammatical unit which stands below the clause rank and above the word rank. A group can be defined as a unit which is composed of either two or more words or of one word.

5.2 GROUP CONSTITUENTS

The constituents of the groups found in the texts analysed are:

1. Nouns (n)
2. Verbs (v)
3. Auxiliaries (aux)
4. Intensifiers (ints.)
5. Connecting particles or connectors (c)
6. Post-noun particles (np)
7. Post-verb particles (vp)
8. Rank-shifted verb groups (RV)
9. Negative particles (neg)
10. Suffixes (suf)
11. Interjections (intj)
5.3 **GROUP TYPES**

Groups may be classified into two types, namely

1. noun groups (N)
2. verb groups (V)

5.4 **SUB-TYPES OF NOUN GROUPS**

Noun groups (N) may be sub-classified into four sub-types, namely

1. Simple noun groups (N)
2. Co-ordinate noun groups (Nco)
3. Item appositive noun groups (Napp.)
4. Noun groups containing rank-shifted verb groups

5.5 **(i) SIMPLE NOUN GROUPS (N)**

A simple noun group may consist of one or two or three nouns\(^1\) (n) which may or may not be followed in close juncture by a post-noun particle or a cluster of post-noun particles (np).

\[
\begin{array}{c}
N^2 \\
\underline{n^{1-3} + np}
\end{array}
\]

---

1. Theoretically, in a noun group, there may be more than three nouns. But in the texts analysed, the maximum number of nouns in a noun group is found to be three.

2. The superscript \((1-3)\) after (n) indicates that the number of nouns varies from one to three in a simple noun group.
Thus a simple noun group may be represented by a formula:

\[ N \rightarrow n^{1-3} \pm np \]

Examples of simple noun groups, each consisting of one noun only

1. \( N \)
\( n \)
\( kywan-ma^2 \)
\( slave-female \)
I (used by a lady)

2. \( N \)
\( n \)
\( su \)
\( he \)
He (or) She

3. \( N \)
\( n \)
\( kywan-to \)
\( slave-royal \)
I (used by a man)

1. As the number of noun groups, some consisting of one noun, some of two nouns, and some of three nouns, with or without post-noun particles or clusters of post-noun particles, is numerous, it is more appropriate to show the examples in groups. Therefore I have grouped the examples of noun groups as follows:

   (i) Noun-groups, each consisting of one noun only
   (ii) Noun-groups, each consisting of two nouns only
   (iii) Noun-groups, each consisting of three nouns only
   (iv) and, Noun-groups, each consisting of any number of nouns followed by a post-noun particle or a cluster of post-noun particles.

2. The noun or nouns of a noun group may be simple noun and/or complex noun and/or compound noun. The single strokes indicate the group boundaries.
4 | lū -rann - tat  
   | man-quality-skillful  
   | (An) efficient man

5 | Khanbyā:  
   | you
   | You

6 | bhuṅ -kri:yon:  
   | monk- school
   | Monastery

7 | pran -khyiṅ  
   | return-time
   | Time (to) return

8 | 'aṅtuṅ  
   | bowl
   | Bowl
(ii) Examples of simple noun groups, each consisting of two nouns

1

puikchaṃ nā: -mū:
money five-mu

Eight annas

2

kui-phrui:-tup 'akroñ:
Ko -Phyo -Toke about

Personal history of Ko Phyo Toke

There is in fact no clear cut distinction between compound word and a noun group. There are many borderline cases which may be referred to by either term. But in some cases the members of a sequence are closely linked, and in some cases, the members of a sequence are loosely linked. It is more convenient to refer to the latter sequence as a noun group and to the former sequence as a compound word. The most helpful criterion for making a distinction between a compound word and a noun group in Burmese is a phonological one**, the contrast between two types of transition from syllable to syllable which may be termed "close juncture" and "open juncture".

e.g. cakā: pran [zaga: pjā] (open juncture - a group) = to reply
     . cakā: pran [zagəbja] (close juncture - a compound word) = interpreter

** See 1. R.K. Sprigg, "Junction in Spoken Burmese", in Studies in Linguistic Analysis, special volume of the Philological Society, 1957

Life of a farmer

Bad men of the same type

Thirty years

Reliance

A destroyed saw-base

You, yourself...
(iii) Examples of simple groups, each consisting of three nouns

N

1  iwe ta-rā’ hā: -chay
   silver one-hundred five-ten

   One hundred (and) fifty rupees.  p.24 57a

N

2  iwe sum: le: -rā
   silver three four-hundred

   Three (or) four hundred rupees.  p.34 79

N

3  gyāpan 'aloũ: le: -chay
   Japanese corpse four-ten

   Forty Japanese corpses.  p.197 538

N

4  yuũ -kraũn-khyak 'acwai ta -khu
   believe-clear- p adherence one-thing

   A belief  p.234 654

(iv) Examples of simple noun groups, each consisting of one or more
nouns followed by a post-noun particle or a cluster of post-noun particles

N

1  kywan-ma lañũn-paũ: kui
   slave-female neck p

   (To) my neck  p.5 3
He (is) np

For (the) majority of poor people np

As (these are) capitalists' properties np

Nature of the case np

Thirty six prisoners np

Among the Burmans np
5.6 (2) CO-ORDINATE NOUN GROUPS (Nco.)

In a co-ordinate noun group (Nco.), the constituents are joined by a connector or connectors (c).

\[
Nco^1
\]

\[
n \pm np \quad c \quad n \quad \pm np \quad c \quad n \quad \pm np \ldots
\]

Thus a co-ordinate noun group may be represented by a formula:-

\[
Nco. \longrightarrow n \pm np + c + n \pm np + c + n \pm np \ldots
\]

5.7 CONNECTORS (c)

A connector (c) in a co-ordinate noun group may be defined as a particle which co-ordinates one noun with an other. There are in Burmese a restricted set of particles which connect the nouns of a co-ordinate noun group, but in the texts analysed only two such particles (or connectors), i.e. nai and ray are found.

---

1 It is found that the connector (c) which connects the first with the second noun (or noun group) is repeated if there is the third noun or noun group to be included in a co-ordinate noun group. This process of repetition would continue as much as there are nouns or noun groups to be co-ordinated. The three dots (\ldots) indicate that the sequence may continue. The vertical lines indicate the group boundary.
### Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nco</th>
<th>Nco</th>
<th>Nco</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>man: nai' ha</td>
<td>You and/(with) I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>man: nai' ha nai'</td>
<td>You and/(with) I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>man: ray ha</td>
<td>You and/(with) I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. In the above examples a difference is noticed between the connectors nai' and ray. nai' differs from ray in that it appears not only in between the two nouns of the co-ordinate noun group but may or may not also appear after the second noun (cf. 1 and 2 above); whereas in the case of a co-ordinate noun group with the connector ray, ray must appear in both places, i.e. both in between and after the nouns of a co-ordinate noun group (cf. 3 above) for we can never have a co-ordinate group like

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Nco</th>
<th>Nco</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man: ray ha</td>
<td>You and/with I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examples of co-ordinate noun groups, illustrating the formula:–

$$N_{co} \rightarrow n \, \#np + c + n \, \#np + c + n \, \#np \ldots$$

1. Hori-tui'ta -suik ray kyup-tui' ray
   Hori-many one-group and I -many p
   Hori (with) his group and we

2. 'ap nai' mran -mfr: kui
   Needle and/with horse-tail p
   Needle and/(with) horse-tail

3. mi pho' nai' kyup kale: nā: -yok 'atwak sā
   Mi Phaw and/with my children five-person for only
   Only for Mi Phaw and my five children

4. 'akyūi: ray 'akroh: ray
   effect and cause
   Causes and effects.

1. The co-ordinate noun groups are not analysable as clauses constituted of simple noun groups linked together by group-linking particles (see p.74, sec.3.5) for the following reasons:

   (i) The group linking particle (Gp), i.e. nai' between any two noun groups of a clause is **deletable**.

   (ii) But the connector (c), i.e. nai' between any two nouns or noun groups of a co-ordinate noun group is **not** deletable.
Unlike a co-ordinate noun group, an item appositive noun group may be defined as a paratactic construction in which the constituents i.e. nouns and noun particles are not joined by a connector or connectors (which are in particle form), but by pauses (,).

Thus an item appositive noun group may be represented by a formula:-

\[
\text{Napp} \rightarrow n \text{ } \pm^{np}, \text{ } n \text{ } \pm^{np}, \text{ } n \text{ } \pm^{np}
\]

5.9 CRITERION TO DISTINGUISH A CO-ORDINATE NOUN-GROUP FROM AN ITEM APPOSITIVE NOUN GROUP.

The presence or absence of a connector (or connectors) in a noun group may serve as a criterion to justify whether the group in question is a co-ordinate noun group or an item appositive noun group. In a co-ordinate noun group a connector (or connectors) is always present, while in an item appositive noun group a connector is always
The item appositive noun group is different from a simple noun group of the structure \( n \ + np + n \ + np \ldots \) in that in an item appositive noun group the pause is always present between the constituents, i.e. nouns with or without noun particles whereas between the constituents, i.e. nouns with or without post-noun particles, of a simple noun group, the pause is always absent.

**Examples**

1. \( \begin{align*} & n \quad n \\ & \text{khwe:}-ma \quad -sâ:\ , \quad \text{myui:}-\text{phyak} \\ & \text{dog} \quad \text{-female-son} \\ & \text{race} \quad \text{-destroy} \\ & \text{(You) son of a bitch (and) (the) destroyer of the race} \ldots \end{align*} \)

2. \( \begin{align*} & n \quad n \\ & \text{sañ:}-\text{tui}' \ , \quad \text{tarup} \ -\text{twe} \\ & \text{he} \quad \text{-many} \\ & \text{Chinese}-\text{many} \\ & \text{They (Chinese) are} \ldots \end{align*} \)

---

1 Besides this formal criterion a semantic consideration is brought in. In a co-ordinate noun group the constituents, i.e. nouns with or without noun particles have different external referents while those of an item appositive noun group have the same external referents.

2 Theoretically an item appositive noun group (Napp.) may consist of two or more than two nouns with or without noun particles, but in my analysis, it is found that there are item appositive noun groups each consisting of two nouns with or without post-noun particles.
3. n n np
   ṇā-tui', to -sā:-twe hā
   I -many forest-son-many p
   We (the) rustic people (are) ... p.93 219

4. n n
   'akhu , khyak khyāŋ:
   now immediately
   Now, immediately ... p.123 289

5. n n
   dui', lay-samā:
   we farmers
   We, (the) farmers ... p.137 337

6. n n np
   kyup-tui', lū-ŋay -khyāŋ: to'
   I -many man-young-same p
   We, (the) youths (are) ... p.193 510

7. n n np
   maṅ:-tui', nhac-'ū: lai
   you -many two -person p
   You, both ... p.248 704
5.10 **RANK-SHIFTED GROUPS**

A rank-shifted group may be defined as a group which operates as a constituent of another group (which is of equal rank to itself) or as a constituent of a word (which is of one rank further down). In the texts analysed it is found that some of the verb groups\(^1\) are rank-shifted and operate as constituents of other noun or verb groups. Before rank-shifting, the verb groups are also found to undergo either one of the two processes of construction, namely

(i) **Suffixation**

(ii) **Reduplication**

5.11 **(i) SUFFIXATION**

By means of this process, the verb groups to be rank-shifted are suffixed by the appropriate suffixes before they are rank-shifted. Then only, they are shifted down either to a rank below, i.e. the word rank, or to a rank which is of equal rank to themselves, i.e. the group rank.

Examples 1

\[
\begin{array}{c}
N \\
\downarrow \\
RV \\
v \\
\downarrow \\
suf \\
n \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\langle \text{hui tai} \rangle \\
\text{cry} \\
\end{array}
\]

kale: child

(The) baby (who) cries ...

\(^1\) In the texts analysed, only one noun group which after reduplication is rank-shifted and operates as a constituent of a verb group is found although theoretically there may be many.
From the examples above, it is obvious that if the suffixes tai' or mai' is added to the verbs nui (= cry) and swa: (= go) respectively, the verb groups, i.e. nui tai' and swa: mai' can be rank-shifted to operate as the constituents of the word (or the noun) kale: (= child) and of the noun group lû kui respectively.

5.12 SUFFIXES (suf)

Theoretically there may be any number of suffixes, but in the texts analysed it is found that there are three suffixes, i.e. tai', mai' and cwa nhah' which are used specifically to suffix the verb groups before they are rank-shifted.
5.13 (ii) REDUPLICATION

This is a particular type of grammatical formation whereby one or more verbs or one or more nouns (although very rarely) are repeated in the same verb group or noun group respectively before the group is rank-shifted. Then only the group is shifted down either to a rank below, i.e. the word rank, or to a rank which is of equal rank to itself, i.e. the group rank. For instance,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mran} & \quad \text{by reduplication} \quad \text{mran} \quad \text{mran} \\
\text{quick} & \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{quick} \quad \text{quick} \quad (= \text{quickly})
\end{align*}
\]

After this reduplication, the verb group, i.e. mran mran can be rank-shifted to operate as a constituent of another verb group. For instance

\[
\begin{align*}
V & \\
\text{RV} & \\
\text{v} & \quad \text{v} \\
, & \quad \langle \text{mran} \quad \text{mran} \rangle \quad \text{lā} \\
, & \quad \langle \text{quick} \quad \text{quick} \rangle \quad \text{come}
\end{align*}
\]

Come quickly

For the reduplication of noun, see the example in the footnote, on page 114.
Examples of noun groups, in each of which a suffixed and rank-shifted verb group is embedded

1

\[ \text{N} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{RV} \\
\text{v} \quad \text{v} \\
\text{suf} \\
\text{n}
\end{array} \]

\[ \langle \text{hat se tai} \rangle \text{ masä} \]

\[ \langle \text{starve die suf} \rangle \text{ death} \]

Death by starvation

2

\[ \text{N} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{RV} \\
\text{v} \quad \text{v} \\
\text{suf} \\
\text{n} \quad \text{n}
\end{array} \]

\[ \langle \text{ap thä: tai} \rangle \text{ capä: nhac-rä} \]

\[ \langle \text{entrust keep suf} \rangle \text{ rice-grain two-hundred} \]

Two hundred baskets of rice-grain (which are) entrusted.

3

\[ \text{N} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{RV} \\
\text{v} \\
\text{aux. suf:} \\
\text{n}
\end{array} \]

\[ \langle \text{aprä -luik khyä: tai} \rangle \text{ cit -myä:} \]

\[ \langle \text{happiness-follow want suf:} \rangle \text{ mind-many} \]

The desire to astray life
Even the women (who) send the meals ...

With the date of you return

5.14 SUB-TYPES OF VERB GROUPS

Verb groups may be sub-classified into two sub-types, namely

(i) Simple verb groups (V)

(ii) Verb groups in which rank-shifted verb groups are operating as constituents

5.15 (i) SIMPLE VERB GROUPS (V)

A simple verb group may consist of one or two or three verbs, which may or may not be followed in close juncture by one or more

---

1 Theoretically in a verb group, there may be more than three verbs. But in the texts analysed, the maximum number of verbs in a verb group is found to be three.
auxiliary verbs (aux.) and/or by post-verb particle or a cluster of post-verb particles (vp). A negative particle ma and/or intensifier (ints.) may or may not also precede the verb group.

Thus a simple verb-group may be represented by a formula:

\[ V \rightarrow ^{\text{neg.}} \begin{array}{c} \text{ints.} \\ \text{v}^{1-3} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{aux.} \\ \text{vp} \end{array} \]

(i) Examples of verb groups

V

V

1

\[ \text{khū: ma lui' 'uccā} \]

pluck p p p

(While) thinking of plucking

1 The superscript \( ^{1-3} \) after \( v \) indicates that the number of nouns varies from one to three in a simple verb group.

2 Examples of the verb groups are divided and shown into three groups:

(i) The verb-groups, each consisting of one or two or three verbs which may or may not be followed in close juncture by a post-verb particle or a cluster of post-verb particles (vp).

(ii) The verb groups, each consisting of one or two or three verbs which are followed by auxiliaries or auxiliary verbs and these auxiliaries may or may not be followed in close juncture by a post-verb particle or a cluster of post-verb particles (vp).

(iii) The verb groups, each consisting of one or two or three verbs which are followed and/or preceded by intensifiers (ints.) and the intensifiers that follow the verb or verbs may or may not be followed in close juncture by a post-verb particle or a cluster of post-verb particles.
(iv) The verb groups each consisting of one or two or three verbs which may or may not be followed in close juncture by a post-verb particle of a cluster of post-verb particles and preceded by the negative particle ma.
5.16 **AUXILIARIES (aux.)**

Auxiliaries or auxiliary verbs are in fact a sub-class of verbs which usually follow other verbs in close juncture. One or more auxiliary verbs may follow the other verb or verbs in succession. ¹

---

¹ Theoretically any number of auxiliary verbs may follow the other verb or verbs in succession, but in the texts analysed the maximum number is found only to be two.
For instance,

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
V & v & aux. & vp \\
1 & mrañ & ra & may \\
& see & must & p \\
\end{array}
\]

Must (be) seen ... 

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
V & v & aux. & aux. & vp \\
2 & mrañ & muiñ & se: & tay \\
& see & can & still & p \\
\end{array}
\]

(It) can still (be) seen

An auxiliary verb can be tested by inserting it into the blank spaces of the frames:

(a) verb + .... + noun, and
(b) verb + .... + post verb particles, i.e. may, tay or pri.

Unless it is an auxiliary verb, not other enclitic can fill these blank spaces of the frames (a) and (b).

(ii) Examples of verb groups containing auxiliaries or auxiliary verbs

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
V & v & aux & vp & vp \\
1 & 'ap & khai & ta bhai \\
& entrust & aux & p & p \\
\end{array}
\]

(I have) entrusted

---


2 When there is no English translation equivalent for the auxiliary verbs, I substitute the translations by the label aux.
Don't let (her/him) cry

(I) want to accuse

(You) must be bold (enough) to be slapped.

(I) have robbed indeed

(It) ought to be finished
An intensifier is in fact a sub-class of verb which always occurs within a verb group. When it so occurs it usually precedes the verb or verbs in close juncture. But in some cases, although very rare,
it may follow the verb or verbs in a verb group; and in some cases it may interrupt the verb structure.

For instance:

```
V
  v  ints.  vp
1  | chui:  lwan:  tay |
   | bad     extremely p |
Extremely bad.

V
  v  ints.  vp
2  | lwan 'ā:krī:  tay |
   | far     very     p |
Gone too far
```

```
v = ints. = v
3  | nā: = sip = lann |
   | ear = very     = turn |
Understand very much
```

When the negative particle ma is present in a verb group the intensifier precedes the negative particle. For instance,

1 But the number of intensifiers which follow the other verb or verbs is comparatively limited and in the texts analysed only one, i.e. lwan: is found. As regards the intensifier 'ā:krī: (see example 2 above) it is possible that it can also precede the verb.

```
ints.  v  vp
e.g.  | 'ā:krī:  lwan  tay |
      | very     far     p |
Gone very far
```
but not

\[
\text{neg ints. v vp } \quad \text{ma sip si bhū: } \quad \text{not very know p}
\]

(iii) Examples of verb groups containing intensifiers

\[
\text{V}
\]
\[
\text{ints. v vp vp}
\]
\[
\text{sip krok tā bhai}
\]
\[
\text{very afraid p p}
\]
\[
\text{Very much afraid of}
\]
\[
\text{V}
\]
\[
\text{ints. v}
\]
\[
\text{khap nan-'nan'}
\]
\[
\text{quite flirty}
\]
\[
\text{Quite flirty}
\]
The negative initial particle ma is a bound form which always occurs within a verb group. When it so occurs it usually precedes the verb or verbs in close juncture, except in some case, i.e. when the verb in a verb group is compound it may be found to interrupt the sequence and occurs in between the constituents of the compound verb. For instance,
Otherwise, the negative particle *ma* always precedes the verb or verbs. For instance,

1  

\[ \text{v} = \text{neg} \overset{1}{\text{v}} \text{ vp} \]

\[ \text{nhut = ma = chak bhūī.} \]

\[ \text{lip not join p} \]

Doesn't greet.

The negative initial particle *ma* may or may not be accompanied by one of the negative final particles which appears at the end of the verb group. Among the negative final particles that accompany the negative initial particle *ma*, the negative final particle *bhūī*: in the texts analysed is found to be the only specific one. (See the above examples 1 and 2)

---

1 The equal sign indicates that the verb or the verb group is interrupted by the negative particle.
Examples of verb groups preceded (or interrupted) by the negative initial particle ma

\[ V \]  
\[ \text{neg-v vp vp} \]

1 \[ \text{ma -pū pā nai} \]  
not-worry p p

Don't worry  

p.22 44a

\[ V \]  
\[ \text{neg-v aux. aux.} \]

2 \[ \text{ma -si ra se:} \]  
not-know must still

Still unknown  

p.114 268a

\[ V \]  
\[ \text{neg-v vp vp} \]

3 \[ \text{ma -saṅkā-mhu} \]  
\[ \text{pā bhai} \]  
\[ \text{n suspect-case} \]  
\[ \text{p p} \]

(This is) a case of suspicion  

p.122 291

\[ V \]  
\[ \text{n = neg = v vp} \]

4 \[ \text{nā:-ma -lann bhū:} \]  
\[ \text{ear-not-turn} \]  
\[ \text{p} \]

(Does) not understand  

p.186 460

\[ n = \text{neg = v aux. vp} \]

5 \[ \text{sabho -ma -pok} \]  
\[ \text{khai bhū:} \]  
\[ \text{attitude-not-penetrato} \]  
\[ \text{p p} \]

Did not realize  

p.234 653

---

1 It is found, that a negative particle may precede the verb of a complex noun (see example 3 above).
5.19 **RANK-SHIFTED VERB GROUPS**

As has been mentioned in the previous section (see pp 113–115), sections 5.11–5.13) verb groups are also rank-shifted after undergoing either suffixation or reduplication. 2

Examples of verb groups, in each of which a suffixed or reduplicated rank-shifted verb group is embedded.

1

\[
\begin{align*}
V \\
\text{neg- V} & \text{ -neg- v} \\
6 & \text{ ma -chI-ma -chuin} \text{ V} \\
\text{not- V} & \text{ -not-concern} \\
\end{align*}
\]

(nothing) concern

It is also found that a negative particle ma may be reduplicated. After reduplication one may occur in between the two constituents and the other may precede the first constituent of a complex word.

In the texts analysed, it is found that almost all the rank-shifted verb groups which operate as constituents of other verb groups, undergo the reduplication process before rank-shifting, except one which undergoes the suffixation process (see example 5 on page 130)
2. Would (certainly be able to lead (the business))

3. Has gone mad.

4. (Share) the confidence and work out

5. ended successfully
CHAPTER VI

WORDS

6.1 WORDS

The word is a grammatical unit which stands below the group rank. Since the scale of rank in my analysis does not go below the word rank, no constituents of words are to be postulated unless they are themselves rank-shifted words.

6.2 WORD CLASSES

Words in Burmese may be classified by their syntactic behaviour with other words in sentences. In the texts analysed four word classes are found to be distinguished, namely

1. Nouns (n)
2. Verbs (v)
3. Particles (p)
4. Interjections (intj.)

6.3 NOUNS

Nouns are different from verbs, particles and interjections in that they fill the blank spaces of the frames:

(a) .... ka lā: or .... ka lai (from ....?)
(b) .... lā: .... lā: (Is it .... (or) ....?)
When a noun is inserted in one of these frames, the sequence constitutes a (question) sentence. For instance,

ran kun ka lāː = (Are you) from Rangoon?

bhay sū ka lai = From whom?

nwaː lāː khweː lāː = (Is it an) ox or (a) dog?

6.4 NOUN TYPES

Nouns are divisible into three types, namely

(i) Simple nouns (simp. n)
(ii) Complex nouns (compl. n)
(iii) Compound nouns (compd. n)

6.5 (i) SIMPLE NOUNS (Simp. n)

A simple noun may be defined as a free form which can stand alone itself as a meaningful grammatical unit, and which can be inserted in one of the blank spaces of the frames (a) and (b) (see p. 131 section 6.3).

Examples of simple nouns

simp. n

1 / dui'/
   / we /

1 The slants mark the word boundaries
2 A simple noun may be monosyllabic or polysyllabic
simp. n
2 / lū / man / p. 62 141

simp. n
3 / kulā: / Indian / p. 71 163a

simp. n
4 / kicca / business / p. 85 205

simp. n
5 / maṅgalā / wedding / p. 116 283

simp. n
6 / rwā / village / p. 142 365

simp. n
7 / kale: / child / p. 175 434

simp. n
8 / san: koñ / mid-night / p. 192 495

simp. n
9 / pañlay / sea / p. 195 537

simp. n
10 / kyuñ / I / p. 225 630
6.6  (ii) COMPLEX NOUNS (compl. n)

A complex noun may be defined as a sequence of free form and a bound form which operates in the same syntactic contexts as simple nouns.

\[
\text{compl. n}^2 \rightarrow n \times \text{nfp/plp}
\]

and vice versa, i.e.

the constituents of complex nouns are rank-shifted simple nouns, simple verbs and certain particles.

Examples of complex nouns

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{compl. n} \\
\text{n} & \quad \text{plp} \\
1 & \text{/micchá} \times \text{twe} \\
& \text{falsehood} \times \text{p} \\
& \text{Falsehoods} \\
\text{compl. n} \\
\text{n} & \quad \text{nfp} \\
2 & \text{/rajawat} \times \text{mhu} \\
& \text{criminal} \times \text{p} \\
& \text{Criminal case}
\end{align*}
\]

1 The bound form which are found in the complex nouns are usually the sub-classes of particles such as nominalizing particles (nfp) and plural particles (plp), and the free forms are found to be simple nouns and simple verbs.

2 In the case of a complex noun constituted of a simple verb as the free form, the bound form is always found to be a nominalizing particle (nfp) but never a plural particle (plp).

Particularly in this chapter, I use the multiplication sign (x) between the nouns and nominalizing particles or plural particles of a complex noun so as to make it distinguished from a compound noun in which I will use the plus sign (+) in between the constituent nouns to denote the close juncture.
compl. n
n  nfp
3 /lay x sama:
/field x p /
Farmer

compl. n.
n  nfp
4 /nuin nam x re:
country x p /
Politics

compl. n
n  nfp
5 /rhi x samhya/
/have x p /
(What one) has

compl. n
nfp  n
6 /'a x si /
/p x know /
Acquaintance

compl. n
v  nfp
7 /phrou x khyak/
/straight x p /
Confession
6.7 **COMPOUND NOUNS**

A compound noun may be defined as a sequence of simple or complex nouns in close juncture or simple or complex nouns and verbs in close juncture which operates in the same syntactic contexts as simple nouns.

According to the compound nouns found in the texts analysed, the possible combinations are:-

(a) Simple noun + simple noun
(b) Simple noun + complex noun and vice versa
(c) Complex noun + complex noun
(d) Simple noun + simple verb
Thus a compound noun may be expressed as:

\[
\text{Compd. n} \longrightarrow n + n
\]

\[
\text{n + compl. n}
\]

\[
\text{compl. n + compl. n}
\]

\[
\text{n + v} \quad \text{i.e. the constituents of a compound noun are rank-shifted simple and/or complex nouns or verbs.}
\]

Before going deeper into the word rank analysis it is necessary to set out a criterion to distinguish a compound noun from a group constituted of two or more nouns or verbs. The most helpful criterion surveyed so far is a phonological one, i.e.

(i) if the two or more items of a sequence are in close juncture then the sequence is regarded as a compound noun, or

(ii) if the two or more items of a sequence are in open juncture then the sequence is regarded as a group.

For instance,

\[
\text{satah: pe: in close juncture} \quad \text{\[ 3 \underline{\text{dil}}: \quad \underline{\text{koh:}} \]} = \text{(An) informer.}
\]


The plus sign (+) (in this particular section) is used to denote the close juncture between the simple and complex nouns or simple or complex nouns and simple verbs.
satañ: pe: in open juncture \[
\begin{align*}
\text{Compd. n} & \quad n \quad v \\
\text{[}\delta\dot{a}\dot{d}r: \quad \{\text{pe}\}:] \text{=to give information}
\end{align*}
\]

'im khre in close juncture \[
\begin{align*}
\text{Compd. n} & \quad n \quad n \\
\text{[}\dot{e}\ddot{i} \quad \ddot{d}y\ddot{e}:] \text{=number of houses}
\end{align*}
\]

'im khre in open juncture \[
\begin{align*}
\text{N} & \quad n \quad n \\
\text{[}\dot{e}\ddot{i} \quad \ddot{t}f\ddot{e}:] \text{= base of the house}
\end{align*}
\]

**Examples of compound nouns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compd. n</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>lay x samā: + bhawa</td>
<td>farmer + life</td>
<td></td>
<td>p.33 74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>sā x re: + mā x re:</td>
<td>pleasantxp + pain x p</td>
<td>Social affair(s)</td>
<td>p.62 133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>chay + 'im + khoñ;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Head-man of the ten houses (Assistant head-man)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Compd. n

n n

4 /se + caraŋ:/
/ death list /
Registry (of) deaths.

Compd. n

n nfp v

5 /thamaŋ: + 'a x ŋat /
/rice p starve /
Starvation.

Compd. n

n

6 /bamā + nuiŋ nam /
/Burma country /
Burma

6.8 SUB-CLASSES OF NOUNS

PRONOUNS

Pronouns (prn.) may be regarded as a sub-class of nouns. They differ from other nouns in that they can never take part in the construction of compound nouns.
Examples of pronouns

1  /bhay /
   /where /

2  /khañbyā:/
   /you /

3  /bhā /
   /what /

4  /dui∗ /
   /we /

5  /mañ:/
   /you /

6  /ñā /
   /I /

---

1 English translation equivalents of Burmese (interrogative) pronouns are only nearest ones. Since there are no such words in Burmese corresponding to what, where, who, etc. in English, exact translation equivalents for Burmese (interrogative) pronouns would be impossible. (For further information about the interrogative pronouns see pp. 51-53).
6.9 VERBS

Verbs are different from nouns, particles and interjections in that they fill the blank space of the frame ... sa la: (does S ...?). When a verb is inserted in this frame, the sequence constitutes a (question) sentence. For instance,

swāː sa laː: = does (someone) go?
⋯⋯
caː sa laː: = does (someone) eat?
⋯⋯

6.10 VERB TYPES

Verbs are divisible into three types, namely

(i) Simple verbs (simp. v)
(ii) Complex verbs (compl. v)

(iii) Compound verbs (compd. v)

6.11 (i) SIMPLE VERBS (simp. v)

A simple verb may be defined as a free form which can stand alone itself as a meaningful grammatical unit, and which can be inserted in the blank space of the frame .... sa lá: (does S ....?).

Examples of simple verbs

```
simp. v
v
1 / kōň: /
   / good /
   simp. v
v
2 / yū /
   / take /
   simp. v
v
3 / cuǐ: rim /
   / worry /
   simp. v
v
4 / cuǐ cam: /
   / enquire /
   p.41 108
```

1 A simple verb may be monosyllabic or polysyllabic.
simp. v
v
5 / kap / approach / p.72 178c

simp. v
v
6 / čicañ / arrange / p.136 332

simp. v
v
7 / mhat / remember / p.173 919

simp. v
v
8 / chankhrañ / sensible / p.186 463

simp. v
v
9 / mrô / expect / p.192 494

simp. v
v
10 / pitpañ / prohibit / p.202 558
A complex verb may be defined as a sequence of a free form (i.e. a simple verb) and a verb-support \(^1\) (vs) which operates in the same syntactic contexts as a simple verb. Thus the structure of a complex verb may be expressed as

\[
\text{Compl. v} \rightarrow \text{simple verb} + \text{verb-support}, \text{ or simply}\n\]

\[
\text{compl. v} \rightarrow \text{v x vs}\n\]

**Examples of complex verbs**

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{v} & \text{vs} \\
1 & /pyak \ x \ cį:/ \\
& /\text{destroy} \ x \ vs/ \\
\end{array}
\]

*Destroyed*

---

1 I use the term verb-support for the following reason. Unlike the constituents of complex nouns, the constituents of complex verbs are not rank-shifted simple nouns, simple verbs and certain particles, but they are merely simple verbs and supporting verbs which I term verb-supports. These verb-supports may or may not fill the blank space in the frame ... sa la: (does S ....?) and may or may not possess the meaning in any other contexts other than the one in which they unite with the other simple verbs to constitute complex verbs. Therefore they are treated as verb-supports since they cannot in isolation bear the meaning related to the meaning of the other constituents (i.e. simple verbs) of complex verbs. For instance,

When the verb *pyak cį:* (be destroyed) is split up, the verb *pyak* can stand alone itself as a simple verb carrying the meaning ("be destroyed"); but *cį:* carrying the meaning ("to ride") cannot possess any other meaning which is related to the meaning of the simple verb *pyak* (i.e. "be destroyed").
6.13 (iii) COMPOUND VERBS (compd. v)

A compound verb may be defined as a sequence of simple or complex verbs in close juncture or simple or complex verbs and nouns in close juncture which operates in the same syntactic contexts as simple verbs. According to the compound verbs of the

1 The distinction between a compound verb and a group constituted of two or more verbs, or of nouns and verbs can be made by the same criterion used in distinguishing a compound noun from a noun group (see pp. 137-138, sec 6.7) For instance, compd. v
   n v
   caka: pran  in close juncture [zaga bjā] = interpreter
   n V v
   caka: pran  in open juncture [zaga: pjā] = to reply
texts analysed, the possible combinations are

Compound verb → simple noun + simple verb

  simple verb + simple verb, or simply

  Compd. v → n + v

  v + v

i.e. the constituents of compound verbs are rank-shifted simple and/or complex verbs or the rank-shifted simple or complex nouns and verbs.

Examples of compound verbs

Compd. v

n  v

1  / byā + myā: /
    / worry + many /

Terribly worried  p.39 92

Compd. v

n  v

2  / satañ: + ra /
    / news + get /

Be informed  p.73 179

Compd. v

n  v

3  / lay + lup /
    / field + do /

work (on the rice-field)  p.79 187
Compd. v
\[ v \quad v \]
4  
/ krā: + na /  
/ hear + listen /  
Listen to

Compd. v
\[ v \quad v \]
5  
/ lhyo + mwe: /  
/ abort + give birth /  
(To) abort

Compd. v
\[ v \quad v \]
6  
/ tuinpañ + lup /  
/ discuss + do /  
Do (after) discussion

p.83 203

p.175 436

p.192 505
PARTICLE TYPES

Particles, found in the texts analysed, may be grouped into types, namely

(i) Post-noun particles (np)
(ii) Post-verb particles (vp)
(iii) Noun-verb particles (nvp)
(iv) Sentence final particles
(v) Plural particles\(^1\) (plp)
(vi) Nominalizing particles (nfp)
(vii) Clause markers\(^2\) (CM)
(viii) Group linking particles\(^3\) (Gp)
(ix) Connectors\(^4\) (c)
(x) Negative particles\(^5\) (neg.)
(xi) Question particles\(^6\)

---

1 The so-called plural particles may be regarded as a sub-class of noun particles.
2 With regard to the clause markers (see pp 83, section 3.8.)
3 With regard to the group linking particles (see p 74, section 3.5)
4 With regard to the connectors (see pp 107-108, section 5.7)
5 With regard to the negative particles (see pp 126-127 section 5.18)
6 With regard to the question particles (see pp 50-53 section 2.13)
6.15 POST-NOUN PARTICLES (np)

A post-noun particle may be defined as a bound-form which follows a noun (or nouns) in close juncture. The post-noun particles found in the texts analysed may be listed as follows:

1. 'atwak (for)
2. chi (to)
3. hā (indicator of topic or subject of a sentence or clause)
4. ka (from; at; indicator of topic)
5. kui (to; indicator object)
6. myā: (many; to indicate plurality)
7. rai' (of; to indicate emphasis)
8. thak (more than; rather)
9. thai (in; only)
10. twe (many; to indicate plurality)
11. tui' (many; to indicate plurality)

Examples of post-noun particles, and plural particles (plp)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>np</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>tuih: praññ 'atwak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For (the) country ...

p.209 589
Burma (is)

My daughter (is) ...

Comrades

(To) me ...

Governments

To brother
6.16 **POST-VERB PARTICLES (vp)**

A post-verb particle (vp) may be defined as a bound form which follows a verb (or verbs) in close juncture. The post-verb particles found in the texts analysed may be listed as follows:

1. bhuí (to; in order to)
2. maí (indicates attribute in future time)
3. 'oň (on order to; so that)
4. prĩ: (indicates finished act or some act begun, already)
5. tā (the fact that)
6. tai' (indicates attribute)
7. sa: (emphasis)
8. pe (euphonic)

Examples of post-verb particles

1

\[ v \quad vp \]
\[ we-ňha \quad bhui' \]
\[ distribute \ p \]

To distribute ... p.19 26

2

\[ v \quad vp \]
\[ lā \quad mai' \]
\[ come \ p \]

(the way) to come by ... p.249 718b

3

\[ v \quad vp \]
\[ prańń' \ 'oň \]
\[ full \ p \]

In order to be full ... p.140 357

4

\[ v \quad v \quad vp \]
\[ waň \quad lā \quad prĩ: \]
\[ enter \ come \ p \]

After getting in ... p.142 365
NOUN-VERB PARTICLES (nvp)

A noun-verb particle may be defined as a bound form which may follow either a noun (or nouns) or a verb (or verbs) in close juncture. The noun-verb particles in the texts analysed may be listed as follows:

1. le (euphonic)
2. lai (alos; indicates a question)
3. luí (as)
4. mha (from; only when)
5. mhā (at; on)
6. sá (only)
7. tó (as for; just; when; indicates permission)
8. toń (even)
Examples of noun-verb particles

1  n  nvp
   kywan-tô  le
   slave-royal  p
I ...

2  v  nvp
   mi  lai
   catch although
Although caught ...

3  v  nvp
   si  lui
   know as
As (I) know

4  n  nvp
   'ā:  luũ:  mha
   all  p
In all ...

5  v  aux  nvp
   wañ  nuiñ  mhã
   enter can  p
Able to enter ...

p.81  196a
p.134  318
p.131  311
p.21  38
p.198  546
155

n  nvp
6
| kale:-twe  sa |
| child-many only |

Only (the) children...

p. 50 120b

n  nvp
7
| tuik-pwai  to |
| battle  p |

As for the battle...

p. 215 597

v  nvp
8
| pui  ton |
| more even |

More even

p. 252 725

6.18  SENTENCE FINAL PARTICLES

A sentence final particle may be defined as a bound form which follows a clause in close juncture. The sentence final particles found in the texts analysed may be listed as follows:

1. bhai (indicates emphasis)
2. bhū: (indicates a negation)
3. cam: (indicates second person imperative)
4. cui’ (indicates first person plural imperative)
5. kye (emphasis, euphonic)
6. kui: (used when convincing oneself)

1 For the examples of the sentence final particles following the clauses in close juncture, see chapter II, pp 37-50.
7. may (indicates future time)
8. pā (indicates politeness)
9. po (of course, certainly)
10. pri (indicates finished act, already)
11. ra (indicates permission)
12. tay (indicates past or present time)
13. 'ū: (again, used when permission is asked for)

6.19 NOMINALIZING PARTICLE (nfp)

A nominalizing particle (nfp) is a bound form which takes part in the construction of a complex noun (see p. 134-5, sec. 6.6). Complex nouns may be formed by affixing these particles to simple verbs and less commonly to simple nouns. The nominalizing particles found in the texts analysed may be listed as follows:

1. mhu
2. puṁ
3. 'a
4. sama: 
5. cara
6. samhya
7. kroñ:
8. re:
9. rā
Examples of nominalizing particles

1
n nfp
rajawat -mhu
criminal-case

Criminal case

2
nfp n nfp v
'a-suik-'a-wan:
p-nest- p-round

Community

3
v =nfp = v nfp
lup -puñ - kuin - puñ
work- p - hold - p

The way (one) works

4
n nfp
lay-samā:
farm-p

farmer

5
v aux nfp
yuñ -nuiñ-carā
believe-can - p

Believable
6  v  nfp
   | pro  -samhya |
   | speak  -  p |
What (one) speak

7  neg  v  nfp
   | ma  -pā  -kroñ; |
   | not-involve-  p |
not involve

8  v  v  nfp
   | lwat  -lap  -re: |
   | escape-free-  p |
Independence

9  v  nfp
   | rhi  -rā |
   | have-  p |
The place (where one is)

10  nfp  v
     | 'a-khyac |
     | p-love |
Love
Interjections, as have been mentioned in Chapter IV, (see pp. 95-96 section 4.3), are expressive words.

Examples of interjections

1

Intj

'ê: hai'

Aye intj

Aye Yes

Intj

'ui'

Oh!

Intj

'ô'

Aw!

Intj

'añ'

Ah!

Yes

Intj

kway

intj

p. 17 9

p. 20 34

p. 32 63

p. 35 88

p. 36 93
Intj

6
{ho ho}
{ha! ha!}

Intj

7
{byui}
(Answer to the call)

Intj

8
{kai}
(Then)

Intj

9
{'alui}
(Oh!)
(Alarm)

p.39 103b
p.57 126b
p.62 131
p.68 153
BIBLIOGRAPHY


17. __________, "Modernization of Burmese", Published by the Oriental Institute of Academia, Publishing house of the Czechoslovak Academy of Sciences, Prague, 1966.


29. __________, "Mranmā wākyā phwai' thu: kyi:am:" (Burmese Syntax), Burma Translation Society, Rangoon, 1953.