

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

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by

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## 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 <sup>and</sup> particles. Their sub-classes, i.e. pronouns, post-noun particles, post-verb particles, sentence final particles, nominalizing particles and interjections are also discussed.

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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
→	relocation into
=	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
DCI	=	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

neg.	=	Negative particle
nfp	=	Nominalizing particle
np	=	Post-noun particle
nvp	=	Noun-verb particle
P	=	Particle (sentence final) or cluster of particles
p	=	particle
plp	=	Plural particle
prn.	=	Pronoun
RN	=	Rank-shifted noun group
RV	=	Rank-shifted verb group
RS	=	Rank-shifted sentence
SIC 1	=	Sentence final intonation contour 1 (i.e. final fall)
SIC 2	=	Sentence final intonation contour 2 (i.e. rise- fall)
SIC 3	=	Sentence final intonation contour 3 (i.e. final- rise)
Simp. n	=	Simple noun
Simp. S	=	Simple sentence
Simp. v	=	Simple verb
T. adjt	=	Temporal adjunct
V	=	Verb group
Voc	=	Vocative
v	=	verb
vp	=	Post-verb particle
vs	=	verb-support

## CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION1.1 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, <sup>ve</sup>developing literary style not far removed from current colloquial speech.<sup>1</sup>

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

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1 See Dr. Hla Pe, "The Rise of Popular Literature in Burma", JRBS LI, ii, Dec. 1968. p.138.



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-mya" (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."<sup>1</sup> 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.

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1 See Dr. Hla Pe, "The Rise of Popular Literature in Burma", JBR, LI, ii, Dec. 1968. p.131.

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 shop-keeper. 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-fiance, 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 <sup>as</sup> 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 (၆-၄).

Transliterated Burmese consonants and vowels are as follows:

Consonants (with inherent vowels)

ka	kha	ga	gha	ṅa
ca	cha	ja	jha	ṅa (ṅṅa)
ṭa	ṭha	ḍa	ḍha	ṇa
ta	tha	da	dha	na
pa	pha	ba	bha	ma
ya	ra	la	wa	
sa	ha	ḷa	a	

Vowels

a ā, i ī, u ū, e, ai, o, ui, ô (= [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.

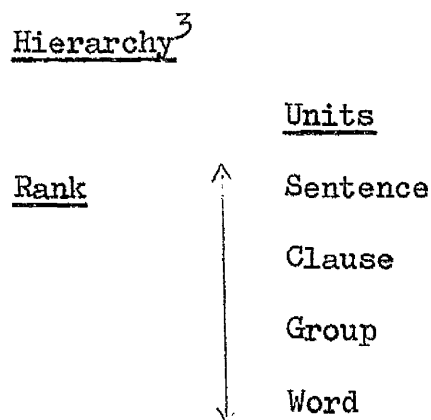
Naturally I have consulted as many dictionaries as have been able to get hold of - both from Burmese to English and vice versa. But these are not always adequate to fulfil my purpose.

### 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"<sup>1</sup> and those used in Tagmemic Analysis<sup>2</sup> 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:-



- 
- 1 See M.A.K. Halliday, "Categories of the theory of grammar". Reprinted form, WORD, Vol.17, No.3, December, 1961.
  - 2 See Walter A. Cook, S.J., "Introduction to Tagmemic Analysis", November, 1969.
  - 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

SENTENCES2.1 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.<sup>1</sup> This definition is paraphrased by Hockett as a constitute which is not a constituent, a grammatical form which is not in construction with any other grammatical form.<sup>2</sup>

2.2 SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS

In my analysis of the sentences of the dialogue passages of the novel Nga Ba, the basic sentence constituents<sup>3</sup> 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

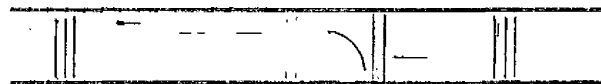
is on the creaky tone or is closed by glottal stop, the pitch-fall will be followed by glottal closure.

Examples<sup>1</sup>

	ICL	P	SIC
1	Kyup hā tōlhan-re:-samā:	bhai	1
	I p revolutionist	p	
	I (am) a revolutionist.		
	p.187 474		



	ICL	P	SIC
2	dā gyāpan-lup	pai	1
	this Japan-made	p	
	This (is the thing) made in Japan.		
	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.

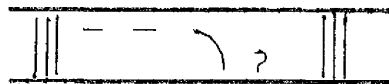
*For the indication of the range and use of the particles appearing in these examples, see p 148 ff.*



	ICL		SIC	
3	nā' Kui Kraññ'		1	
	me p look			

Look at me.

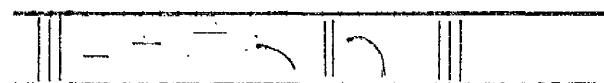
p.61 130



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.<sup>1</sup>

### Examples

	ICL		P	SIC	
1	kywan-tô ña bha		pā	2	
	slave-royal Nga Ba		p		
	I (am) Nga Ba.				p.135 325b



	ICL		P	SIC	
2	dī Kui rok lā		tā bhai	2	
	here p arrive come		p p		
	(I) have arrived here.				p.81 196a

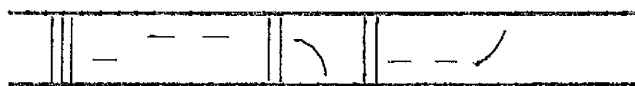


1 SIC 2 is heard when a sentence is uttered with emphasis.

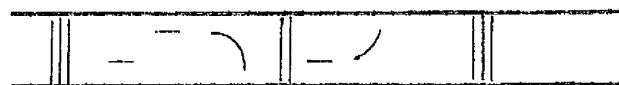
SIC 3 - This type of sentence final intonation contour (SIC) is characterized by a rising pitch pattern on the last syllable, i.e. the pitch rises from a relatively low level to a high one.

Examples<sup>1</sup>

	DCL	CL	ICL	P	SIC
1	sū pe: mha A		ra	mhā tai' la: 3	
	he give p		get	p p p	
	Do (we) get only when he gives?				
	p.20 28				



	ICL	P	SIC
2	bha-lū pro	sa-lai	3
	who-lu speak	p)	
	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).<sup>1</sup> 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.

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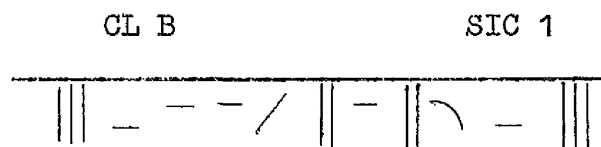
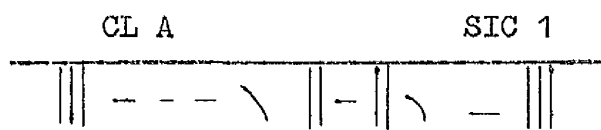
1 For detailed information about pitch marking of clause, see R.K. Sprigg "Burmese Orthography and the Tonal classification of Burmese Lexical Terms", JRBS, XLVII, ii, Dec. 1964, pp. 415-444. See R.K. Sprigg "Junction in Spoken Burmese", Studies in Linguistic Analyses, Blackwell, Oxford, 1957.

DCL		CL	ICL	P	SIC
nā tui' prī:	yañ	A/B <sup>1</sup>	prī:	pā tay	↑
I many finish	p		finish	p p	

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

p.257 740

The possible clause intonation patterns in the above example are:-



## 2.5 SENTENCE TYPES

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

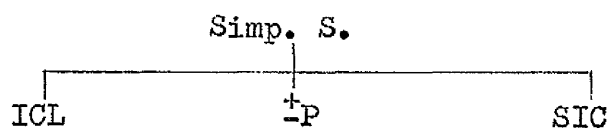
- (i) Simple (simp.)
- (ii) Complex (compl.)
- (iii) Compound (compd.)

---

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<sup>1</sup> 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).



Thus a simple sentence may be represented by a formula:-

Simp. S.  $\longrightarrow$  ICL +P + SIC

- 
- 1 For detailed information about close juncture  
See (a) Raven I MacDavid, Jr. "Burmese Phonemics", "Studies in Linguistics", Vol.3, No.1, 1945.  
(b) W.S. Cornyn, "Outline of Burmese Grammar" Language, Vol.20, No.4, Supplement.  
(c) Minn Latt, (Praha) "First Report on Studies in Burmese Grammar", Off-print from ArOr 30, 1962.  
(d) R.K. Sprigg "Junction in Spoken Burmese" Studies in Linguistic Analysis, Blackwell, Oxford, 1957.

Examples of simple sentences illustrating the formula:-Simp. S.  $\longrightarrow$  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
	nā' kui kraññ'	1
	me p look	

Look (at) me.

p.61 130

4	ICL	SIC
	nacpwan-cac-buil -krī: 'i 'amin' 1	
	Nippon -war-officer-big	of order

(The) order of (the) Japanese military officer p.83 203

	ICL		P	SIC	
5	kywan-tô	ñá bha	pā	1	
	slave-royal	Nga Ba	p		
	I (am) Nga Ba.				p.135 325b

	ICL		P	SIC	
6	kywan-ma	-tui' sã:-'ami	-tatwe	kui kay	pā 1
	slave-female-many	son-mother-many	p	save	p
	(Please) save (me and my family) us.				p.143 372b

	ICL		P	SIC	
7	kyup	kuiy-tuin'	tak khô	may	1
	I	self	climb call	p	
	I will go up (and) fetch(her)myself				p.151 400b

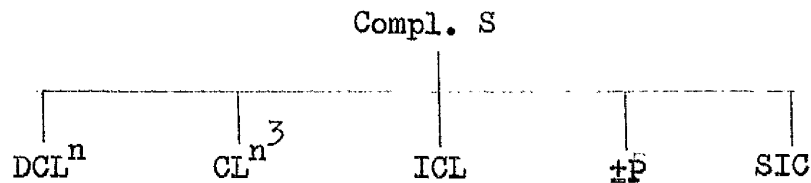
	ICL		P	SIC	
8	ññĩ:	lai 'asi	sã: bhai	1	
	you	p know	p p		
	You also know (about it)				p.174 424

	ICL		P	SIC	
9	kyup	hã tólhan-re:-samã:	bhai	1	
	I	p revolutionist	p		
	I (am) a revolutionist.				p.187 474

	ICL		P		SIC
10	Karaṅ-raibhō -twe lā kon: lā		mhā bhai		1
	Karen -comrade-many come good come		p p		
	Perhaps, the Karen comrades would probably come.				p.192 502

## 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<sup>1</sup> by any number of dependent clauses (DCL<sup>n</sup>).<sup>2</sup> 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.



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

$$\text{Compl. S.} \longrightarrow \text{DCL}^n + \text{CL}^n + \text{ICL} \pm \text{P} \pm \text{SIC}$$

- 
- 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.  $\longrightarrow$  DCL<sup>n</sup> + CL<sup>n</sup> + ICL  $\pm$ P + SIC

	DCL		CL		ICL		P		SIC	
1	'arap pyak	yañ	A/B <sup>1</sup>		sarokrī:	-khuin:		'ū: mha bhai	1	
	place destroy	p			catastrophe-fall			p p p		
	If the world (is) destroyed, a catastrophe would happen.									p.16 8b

		DCL					ØL			
2		saññ koñ	-ma	ka	'akhre rhi' tai' ha	-ma	mha	A		
		this creature-female	p	base	have	p	thing-female	p		
		ICL	P	SIC						
		ma -hut		pai	1					
		not-yet		p						
	This woman (is) destitute.									p.35 86b

		DCL				CL				
3		dhā: -pra -tuik	rā mhā	ma -pā	-kroñ:	si	lui'	A		
		sword-show-rob	p p	not-involve-	p	know	p			
		DCL		CL	ICL	P	SIC			
		kywan-tô'	kui	lhwat	mhā phrañ' lai	A		lhwat		
		slave-royal	p	release	p p p			pā to'	1	
								release	p 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.

		DCL			CL		DCL		CL					
4		nañ	dī	-lui	lup	yañ	A/B		gyāpan-	twe	cit-chui:	lui'	A	
		you	this-like	do	p				Japanese-many	angry		p		

		ICL			P		SIC			
		ta	-myui:-luñ:	se		kun	lim'	may	1	
		one-race	-whole	die		p	p	p		

If you behave in such a way, the Japanese would be angry and the whole nation would perish.

p.146 383

		DCL			CL	ICL	SIC					
5		Kyup	kui	tô	yū	khyañ	mha	A		yū	1	
		I	p	you	take	want	p			take		

Marry me only if you want to.

p.115 406a

		DCL			CL		DCL		CL				
6		sū-tui'	kui	krok	lwan:	lui'	B		khywe:-tap	chui	lai	A	
		he-many	p	afraid	very	p			sweat	-troop	speak		

		ICL			P		SIC		
		cu	pe:	ra		tā	bhai	1	
		gather	give	must		p	p		

Being afraid of them (I) have to gather (the men) for the sweat-gang as well (forced labour).

p.202 556

	DCL	CL	ICL	P	SIC
7	mran -mran se yañ	A/B	mran -mran 'ip ra	tā bhai	1
	quick-quick die p		quick-quick sleep must	p p	
	(The) sooner (I) die, (the) sooner I sleep.				p.206 583b

	DCL	CL	ICL	P	SIC
8	'alui prann' to'	A	cit kye-nap	ka ro	1
	want full p		mind satisfy	p p	
	When (one's) desire is fulfilled, (one) becomes satisfied.				p.245 680

	DCL	CL	ICL	P	SIC
9	hā-tui' prī: yañ	A/B	prī:	pā tay	1
	I -many finish p		finish	p p	
	If we (think it's) okay, then it's okay.				p.257 740

	DCL	CL	ICL	P	SIC
10	gyāpan cakkū tīyā: ma -wañ	bhu: lui'	A	kye-ññā thā:	
	Japanese-paper legal not-enter	p p		declare p	

SIC

lay 1 |||

p |||

It has been declared that the Japanese currency is illegal.

(Chinese accent).

p.263 762

## 2.9 SENTENCE LINKERS (SL)<sup>1</sup>

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 pp. 48 ).

---

<sup>1</sup> Sections 2.9 to 2.12 to be transferred to p.46.

2.10 2. CONSTRUCTION-FORM SENTENCE LINKERS

A construction-form sentence linker may be defined as a construction, usually of particles and demonstrative pronouns,<sup>1</sup> 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.<sup>2</sup> The following examples illustrate the construction-form sentence linkers.

- e.g. 1.    dā    pe    mai'    ]  
              this p    p        ]    = but
2.    sui' pe    mai'    ]  
                  p    p    p        ]    = but
3.    dā    kroñ'    ]  
                  this    p        ]    = so, that's why
4.    dā    nai' toñ    ]  
                  this p    p        ]    = even then
5.    dī    lui    chuī    ]  
                  this like speak ]    = If so happens

and so on.

1 See Minn Latt "Second Report on Studies in Burmese Grammar"  
~~Of the same series~~ From ArOr 31, 1963, pp. 254-255.

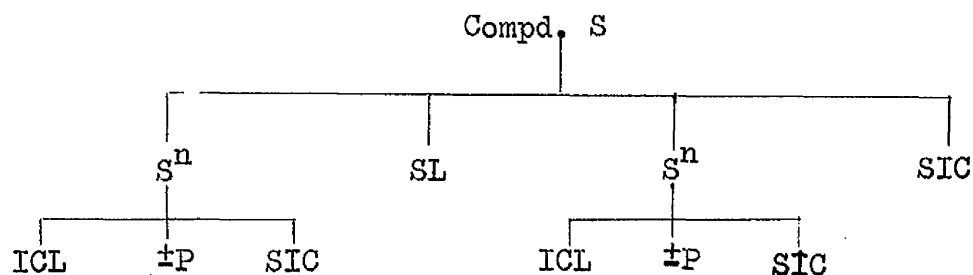
2 Reference page 46, section 2.12.

2.12 3. PAUSES (,)<sup>1</sup>

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 ).

2.8 (iii) COMPOUND SENTENCES (Compd. S)

A compound sentence is a sequence of two or more interrelated sentences<sup>2</sup> which may either be simple or complex. These sentences are linked together by sentence linkers (SL).




---

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.



	ICL		SIC	SL
3	n̄a-tui' Karañ'-twe ka lai khap 'a 'a		1	,
	I -many Karen -many p p rather stupid stupid			

	ICL		SIC
	sū-tui' bamā -twe ka lai khap tha tha		1
	he-many Burmese-many p p rather rise rise		

We, the Karens (are) rather stupid, (while) they, the  
Burmans (are) rather bumptious.

p.93 217

	ICL	P	SIC	SL	ICL	P	SIC
4	rhā	may	1	,	rhā	may	1
	find	p			find	p	

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

p.103 242

	ICL		P	SIC	SL
5	bamā -praññ lwat-lap-re: ra		prā	1	,
	Burma-country independence get		p		,

	ICL	P	SIC
	chui	tā bhai	1
	speak	p p	

(It is) said (that) Burma has gained her independence. p.137 385

	ICL	SIC	SL	ICL	SIC
6	mhan:	1	,	phay	1
	see			move	

(Let me) see, move (away).

p.151 400a



	ICL		SL		ICL		P	SIC
7	dhā: -pra -tuik	tay	nô <sup>1</sup>	rhwe 'amyā:-kri: rhi	tay	1		
	sword-show-rob	p	p	gold many -big have	p			

Having robbed (the people) (you) have plenty of gold. p.206 576

	ICL	P	SL	ICL	P	SIC	
8	mī -hut	phū:	le,	mī -hut	phū:	1	
	not-yes	p	p	not-yes			

No, No. (Chinese accent) p.263 753a

		ICL			P	SL
9	gyāpan -twe	'ā:luṃ:	dī lui	mālaka twā:	tay	nô <sup>1</sup> ,
	Japanese-many	all	this like	die go	p	p

	ICL	P	SIC
	kan:	tay	1
	good	p	

If all the Japanese would die in such a way, it would be good. (Indian accent) p.267 779

	ICL	SIC	SL	ICL	SIC
10 <sup>2</sup>	lwat-lap-re:	1/3 <sup>3</sup> ,	'ai-dā-ka	bhā lup phui ↑	tun: 3
	independence			what do p	p

Independence! What's that for? p.136 334

- 
- 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)<sup>1</sup>, and illustrating the formula:-

Compd. S → (S) + SL + S

Where S → ICL ±P + SIC (or) DCL<sup>n</sup> + CL + ICL ±P + SIC

(S)	SL <sup>2</sup>	DCL	CL	ICL
1	'ai -dā -nai'	cakā: cap yañ:	A	kui phrui: tup 'akroñ:
	thus-this-p	word join p		Ko Phyo Toke about
		P SIC		
	rok swā:	ro 1		
	arrive go	p		

We thus, came to the topic about Ko Phyo Toke

p.19 19

(S)	SL	ICL
2	dā -kroñ' -mui'	'ā'kui -kri: chí mhā
	this-p -p	brother-big p p
		P SIC
	prackyī: 'ap khyañ	tay 1
	property entrust want	p

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

(S)	SL	ICL	P	SIC
3	dā pe-mai'	phrui: 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 44, footnote 1.

2 The construction-form sentence linkers are for convenience included in the boundaries of the following sentence.

(S)	SL	ICL	P	SIC
4	prī: -to'	dī kui rok lā	tā bhai 1	
	finish- p	here p arrive come	p p	

Then (I) have arrived here.

p.81 196a

(S)	SL	ICL	P	SIC
5	dā -ka-to'	moñ' kui yuñ lui'	pro     tā bhai 1	
	this- p - p	you p trust p speak	p p	

Well! (in that case) (I) told you, because I trusted you. p.185 455

(S)	SL	ICL
6	dā -nai'-toñ	ñña ka 'akroñ: kyup-tui' kui
	this- p - p	night p about I -many p

ma -me:	wañ' se:	P SIC
not-ask	dare still	bhū: 1
		p

Even then (they) dare not ask us about (last) night. p.203 562

## 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<sup>1</sup> usually SIC 1 or SIC 3.

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

1. lā:
2. lai
3. tun:
4. lim'
5. nô

In question sentences with the final question particles lā: 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.

---

1 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<sup>1</sup> = He doesn't know anything  
(doesn't he)?
5. swā: pā nō = Please go, (<sup>won't</sup>will 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:<sup>2</sup> = Don't (you) go anywhere?
5. ma-swā: bhū: lā: = Are you not going?
6. ma-swā: bhū: nō = (You) will not go, (<sup>will</sup>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 → bha kui = which  
 bhay/bhā + sū → bhay/bhā sū = who  
 bhay/bhā + lui → bhay/bhā lui = how  
 bhay' + nhay- → bhay'nhay = how  
 bhā/bhay + kron' → bhā/bhay kron' = why  
 bhay + to' → bhay to' = when

As regards the final question particles lā: and nô, 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 lā: = (Is it) he?  
 swā: lā: = Does (he) go?  
  
 sū nô = (Is it) he?  
 swā: nô = Will (you) go?

Examples<sup>1</sup> of question sentences, using the question particle lā:

	ICL		P	SIC	
1	bhaṅgalā: pran		ma-lā: <sup>2</sup>	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		mhā 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-saṁ		lā:	3	,		rhuik -saṁ		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 lā: ; 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 tun:

	ICL		P	SIC	
1	bhā -kicca	lā	sa-tun:	3	
	what-affair	come	p		
	On what business have you come?				p. 143 371

	ICL	SIC	SL <sup>1</sup>	ICL	P	SIC
2	lwat-lap-re:	1/3,	'ai-dā ka	bhā lup	phui' tun:	3
	independence		SL	what do	p p	
	Independence! What's that for?					p. 136 334

Examples of question sentences using the question particle lim'

		ICL			P	SIC
1	sañ:-tui'	tarup -twe	hā	bhay-lui	puik-cham	rhā
	he -many	Chinese-many	p	how-	p	money search
						pā lim' 3
	(I wonder) how these Chinese earn money?					p. 61 129a

	DCL		CL		ICL
2	sarokri:	-myā:	khuiñ:	yañ	A
	catastrophe-many	fall	p		bhay-lui -myā: ne
					how -like -many live

	P	SIC
	mhā pā lim'	3
	p p p	

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

		ICL				P	SIC		
1		sū	ka	khap	nan'-nan'		nô	3	
		he/she	p	very	flirty		p		

Isn't she very flirty?

p. 35 87

			DCL			CL		ICL				
2		kyup-tui'	kui	ta-kay	yum	yañ	A/B		ta-khu	phwañ'	pro	
		I	-many	p	really	trust	p		one-thing	open	speak	

	P		SIC	
	may	nô	3	
	p	p		

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

p.187 473

## 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<sup>1</sup>

Voc	kui	ña	bha	
	Ko	Nga	Ba	

The name of a person

Voc	Kui	na	bha	ray	p	
	Ko	Nga	Ba	p		

The name of a person (when addressed by someone)

Voc	kui	na	bha	re	p
	Ko	Nga	Ba	p	

Ko Nga Ba

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

Voc	ICL	P	SIC				
kui	ña	bha	re	kyup to' lā	may	1	
Ko	Nga	Ba	p	I p come	p		

Ko Nga Ba, I will come.

<sup>1</sup> Within the braces may either be vocative or exclamations or adjuncts.

examples<sup>1</sup>

1		ICL =	kyup to'	{	Voc	kui ña bha ray	}	= ICL	lā		P	may	SIC	1	
			I p	{		Ko Nga Ba p	}		come			p			

I will come Ko Nga Ba.

	ICL	kyup to'	lā		P	may	{	Voc	kui ña bha ray	}	SIC	1	
		I p	come			p	{		Ko Nga Ba p	}			

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.<sup>2</sup> Such words are here termed interjections (section 6.20, page 159).

Examples

1		Excl.	'alui bhurā:	1		SIC
			Oh! God.			(Exclamation of fear or alarm)

1 The equal sign (=) is placed after the first ICL and before the second ICL indicates that the ICL is interrupted by the vocative.

2 See Edward Sapir "Language", 1949, page 7.

	Excl	P	SIC
2	bhurā:	re	3
	God	p	
	Oh! God (Exclamation of fear and alarm)		

	Excl	SIC
3	'e:	1
	Aye (interjection)	
	Yes (Answer to question)	

	Excl	P	SIC
4	'aṅ:	po'	1
	um.	p	
	Um! Yes. (Answer to question)		

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.<sup>1</sup>

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

#### Examples

	Excl	ICL	P	SIC
1	{ 'amale: }	kyup kui ruik	ne pa tay	1/2
	{ Oh! dear }	me p beat	p p p	
	Oh! dear (they are) beating me.			

<sup>1</sup> See J.R. Firth "Papers in Linguistics (1934-1951)", 1964, page 37.

	ICL =		= ICL	P	SIC
2	kyup kui me p	{ 'amale: Oh! dear }	ruik beat	ne pa tay p p p	1/2
	Oh/ dear (they are) beating me.				

	ICL		P	Excl	SIC
3	kyup kui ruik me p beat	ne pa tay p p p		{ 'amale: Oh! dear }	3
	(They are) beating me, oh! dear.				

## 2.17 OPTIONAL CONSTITUENTS OF SENTENCES

### ADJUNCTS (adjt.)

As has been explained in the introductory chapter (see 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 dispensable constituents of the sentence.

#### Examples

ma -krā	khañ	}	= not very long
not-long	before		

tô	tô	krā	}	= in a fairly long time
fairly	fairly	long		

manak	phran	}	= tomorrow
to-morrow			

yankun kui }  
Rangoon to } = to Rangoon

and so on.

Examples of sentences containing adjuncts

	T. adjt	ICL	P	SIC
1	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mane' ka} \\ \text{yesterday p} \end{array} \right\}$	$\begin{array}{l} \text{sū lā} \\ \text{he come} \end{array}$	$\left\  \begin{array}{l} \text{tay} \\ \text{p} \end{array} \right\ $	$\begin{array}{l} 1 \\ \\ \\ \end{array}$
	Yesterday, he came.			

	ICL = T.adjt	= ICL	P	SIC
2	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sū} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mane' ka} \\ \text{yesterday p} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{he} \end{array} \right\}$	$\begin{array}{l} \text{lā} \\ \text{come} \end{array}$	$\left\  \begin{array}{l} \text{tay} \\ \text{p} \end{array} \right\ $	$\begin{array}{l} 1 \\ \\ \\ \end{array}$
	He came yesterday.			

	Loc. adjt	ICL	P	SIC
3.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mranmā-praṅṅ ka} \\ \text{Burma -country p} \end{array} \right\}$	$\begin{array}{l} \text{sū lā} \\ \text{he come} \end{array}$	$\left\  \begin{array}{l} \text{tay} \\ \text{p} \end{array} \right\ $	$\begin{array}{l} 1 \\ \\ \\ \end{array}$
	From Burma, he came.			

	ICL = { Loc. adjt }	= ICL	P	SIC
4	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sū} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mranmā-praṅṅ ka} \\ \text{Burma -country p} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{he} \end{array} \right\}$	$\begin{array}{l} \text{lā} \\ \text{come} \end{array}$	$\left\  \begin{array}{l} \text{tay} \\ \text{p} \end{array} \right\ $	$\begin{array}{l} 1 \\ \\ \\ \end{array}$
	He came from Burma.			

2.18 EXPANDED SENTENCES

Sometimes, ~~i.e.~~ 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:-

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{Simp. S} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} + \\ - \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Voc} \\ \text{Excl} \\ \text{adjt} \end{array} \right\} + \text{ICL} \pm \text{P} \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Voc} \\ \text{Excl} \end{array} \right\} + \text{SIC} \\
 \\
 \text{Compl. S} \longrightarrow \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Voc} \\ \text{Excl} \\ \text{adjt} \end{array} \right\} + \text{DCL}^n + \text{CL}^n \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Voc} \\ \text{Excl} \\ \text{adjt} \end{array} \right\} + \text{ICL} \pm \text{P} \pm \\
 \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Voc} \\ \text{Excl} \end{array} \right\} + \text{SIC} \\
 \\
 \text{Compd. S} \longrightarrow \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Voc} \\ \text{Excl} \\ \text{adjt} \end{array} \right\} + \text{ICL} \pm \text{P} + \text{SIC} + \text{SL} \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Voc} \\ \text{Excl} \\ \text{adjt} \end{array} \right\} + \text{ICL} \\
 \begin{array}{c} + \\ - \end{array} \text{P} \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Voc} \\ \text{Excl} \end{array} \right\} + \text{SIC}
 \end{array}$$

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

- (1) Ex. Simp. S  $\longrightarrow$  Voc + Voc + ICL + P + SIC  
 Ex. Simp. S  $\longrightarrow$  ICL + P + Voc + SIC



	Voc	Voc	ICL	P	SIC
1	{ 'ā' kui-gyī: brother-big }	{ 'a' kui-gyī: brother-big }	'ā: luṃ: malaka-twā: all die	kuin prī p p	1 p.40 106
	Brother! Brother! all have died. (Indian accent)				

	ICL	P	Voc	SIC	
2	nā luik pain p	tā p	{ horī: rā Hori p }	1/2	p.82 199b
	(It's really) painfull, Hori.				

Examples of expanded simple sentences expanded by exclamations (Excl.)  
and illustrating the formulae:-

- (1) Ex. Simp. S. → ICL + P + Excl + SIC  
 (2) Ex. Simp. S. → Excl + ICL + P Excl + SIC

	ICL	P	Excl	SIC
1	'akhwak <sup>1</sup> nhac-chay lok plot two -ten nearly	pā bhai p p	{ 'amale: bya mother -intj }	1/3 p.80 189
	(It's) only about twenty plots.			

	Excl	ICL	P	Excl	SIC
2	{ 'amale: Oh dear }	se die	pā prī p p	{ to' intj }	1/2 p.194 521
	Oh! (I am) dying.				

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 (adjts.)  
(i.e. locative adjuncts, Loc. Adjt., and temporal adjuncts, T. adjt.)  
and illustrating the formulae:-

Ex. Simp. S.  $\longrightarrow$  adjt + ICL + P + SIC

Ex. Simp. S.  $\longleftarrow$  ICL = adjt = ICL + P + SIC

	Loc. adjt	ICL =	Loc. adjt	= ICL
1	{ lay -kwañ: ka } { farm-loop p }	kulā:-twe kui	{ kulā: -prè } { Indian-country }	nhañ
	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 } { morning p p }	kap	kra	cui' 1
		embark	p	let

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

	ICL =	T. adjt	= ICL	P	SIC
3	'akui -tui' ka	{ khu mha } { now p }	la	kra   t̄a kui:	1/2
	brother-many 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.  $\longrightarrow$  Excl + DCL + CL + ICL + P + Voc  
 + SIC

(2) Ex. Compl. S.  $\longrightarrow$  Excl + Voc + DCL = T.adj<sub>t</sub> = DCL + CL  
 + ICL + P + SIC<sup>1</sup>

	Excl		DCL		CL		ICL		P		Voc		SIC
1	{ ô }	cuī: rim	lui	A	pro	ra	t̄a	{ t̄o re }	1/2		{ Voc }		
	{ Oh }	worry	p		speak	p	p						

Oh! (I) told (you) because (I was) worried.

p.36 92

	Excl		Voc		DCL =		T.adj <sub>t</sub>		= DCL		CL
2	{ kai }	{ kui ña bha }	khañ byā:	{ dī ñña }	lup phui ka	A/B		{ this night }	word p		
	{ injt }	{ Ko Nga Ba }	you								

ICL      P      SIC

dā	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

1	Excl		DCL		CL	ICL		P		SIC	
	{ 'ui kway }		kuiy' 'ā:kui:	lui'	A	lā	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	

2	Excl		DCL		CL	ICL		P	Excl	SIC	
	{ 'amale: }		tô mrañ bhū: tā ka		A	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

1		DCL		CL		T.adjt			
		mañ: 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		
		{ pattô -rwā mhā }		mi		tay	1		
		{ Pattor-village p }		caught		p			

You were caught in Pattor village eighteen hours after the robbery.

	T. ajdt	DCL	CL	ICL
2	{ manak kya mha }	'akroñ: -cuñ	si 'oñ	A
	{ morning drop p }	cause -complete-know	p	cuñ-cam:
				enquire

	P	SIC
ra	'ū: mhā bhai	1
p	p p p	

(I) will make detailed enquiries in the morning to find out the causes.

p.41 108

	Loc. adjt	DCL	CL
3	{ dī kwañ: nā: ka }	karañ mhan yañ	A/B
	{ this loop near p }	Karen true	p

	ICL	P	SIC
	kyup-tui 'nai 'achak khyaññ'	bhai	1
	I -many with joint almost	p	

We are in contact with almost all the Karens near this field. p.192 504

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

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

	ICL	SIC	SL	Voc.	ICL	SIC
1	'oñ' thā:	1	,	{ samī: ray }	'on' thā:	1
	constriction keep			{ daughter p }	constriction keep	

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.  $\longrightarrow$  Excl + ICL + SIC + SL + ICL + SIC

	Excl	ICL	SIC	SL	ICL	SIC
1	{ 'amale: Oh dear! }	se die	1	,	se 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.  $\longrightarrow$  adjt + DCL + CL + ICL + SIC + SL + ICL + P

+ SIC

	Loc.adjt	DCL	CL
1	{ bhe: ka beside p }	tarup kulā: -twe kroñ'	A/B
		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 lā:  
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

1	Excl	Loc. adjt	T. adjt	ICL	
	{ kai he }	{ mrui kui }	{ ma -mhoñ khañ }	kap nuiñ	
	{ intj }	{ town p }	{ not-dark before }	embark can	
	P		SIC		
	pā ma-lā:		3		
	p p				

Hey! Would it be possible to approach the town before it

gets dark?

p.71 176

2	Voc	T. adjt	ICL	P	SIC
	{ 'ame -ray }	{ dī lok mhoñ mha }	han	pā ma-lā:	3
	{ mother p }	{ this nearly dark p }	right	p p	

Mother! Would it be all right in such darkness?

p.145 378

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

EX. QS ———→ ICL + P + Excl + SIC

1	ICL	P	Excl	SIC
	bhā -myā:	pā lim	{ tō }	3
	what-many	p p	{ intj }	

What would it be?

p.252 732

Examples of expanded question sentences using the question particle lai, expanded by vocatives and exclamations, and illustrating the formulae:-

(1) Ex. QS  $\longrightarrow$  Excl + ICL + P + SIC

(2) Ex. QS  $\longrightarrow$  Voc + ICL + P + SIC

	Excl		ICL		P	SIC	
1	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 'e: 'e: \\ \text{intj} \end{array} \right\}$		mañ bhā thā: khyañ		sa-lai 1		$\left\  \left\  \left\  \right. \right. \right.$
			you what keep want		p		
	Yes, Yes. What do you want to leave (with me)?						p.24 53a

	Voc		ICL		P	SIC	
2	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{he' koñ} \\ \text{hey creature} \end{array} \right\}$		bhā-lui' thamañ: ñat ra mhā lai 3				$\left\  \left\  \left\  \right. \right. \right.$
			why rice starve p p p				
	Hey, you! Why must (we) starve? (Karen accent)						p.216 608

Example of expanded question sentence using the question particle nô, expanded by exclamation, and illustrating the formula:-

Ex. QS.  $\longrightarrow$  Excl + ICL + P + SIC

	Excl		ICL		P	SIC	
1	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} hā \\ \text{intj} \end{array} \right\}$		dī gyāpan -cakkū hā 'alakā:		po' nô 3		$\left\  \left\  \left\  \right. \right. \right.$
			this Japanese-paper p useless		p p		
	Ha! This Japanese currency is valueless, isn't it?						p.264 764



## CHAPTER III

CLAUSES3.1 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 <sup>one or</sup> 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)

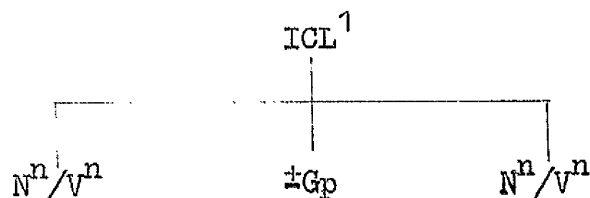
### 3.3 CLAUSE TYPES

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:-

$$\text{ICL} \longrightarrow \text{N}^n/\text{V}^n$$

OR

$$\text{ICL} \longrightarrow \text{N}^n/\text{V}^n \quad \pm\text{Gp} \quad + \quad \text{N}^n/\text{V}^n$$

---

1 The superscript (<sup>n</sup>) 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 nhañ'.

examples

1	N lū -chui: man-bad	Gp nai' and/with	N lū -koñ: man-good	
	(The) bad man and/(with) a good man.			

p.63 142

2	N khañ byā:-tui you -many	Gp nai' and/with	N kyup-tui' ha I -many p	
	You (all) and we (are).			

p.92 213a

3	N kui khyak krī: Ko Chat Gyi	Gp nai' p	N ma-tan 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  $\longrightarrow$  N  $\pm$ Gp + N  $\pm$ Gp + V  
 VII. ICL  $\longrightarrow$  N + N + N + V

Examples<sup>1</sup> of independent clauses, illustrating the formula:-

I. ICL  $\longrightarrow$  N

N

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

(The) order of the Japanese Military officer.

p.83 204a

N

2 || sabho ||  
 || wish ||

(As you) wish.

p.139 348

N

3 || kyup samī: -kale: ||  
 || my daughter-little ||

My little daughter.

p.225 631

N

4 || 'aphe ka lai ||  
 || father p p ||

(You father (you)).

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 verticle lines mark the clause boundaries.



5	N 'atū-tū	Gp nai'	N 'anū nū-kri:
	sameness	p	laprocy-big

(You)all (are) of same type.

p.219 615

Examples of independent clauses illustrating the formula:-

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

1	N tap-krap-kale:	N buil	Gp kray	N nī	Gp nai'	N kyup	Gp nai	N nhac-yok	N 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	N kywan-ma	N -tui'	ka	to	N -sū-toñ	-sā:	N lay-samā:
	slave-female-many	p	jungle-he-mountain-son	farmer			

We (are) just farmers (and) rustics.

p.229 640

3	N kywan-tô	N -tui'	bamā-twe-lui	N nhā-khoñ:	nhac-pok	Gp nhañ'
	slave-royal-many	Burman-many	nose	two-hole	p	

N	lū	khyaññ:	
	man	almost	

Like we, Burmans, (each has) only two nostrils.

p.237 662









	N	N	V	
2	cac-sā: kui	tō	ma -mrañ bhū: se:	
	war-son p	you	not-see have yet	

You have not seen (the Japanese) soldier yet.

p.115 273b

	N	N	Gp	V
3	kywan-ma	le	kui khyak krī:	nai' ma -tan
	slave-female p	Ko Chat Gyi	p	not-suit

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

p.154 403

	N	N	V
4	tō ka	bhā -mhya	ma -si
	you p	what-else	not-know

You don't know anything.

p.115 275

	N	N	V
5	nañ	ga bha	ma -hut
	you	Nga Ba	not-yes

You (are) not Nga Ba.

p.135 323

	N	N	V
6	mañ: kui	ñā	sanā: mi
	you p	I	pity have

I pity you.

p.135 326

	N	N	V
7	raibhō 'ā:lum:	bhurā: sā	'aruñ-pru
	comrade all	God p	meditate

All comrades (should) only think of God.

p.205 572

	N	N	V
8	kywan-tô      lai	'ame' kui	ma -pro    'ã: se:
	slave-royal    p	mother    p	not-speak free yet
	I (haven't) had time yet to tell (you) mother.		
	p.266 776		

Examples of independent clauses illustrating the formula:-

VII. ICL → N + N + N + V

	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			

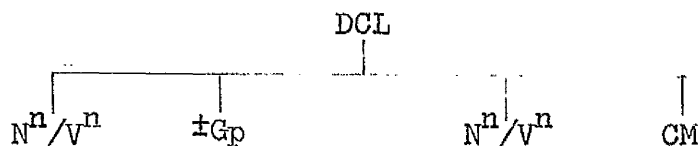
	N	N	N	V
2	kyup-to'	nuiñ ñam-re: so	lū-myui:-re: so	nā:-ma-laññ
	I      p	politics      p	nationalism    p	not-understand
	I don't understand either politics or nationalism.			
	p.113 263			

	N	N	N	V
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:-

$$\text{DEL} \longrightarrow \text{N}^n/\text{V}^n + \text{CM}$$

OR

$$\text{DCL} \longrightarrow \text{N}^n/\text{V}^n \pm\text{Gp} + \text{N}^n/\text{V}^n + \text{CM}$$

### 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'     | 8. kui to'        |
| 2. lui'      | 9. mui'lui'       |
| 3. mui'      | 10. bhui' to'     |
| 4. yañ/lhyañ | 11. ma-lui' 'uccā |
| 5. bhui'     | 12. mha phrañ'    |
| 6. yañ:      |                   |
| 7. ka to'    |                   |

These clause markers may be regarded as a restricted class since they are used specifically to mark the dependent clauses of the texts analysed.

### 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  $\longrightarrow$  N + CM
- II. DCL  $\longrightarrow$  N  $\pm$ Gp + N + CM
- III. DCL  $\longrightarrow$  V + CM
- IV. DCL  $\longrightarrow$  N + V + CM
- V. DCL  $\longrightarrow$  N + N + V + CM

Examples of dependent clauses illustrating the formula:-I. DCL  $\longrightarrow$  N + CM

N	CM
lū -chui:-twe	ka to'
man-bad -many	p p

As for the robbers ...<sup>1</sup>

p.18 11

N	CM
tarup kulā:-twe	kron'
Chinese Indian-many	p

Because of Chinese (and) Indians ...

p.21 39c

N	CM
maṅgalā-kicca	kui to'
wedding-occasion	p p

As regards the wedding ceremony ....

p.250 719

Examples of dependent clauses illustrating the formula:-II. DCL  $\longrightarrow$  N  $\pm$ Gp + N + CM

N	Gp	N	CM
dui' 'acui:ra	nai'	dui'	mui' lui'
our government	p	we	p p

As we (have) our own government ...

p.20 30

---

<sup>1</sup> The dots indicate sense of continuation.

	N		N		CM
2	dan-rā	ka	haktak-kri:	mui'	
	wound	p	crack -big	p	

As (it is) a gaping wound ...

p.73 180

	N		N		CM
3	sū	ka	san:-koñ	lui'	
	he	p	mid-night	p	

As he (said) midnight ...

p.192 495

		N		N		CM
4	sakhañ-myui:	ññwan'	ka	buil-kray ni	lui'	
	Thakin Myo	Nyunt	p	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

	V		CM
1	ma -yuñ	yañ	
	not-believe	if	

If (you) don't believe ...

p.63 44

	V		CM
2	pyak-kwak	yañ	
	absent	if	

If absent ....

p.83 203b

V CM

3		rhā		yañ	
		search		if	

If search ...

p.103 244

V CM

4		'āmakhañ		bhui'	
		bail		p	

To (provide) bail ...

p.112 249

V CM

5		swā:		bui'	to'	
		go		p	p	

As to going ...

p.257 739

Examples of dependent clauses illustrating the formula:-IV. DCL  $\longrightarrow$  N + V + CM

N V CM

1		'arap		pyak		yañ	
		place		destroy		if	

If the world (is) destroyed ...

p.16 8b

N V CM

2		dhani-sī:		khū:		ma-lui'	'uccā	
		dani -fruit		pluck		p	p	

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

p.19 18a



	N	V		CM	
3	tô	twe:	luik	mha	phrañ'
	you	think	p	p	p

Whenever you think ...

p.20 27

	N	V		CM	
4	mañ:	kri:-pwā:	khyañ	yañ	
	you	prosperous	want	if	

If you want to be prosperous ...

p.61 130

	N	V		CM	
5	dui' kui	ran -mū	ma-lui'		
	we p	quarrel-do	p		

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

p.64 148b

	N	V	CM	
6	rhañ	lwat	yañ	
	you	escape	if	

If you (are) released ...

p.113 258

Examples of dependent clauses illustrating the formula:-

V. DCL → N + N + V + CM

	N	N	V	CM	
1	dhā: -pra -tuik	rā mhā	ma -pā -kroñ:	si	lui'
	sword-show-rob	p p	not-involve- p	know	p

As (you) know that (I was) not involved in the robbery ...

p.131 311

	N		N	V	CM
2	kywan-ma	-tui'	sā:-'ami	-tatwe	mhā   sū   ma -rhi   yañ
	slave-female-many		son-mother-many		p   not-have   if

If we do not have him with us ...

p.142 362

	N	N	V	CM		
3	kyup	kui	tô	yū	khyañ	mha
	me	p	you	take	want	p

Only if you want to marry me ...

p.155 406a

	N	N	V	CM	
4	sū-tui'	kyup-tui'	kui	cac	ma-lui'
	he-many	I -many	p	examine	p

(I think) they are going to examine us ....

p.205 565

	N	N	V	CM
5	ñā	dī	lā	yañ:
	I	here	come	while

While (I was) on my way ...

p.219 618

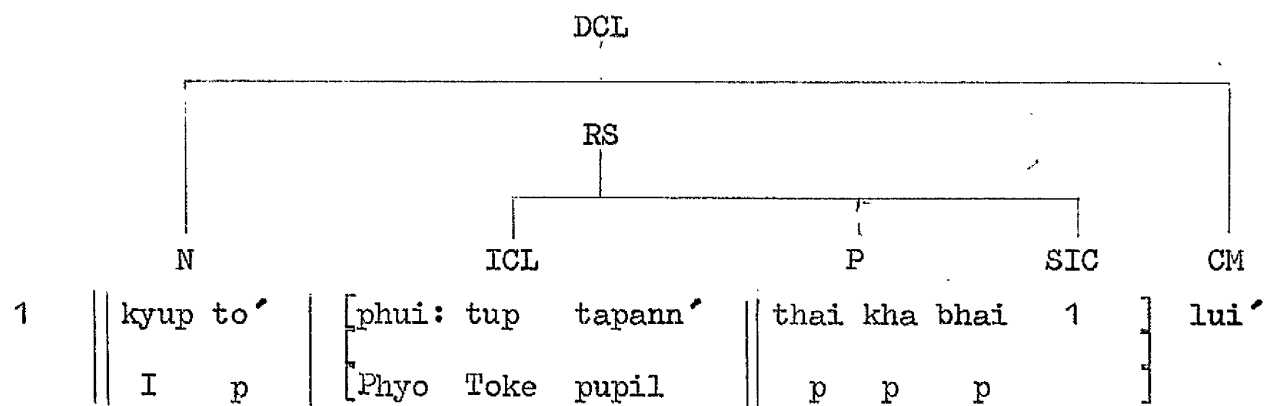
### 3.11 RANK-SHIFTED SENTENCES

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

1 See M.A.K. Halliday; Angus McIntosh, Peter Strevens "The Linguistic Sciences and Language teaching", 1968, p. 27.

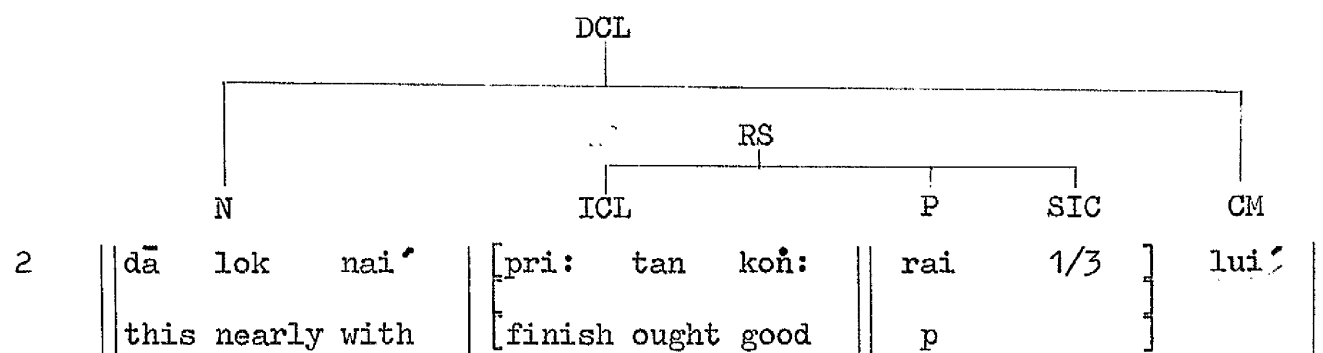


Examples of rank-shifted sentences operating as constituents of dependent clauses.



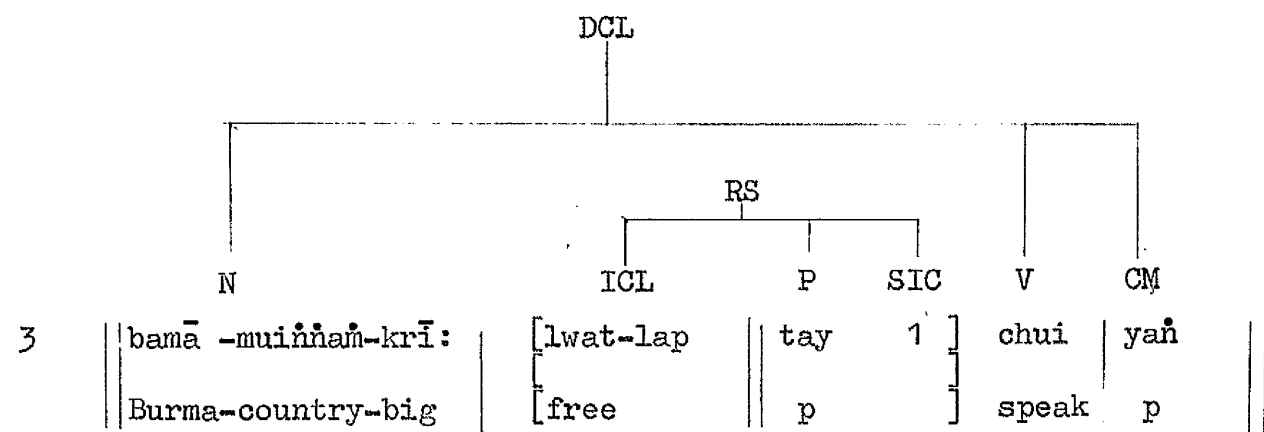
I (I think that they may be) some of the disciples of Phyo Toke. p.101

237



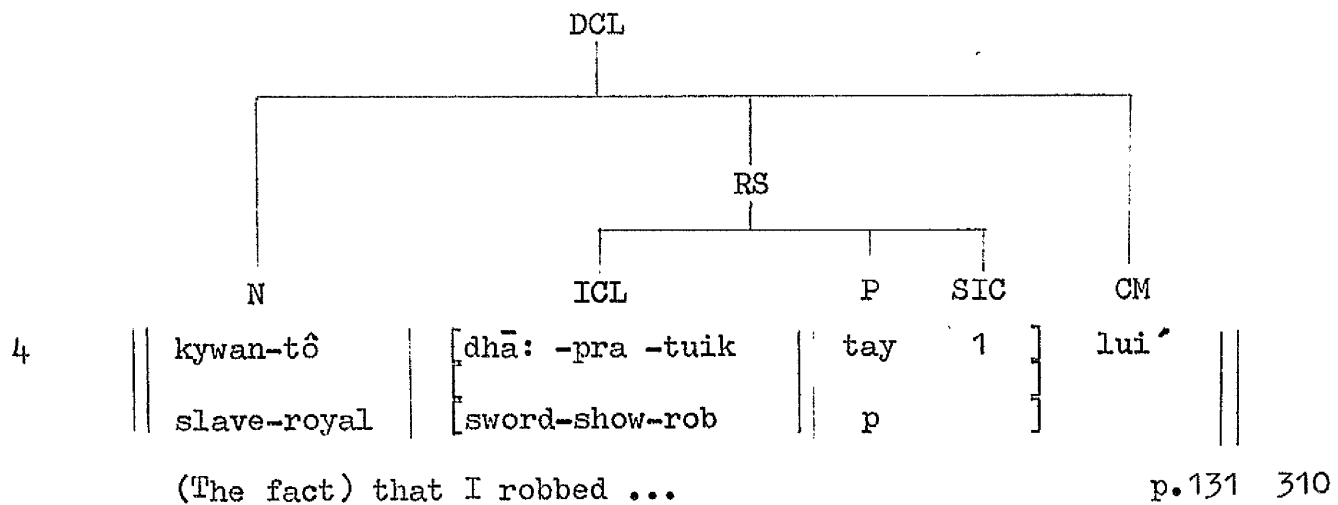
(I think) it ought to be enough.

p.138 342



The fact (that) Burma is free ...

p.237 660



## CHAPTER IV

STRUCTURE OF NON-BASIC AND OPTIONAL SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS4.1 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

- |   |           |   |           |                                    |
|---|-----------|---|-----------|------------------------------------|
|   |           | N |           |                                    |
|   | n         |   | np        |                                    |
| 1 | bha-thwe: |   | re        |                                    |
|   | Uncle!    |   |           | p.4 2                              |
|   |           | N |           |                                    |
|   | n         |   | np        |                                    |
| 2 | mi pho'   |   | rā        |                                    |
|   | Mi Phaw   |   | p         |                                    |
|   |           |   |           | p.17-8 10                          |
|   |           |   |           | Mi Phaw (the name of a lady)       |
|   |           | N |           |                                    |
|   | n         |   | np        |                                    |
| 3 | min: ma   |   | rā        |                                    |
|   | woman     |   | p         |                                    |
|   |           |   |           | p.22 44a                           |
|   |           |   |           | (My) wife                          |
|   |           | N |           |                                    |
|   | intj      |   | n         |                                    |
| 4 | he'       |   | phui: tup |                                    |
|   | Hey!      |   | Phyo Toke |                                    |
|   |           |   |           | p.103 243                          |
|   |           |   |           | Hey! Phyo Toke (the name of a man) |
|   |           | N |           |                                    |
|   | intj      |   | n         |                                    |
| 5 | he'       |   | ña bha    |                                    |
|   | Hey!      |   | Nga Ba    |                                    |
|   |           |   |           | p.106 246                          |
|   |           |   |           | Hey! Nga Ba (the name of a man)    |
|   |           | N |           |                                    |
|   | n         |   |           |                                    |
| 6 | 'aphe     |   |           |                                    |
|   | father    |   |           |                                    |
|   |           |   |           | p.237 657                          |
|   |           |   |           | Father!                            |

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	
	intj vp	
1	'e: po'	
	Ah! p	

Ah yes.

p.17 9

	V	
	intj vp vp	
2	'aŋ: po' le	
	Ah p p	

Yes.

p.35 58

	N	
	n np	
3	'aphe re'	
	father p	

Oh father! (Alarm) ~~of fear~~

p.237 659



		N		
		n	np	
4	ame      rai'			
	mother    p			
		Oh mother! (Alarm) <del>of fear</del>		p.215 522

		N		
		n		
5	'ame'			
	mother			
		Mother! (Alarm) <del>of fear</del>		p.44 114

#### 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)

		N		
		n	n	np
1	kywan-ma      -tui'	kwan:	mhā	
	slave-female-many	<i>country side</i> campaign	at	
	In our (rice-field)	<i>country side</i> campaign		p.19 20

		N		
		n	np	
2	yegyôwa      ka Yegyawwa    from			
	From Yegyawwa (village)			

p.65 149

		N		
		n	np	
3	bamā-prāññ    mhā Burma            at			
	In Burma			

p.19 21

		N			
		n	np	np	
4	'uyyañ    thai    mhā garden    in      at				
	In (the) garden				

Examples of temporal adjuncts (T. adjt)

		N			
		n	n	np	
1	dī      ta-nhac    to' this one-year    p				
	In this year				

p.15 6

		N			
		n	np	np	
2	manak      mha    bhai morning    p      p				
	In the morning				

p.73 198a

		N	
	n		np
	khu	mha	
	now	p	

just now

p.102 239a

			N	
	n			np
4	patthama	to'		
	first	p		

At first

p.15 6

## CHAPTER V

GROUPS5.1 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)

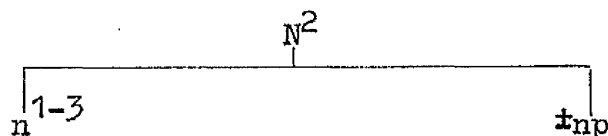
### 5.4 SUB-TYPES OF NOUN GROUPS

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

- (i) Simple noun groups (N)
- (ii) Co-ordinate noun groups (Nco)
- (iii) Item appositive noun groups (Napp.)
- (iv) 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<sup>1</sup> (n) which may or may not be followed in close juncture by a post-noun particle or a cluster of post-noun particles (np).



- 
- 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 (<sup>1-3</sup>) 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:-

$$N \longrightarrow n^{1-3} \pm np$$

Examples<sup>1</sup> of simple noun groups, each consisting of one noun only

- |   |                                       |      |     |
|---|---------------------------------------|------|-----|
|   | N<br>n                                |      |     |
| 1 | kywan-ma <sup>2</sup><br>slave-female |      |     |
|   | I (used by a lady)                    | p.19 | 7   |
|   | N<br>n                                |      |     |
| 2 | su<br>he                              |      |     |
|   | He (or) She                           | p.20 | 28  |
|   | N<br>n                                |      |     |
| 3 | kywan-tô<br>slave-royal               |      |     |
|   | I (used by a man)                     | p.22 | 48b |

---

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.

- N  
n
- 4 | lū -ramn -tat |  
| man-quality-skillful |  
(An) efficient man p.34 81
- N  
n
- 5 | Khañbyā: |  
| you |  
Yōu p.50 120a
- N  
n
- 6 | bhuñ-kri:-kyoñ: |  
| monk- school |  
Monastery p.116 281b
- N  
n
- 7 | pran -khyiñ |  
| return-time |  
Time (to) return p.117 285b
- N  
n
- 8 | 'añtuñ |  
| bowl |  
Bowl p.131 310







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

	N			
	n	n	n	
1	ñwe	ta -rā'	ñā: -chay	
	silver	one-hundred	five-ten	
	One hundred (and) fifty rupees.			p.24 57a

	N			
	n	n	n	
2	ñwe	suñ: le: -rā		
	silver	three	four-hundred	
	Three (or) four hundred rupees.			p.34 79

	N			
	n	n	n	
3	gyāpan	'aloñ: le: -chay		
	Japanese	corpse	four-ten	
	Forty Japanese corpses.			p.197 538

	N				
	n	n	n	n	
4	yuñ	-kraññ-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			
	n	n	np	
1	kywan-ma	laññpañ: kui		
	slave-female	neck	p	
	(To) my neck			p.5 3

## N

2           n   np  
 | sū   ka   |  
 | he   p   |

He (is)

p.19 20

## N

3           n           n       np  
 | chan:rai-sā:   'amyā:   'atwak   |  
 | poor   -son   many       for       |

For (the) majority of poor people

p.19 22

## N

4           n           n       np   np  
 | dhana-rhañ   praccaññ:   mui ' lui '   |  
 | capitalist   property   p       p       |

As (these are) capitalists' properties

p.19 23

## N

5           n           np  
 | 'amhu-swā:   kui   |  
 | case-go       p       |

Nature of the case

p.112-3 253

## N

6           n           n           n       np  
 | 'akyañ--samā:   suñ: -chay   khrok-yok   kui   |  
 | prisoner       three-ten   six -person   p       |

Thirty six prisoners

p.123 298

## N

7           n       np   np   np  
 | bamā   thai   ka   to'   |  
 | Burmese   p   p   p       |

Among the Burmans

p.191 488



Examples<sup>1</sup>

- Nco
- |   |  |                  |          |    |  |
|---|--|------------------|----------|----|--|
| 1 |  | n                | c        | n  |  |
|   |  | mañ:             | nai'     | ñā |  |
|   |  | you              | and/with | I  |  |
|   |  | You and/(with) I |          |    |  |
- Nco
- |   |  |                  |          |    |          |  |
|---|--|------------------|----------|----|----------|--|
| 2 |  | n                | c        | n  | c        |  |
|   |  | mañ:             | nai'     | ñā | nai'     |  |
|   |  | you              | and/with | I  | and/with |  |
|   |  | You and/(with) I |          |    |          |  |
- Nco
- |   |  |                  |          |    |          |  |
|---|--|------------------|----------|----|----------|--|
| 3 |  | n                | c        | n  | c        |  |
|   |  | mañ:             | ray      | ñā | ray      |  |
|   |  | you              | and/with | I  | and/with |  |
|   |  | You and/(with) I |          |    |          |  |

- 
- 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

	n	c	n	
	man:	ray	ñā	
	you	and/with	I	

Examples of co-ordinate noun groups, illustrating the formula:-

Nco → n ±np + c + n ±np + c + n ±np ...

Nco.

	n		c		n		c
1	horī:-tui' ta -suik ray kyup-tui' ray						
	Hori-many one-group and I -many p						

Hori (with) his group and we

p.21 38

Nco.

	n		c		n		np
2	'ap nai' mrañ -mrī: kui						
	needle and/with horse-tail p						

Needle and/(with) horse-tail

p.80 93

Nco.

	n		c		n		n		np		np
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

p.92 215

Nco.

	n		c		n		c
4	'akyūi: ray 'akron: 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:

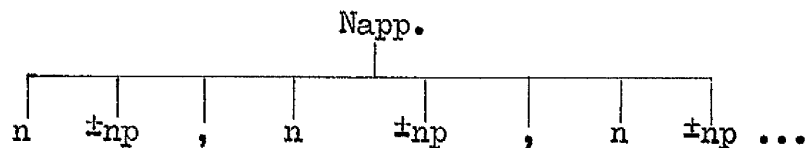
- (i) The group linking particle (Gp), i.e. nai' between any two noun groups of a clause is deletable.
- (ii) But the connector (c), i.e. nai' between any two nouns or noun groups of a co-ordinate noun group is not deletable.

	n	c	n	c	
5	rhañ	nai'	kywan-ma	nai'	
	you	and/with	slave-female	and/with	
	You and/(with) I				

p.229 639

### 5.8 (iii) ITEM APPOSITIVE NOUN GROUPS (Napp.)

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:-

$$\text{Napp.} \longrightarrow n \pm np , n \pm np , n \pm np$$

### 5.9 CRITERION TO DISTINGUISH A CO-ORDINATE NOUN-GROUP FROM AN ITEM APPOSITVE 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

absent.<sup>1</sup>

The item appositive noun group is different from a simple noun group of the structure  $n \text{ } \dot{\text{np}} + n \text{ } \dot{\text{np}} \dots$  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<sup>2</sup>

		Napp.		
	n		n	
1	khwe:-ma	-sā:	,	myui:-phyak
	dog	-female-son		race -destroy
	(You) son of a bitch (and) (the) destroyer of the			
	race ...			
				p.45 117a

		Napp.		
	n		n	
2	sañ:-tui'	,	tarup	-twe
	he	-many	,	Chinese-many
	They (Chinese) are ...			
				p.61 129

- 
- 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
- |  |           |                 |          |    |    |
|--|-----------|-----------------|----------|----|----|
|  |           |                 | Napp.    |    |    |
|  | n         |                 | n        |    | np |
|  | nā-tui' , | to              | -sā:-twe | hā |    |
|  | I -many   | forest-son-many |          | p  |    |
- We (the) rustic people (are) ...
- p.93 219

- 4
- |  |         |             |        |  |
|--|---------|-------------|--------|--|
|  |         |             | Napp.  |  |
|  | n       |             | n      |  |
|  | 'akhu , | khyak       | khyañ: |  |
|  | now     | immediately |        |  |
- Now, immediately ...
- p.123 289

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

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

- 7
- |  |             |             |       |     |    |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------|-----|----|
|  |             |             | Napp. |     |    |
|  | n           |             | n     |     | np |
|  | mañ:-tui' , | nhac-'ū:    |       | lai |    |
|  | you -many   | two -person |       | p   |    |
- You, both ...
- p.248 704

5.10 RANK-SHIFTED GROUPS

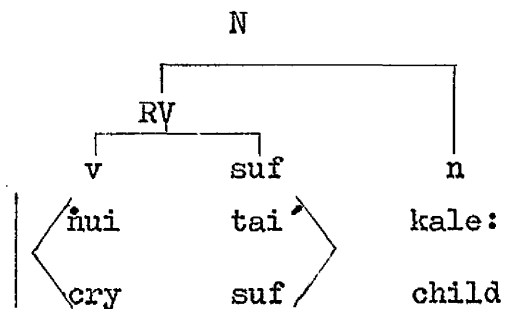
A rank-shifted group may be defined as a group which operates as a constituent of another group (which is of equal rank to itself) or as a constituent of a word (which is of one rank further down). In the texts analysed it is found that some of the verb groups<sup>1</sup> are rank-shifted and operate 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.

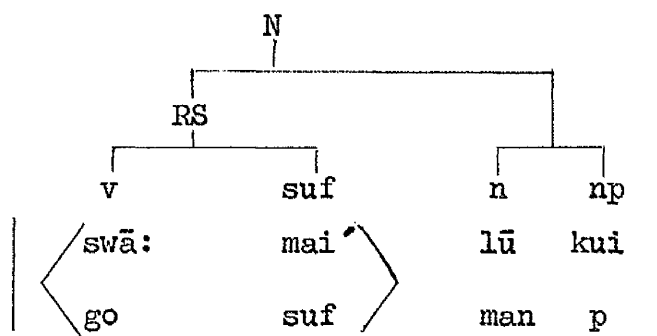
Examples 1



(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.

2



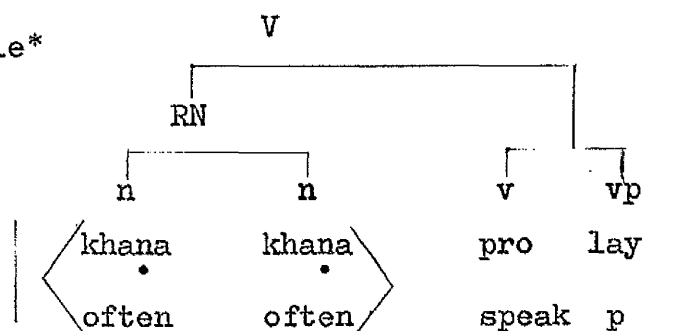
To (the) man (who) would go ...

From the examples above, it is obvious that if the suffixes tai' or mai' is added to the verbs ñui (= cry) and swā: (= go) respectively, the verb groups, i.e. ñui tai' and swā: mai' can be rank-shifted to operate as the constituents of the word (or the noun) kale: (= child) and of the noun group lū 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 cwā nhañ' which are used specifically to suffix the verb groups before they are rank-shifted.

example\*



I tell you very often

p.264 865

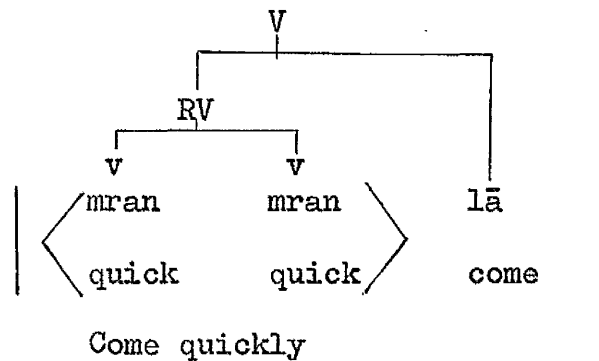
\* The angular bracket marks the rank-shifted boundary.

5.13 (ii) REDUPLICATION

This is <sup>a</sup> particular type of grammatical formation whereby one or more verbs <sup>or</sup> ~~and~~ 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,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} v & \text{by reduplication} & v \quad v \\ \text{mran} & \longrightarrow & \text{mran} \quad \text{mran} \\ \text{quick} & \longrightarrow & \text{quick quick} \quad (= \text{quickly}) \end{array}$$

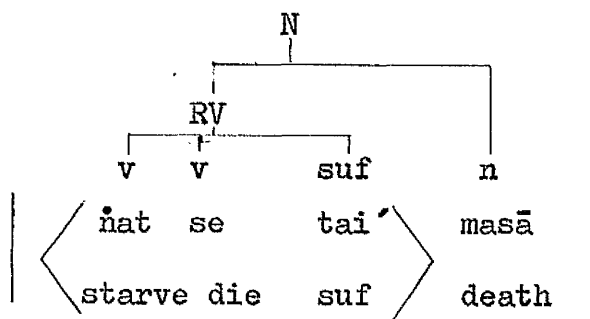
After this reduplication, the verb group, i.e. mran mran can be rank-shifted to operate as a constituent of another verb group. For instance



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

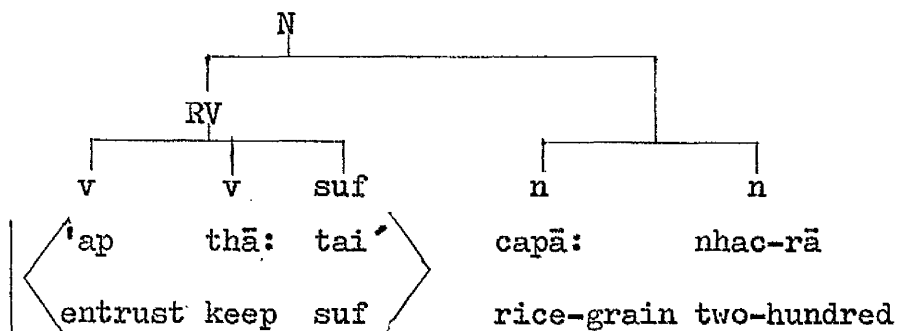
1



Death by starvation

p.17-18 10

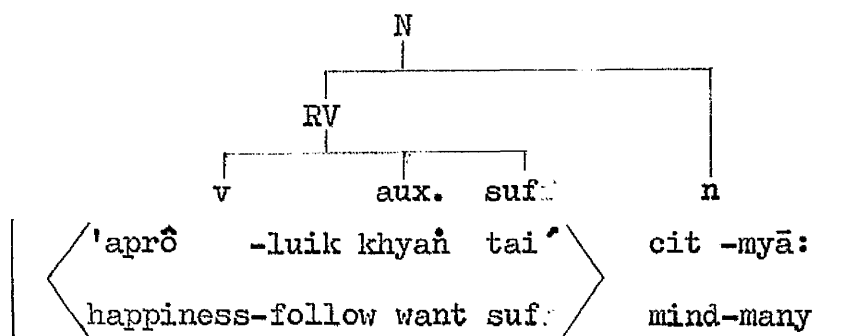
2



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

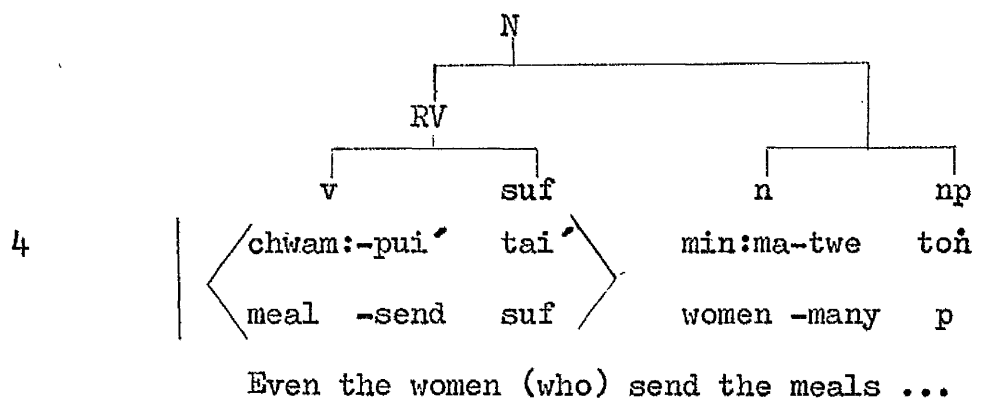
p.32 67b

3

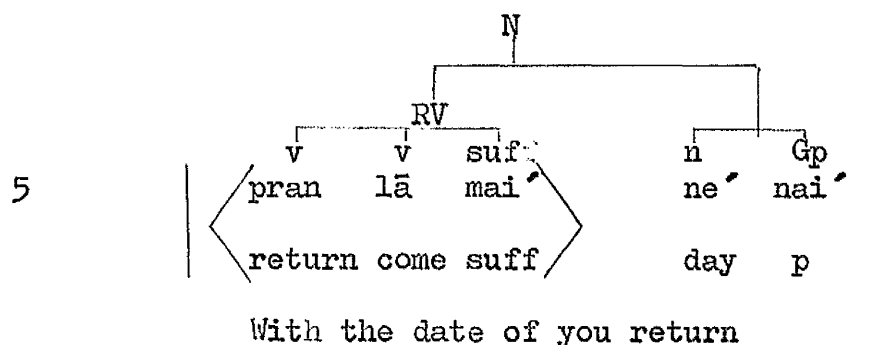


The desire to astray life

p.35 89



p.116 281b



p.249 718b

#### 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

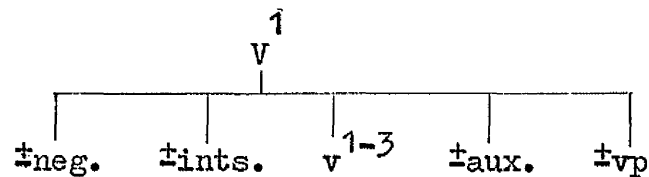
#### 5.15 (i) SIMPLE VERB GROUPS (V)

A simple verb group may consist of one or two or three verbs<sup>1</sup>

(v) which may or may not be followed in close juncture by one or more

<sup>1</sup> 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:-

$$V \longleftrightarrow \pm\text{neg.} \quad \pm\text{ints.} \quad + v^{1-3} \quad \pm\text{aux.} \quad \pm\text{vp}$$

(i) Examples<sup>2</sup> of verb groups

	V			
	v	vp	vp	vp
1	khū:	ma	lui'	'uccā
	pluck	p	p	p

(While) thinking of plucking

p.19 18a

- 
- 1 The superscript (<sup>1-3</sup>) 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.

		V	
	v		vp
2	cui:rim	lui'	
	worry	p	
	As worried		

p.36 92a

		V	
	v	vp	vp
3	yūñ	mi	lui'
	believe	p	p
	As believed		

p.62 141

		V	
	v	v	vp
4	krā:	swā:	may
	hear	go	p
	(They) would hear		

p.117 184

		V	
		v	
5	lā		
	come		
	Come		

p.146 384

- 
- (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.



		V					
		v	v	vp	vp	vp	
6	tha    khya    kra    to'    mhā rise   fight    p     p     p						
	Get up (and) fight						p.191 486

		V				
		v	v	v	vp	
7	lhim'    chañ:    lā    yañ roll    descend    come    if					
	If (they) march down					p.192 497

		V					
		v	v	v	vp	vp	
8	lwat    thwak    lā    tā    bhai escape    out    come    p     p						
	Have escaped						p.203 561

		V				
		v	v	vp		
9	krennā    prī:    prī declare    finish    p					
	(It) has declared					p.266 778

## 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.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> 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,

		V		
	v	aux.	vp	
1	mrañ	ra	may	
	see	must	p	
		Must (be) seen ...		

		V			
	v	aux.	aux.	vp	
2	mrañ	nuiñ	se:	tay	
	see	can	still	p	
		(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 prī.

Unless it is an auxiliary verb, not other enclitic can fill these blank spaces of the frames (a) and (b).<sup>1</sup>

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

		V			
	v	aux	vp	vp	
1	'ap	khai <sup>2</sup>	ta	bhai	
	entrust	aux	p	p	
		(I have) entrusted			

p.24 51b

1 See Minn Latt (Praha) "Second Report on Studies in Burmese Grammar" Off-print from Ar Or 31, 1963, pp. 236-237.

2 When there is no English translation equivalent for the auxiliary verbs, I substitute the translations by the label aux.

## V

	v	aux.	vp	
2	ma-nui	ce	nai'	
	not-cry	let	p	

Don't let (her/him) cry

p.50 120c

## V

	v	aux.	vp	vp	
3	cwapowai	khyañ	tā	bhai	
	accuse	want	p	p	

(I) want to accuse

p.101 237

## V

	v		aux.	aux.	vp	
4	pā:	-khya-khañ	rai	ra	may	
	cheek-slap-suffer	bold	must	p		

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

p.124 203

## V

	v	v	aux.	aux.	vp	vp	
5	tuik	lā	khai'	mi	pā	tay	
	rob	come	aux.	aux.	p	p	

(I) have robbed indeed

p.131 308

## V

	v	aux.	aux.	vp	
6	prī:	tan	koñ:	rai'	
	finish	ought	good	p	

(It) ought to be finished

p.138 342

	V				
	v	aux.	vp	vp	
7	kay	sañ	pā	tay	
	save	ought	p	p	
	(You) ought to save (us)				p.43 373b

	V				
	v	aux.	aux.	vp	
8	coñ'	ne	lim'	may	
	wait	aux.	will	p	
	(He) will be waiting.				p.146 384

	V				
	v	aux.	vp		
9	ma -khū:	rak	lui'		
	not-pluck	aux.	p		
	As (I) dare not pluck				p.233 643

	V				
	v	aux.	vp		
10	ma -pro	wañ'	bhū:		
	not-speak	dare	p		
	(I) dare not speak				p.252 722

### 5.17 INTENSIFIERS (ints.)

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<sup>1</sup>; 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

## V

ints. neg - v vp

sip ma - si bhū:

very not -know p

(Does) not know much

but not

neg ints. v vp

ma sip si bhū:

not very know p

(iii) Examples of verb groups containing intensifiers

## V

ints. v

1 | 'atañ: phak |

forcefully embrace

Embrace forcefully

p.5 3

## V

ints. v vp vp

2 | sip krok tā bhai |

very afraid p p

Very much afraid of

p.22 48b

## V

ints. v

3 | khap nan-nan' |

quite flirty

Quite flirty

p.35 87

## V

	ints.	v	vp
4	'amyā:krī:	wam: naññ:	tay
	many-big	sorry	p
	Immensely sorry		
			p.136 239

## V

	ints.	v	vp
5	takay	yum̃	yañ
	really	believe	
	Really believe		
			p.187 473

## V

	v	aux.	ints.	vp
6	ma -kham̃	khyañ	lwan:	lui'
	not-suffer	want	very	
	Very impatient			
				p.248-9 707

## V

	ints.	v	vp	vp
7	tay	khak	tā	kui:
	rather	difficult		
	Rather difficult			
				p.263 753

5.18 NEGATIVE PARTICLE

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,

		V		
	v	= neg =	v <sup>1</sup>	vp
1	nhut	=	ma	=
	lip	=	not	=
		=	join	=
		=	p	bhūḥ.

Doesn't greet.

Otherwise, the negative particle ma always precedes the verb or verbs.  
For instance,

	neg	v	vp
2	ma	=	swā:
	not	=	go
		=	p

Don't go

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 bhūḥ: 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 negativeinitial particle ma

- V
- 1            neg-v        vp    vp  
 | ma -pū      pā    nai |  
 | not-worry    p     p     |  
 Don't worry p.22 44a
- V
- 2            neg-v        aux. aux.  
 | ma -si      ra    se: |  
 | not-know    must still |  
 Still unknown p.114 268a
- V
- 3            neg-v                    vp    vp  
 | ma -sañkā-mhu<sup>1</sup>      pā    bhai |  
 | n suspect-case        p     p     |  
 (This is) a case of suspicion p.122 291
- V
- 4            n = neg = v    vp  
 | nā:-ma -lann    bhū: |  
 | ear-not-turn    p     |  
 (Does) not understand p.186 460
- n = neg = v            aux.    vp
- 5            | sabho    -ma -pok            khai'    bhū: |  
 | attitude-not-penetrate    p        p        |  
 Did not realize p.234 653

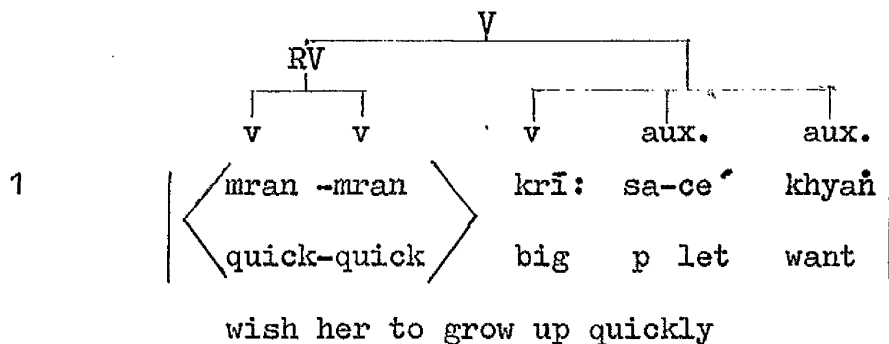
1 It is found, that a negative particle may precede the ~~verb~~ *verb* <sup>verb</sup> of a complex noun (see example 3 above).

- V
- neg- ~~v~~<sup>VS</sup> -neg- v
- 6      | ma -chī-ma -chuin<sup>1</sup> |
- | not-~~v~~<sup>VS</sup> -not-concern |
- (nothing) concern

### 5.19      RANK-SHIFTED VERB GROUPS

As has been mentioned in the previous section (see pp 113-115, and 5.13) section 5.11.5.1) verb groups are also rank-shifted after undergoing either suffixation or reduplication.<sup>2</sup>

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



p.33 72

- 
- 1 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.
- 2 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)



## CHAPTER VI

WORDS6.1 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 lā: = (Are you) from Rangoon?  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....

bhay sū ka lai = From whom?  
 .....  
 .....

nwā: lā: khwe: lā: = (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<sup>1</sup> of simple nouns<sup>2</sup>

simp. n

1        / dui' /  
          / we /

p.20 30

---

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: koṅ  
/ mid-night / p.192 495
- simp. n  
9 / paṅlay  
/ sea / p. 195 537
- simp. n  
10 / kyup  
/ 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<sup>1</sup> which operates in the same syntactic contexts as simple nouns.

$$\text{compl. n}^2 \longrightarrow \begin{matrix} \text{n} & \text{x} & \text{nfp/plp} \\ & \text{v} & \text{x} & \text{nfp} \end{matrix} \quad \text{and vice versa, i.e.}$$

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

Examples of complex nouns

		compl. n	
		n	plp
1	/ micchā x twe /	falsehood	p /
Falsehoods			

p.19 21

		compl. n	
		n	nfp
2	/ rajawat x mhu /	criminal	p /
Criminal case			

p 20 33

- 
- 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				
		v		nfp		nfp
8	/	tôlhan	x	re:	x	samā:
	/	revolt	x	p	x	p
		(The) Revolutionist				
						p.187 474

		compl. n				
		n		plp		
9	/	sū	x	tui'	/	
	/	he	x	p	/	
		They				
						p.198 544

		compl. n				
		n		plp		
10	/	sū	x	takā	/	
	/	he	x	all	/	
		Anyone				
						p.233 643

## 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:-

Compd. n  $\longrightarrow$  n + n

n + compl. n

compl. n + compl. n

n + v

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<sup>1</sup>, 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,

satañ: pe:  $\xrightarrow{\text{in close juncture}}$   $\left[ \overset{n}{\text{ðədl̃:}} \overset{v}{\text{be:}} \right] = (\text{An}) \text{ informer.}$   
Compd. n.

- 
- 1 See (a) R.K. Sprigg, "Junction in Spoken Burmese" *Studies in Linguistic Analysis*, Blackwell, Oxford, 1957.  
 (b) Minn Latt, "First Report on Studies in Burmese Grammar" Offprint from ArOr 30, 1962, pp. 96-98.  
 (c) Dr. K. Forbes "Compound Nouns in Burmese" *JRBS*, vol. L, ii, Dec. 1967, pp. 195-219.

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.

## V

satañ: pe: in open juncture → [<sup>n</sup> ʃə dʒ: [<sup>v</sup> pei:] = to give information

'im khra in close juncture → [<sup>n</sup> eĩ [<sup>n</sup> dʒe ] = number of houses

## N

'im khre in open juncture → [<sup>n</sup> eĩ [<sup>n</sup> tʃe ] = base of the house

Examples of compound nouns

Compd. n

1            n        nfp            n

      / lay x samā: + bhawa /

      / farmer        + life /

p.33 74

Compd. n

2            v        nfp            v        nfp

      / sā x re: + nā x re: /

      / pleasantxp + pain x p /

      Social affair(s)

p.62 133

Compd. n

3            n        n            n

      / chay + 'im + khoñ: /

      / ten        house        head /

Head-man of the ten houses (Assistant head-man)

p.140 359

Compd. n  
 n                    n  
 4 / se            +    carañ: /  
   / death        list    /  
 Registry (of) deaths.

p.175 436

Compd. n  
 n                    nfp        v  
 5 / thamañ:    +    'a x ñat /  
   / rice            p        starve /  
 Starvation.

p.216 607

Compd. n  
 n                    n  
 6 / bamā        +    nuiñ nañ /  
   / Burma            country /  
 Burma

p.240 674

## 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<sup>1</sup> of pronouns

1	prn. / bhay / where /	p.21 36
2	prn. / khañbyā: / you /	p.45 116
3	prn. / bhā / what /	p.57 122b
4	prn. / dui' / we /	p.64 148
5	prn. / mañ: / you /	p.82 201
6	prn. / ñā / I /	p.98 229

---

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).



(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 lā: (does S ....?).

#### Examples<sup>1</sup> of simple verbs

	simp v v	
1	/koñ: good /	p.22 44
	simp.v v	
2	/yū take /	p.24 56
	simp. v v	
3	/cui: rim worry /	p.36 92a
	simp. v v	
4	/cuñ cam: enquire /	p.41 108

---

1 A simple verb may be monosyllabic or polysyllabic.





6.12 (ii) COMPLEX VERBS (compl. v)

A complex verb may be defined as a sequence of a free form (i.e. a simple verb) and a verb-support<sup>1</sup> (vs) which operates in the same syntactic contexts as a simple verb. Thus the structure of a complex verb may be expressed as

Compl. v  $\longrightarrow$  simple verb + verb-support, or simply  
 compl. v  $\longrightarrow$  v x vs

Examples of complex verbs

1                    v                    vs  
 / pyak            x cī: /  
 /            destroy x vs /

Destroyed

p.19 23

- 
- 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 lā: (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 cī: (be destroyed) is split up, the verb pyak can stand alone itself as a simple verb carrying the meaning ("be destroyed"); but cī: 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").





Compd. v  
 v            v  
 4 / krā: + nā /  
 / hear + listen /  
 Listen to

p.83 203

Compd. v  
 v            v  
 5 / lhyo + mwe: /  
 / abort + give birth /  
 (To) abort

p.175 436

Compd. v  
 v            v  
 6 / tuinpañ + lup /  
 / discuss + do /  
 Do (after) discussion

p.192 505

6.14 PARTICLESPARTICLE TYPES

Particles, found in the texts analysed, may be grouped into <sup>different</sup> types, namely

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

---

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 (n-p)

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. chī (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)

	n	np
1	tuiñ: praññ	'atwak
	country	for
	For (the) country ...	



8	<table border="0" style="border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">n</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">np</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px;">lay-samā:-twe</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">rai'</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px;">farmers -many</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">p</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black;"></td> </tr> </table>	n	np		lay-samā:-twe	rai'		farmers -many	p					
n	np													
lay-samā:-twe	rai'													
farmers -many	p													
	Farmers' ...	p.145 379												
9	<table border="0" style="border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">n</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">n</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">plp</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px;">lay</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">mre</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">-twe</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px;">farm</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">earth</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">-many</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black;"></td> </tr> </table>	n	n	plp		lay	mre	-twe		farm	earth	-many		
n	n	plp												
lay	mre	-twe												
farm	earth	-many												
	Lands	p.242 678												
10	<table border="0" style="border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">n</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">np</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px;">lwat-lap-re:</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">thak</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px;">independence</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">rather</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black;"></td> </tr> </table>	n	np		lwat-lap-re:	thak		independence	rather					
n	np													
lwat-lap-re:	thak													
independence	rather													
	Rather (than) independence	p.248 703												
11	<table border="0" style="border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">n</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">np</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px;">pañlay</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">thai</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border-right: 1px solid black; padding-right: 5px;">sea</td> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">in</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black;"></td> </tr> </table>	n	np		pañlay	thai		sea	in					
n	np													
pañlay	thai													
sea	in													
	In (the) sea	p.197 537												

#### 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. bhui' (to; in order to)
2. mai' (indicates attribute in future time)



3. 'oñ (on order to; so that)
4. prī: (indicates finished act or some act begun, already)
5. tā (the fact that)
6. tai' (indicates attribute)
7. sā: (emphasis)
- 8 pe (euphonic)

Examples of post-verb particles

- |   |  |  |            |
|---|--|--|------------|
| 1 | <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <span>v</span> <span>vp</span> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <span>we-ñha</span> <span>bhui'</span> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> <span>distribute</span> <span>p</span> </div>   |  |            |
|   | To distribute ...  |  | p.19 26    |
| 2 | <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <span>v</span> <span>vp</span> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <span>lā</span> <span>mai'</span> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> <span>come</span> <span>p</span> </div>  |  |            |
|   | (the way) to come by ...   |  | p.249 718b |
| 3 | <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <span>v</span> <span>vp</span> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <span>praññ'</span> <span>'oñ</span> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> <span>full</span> <span>p</span> </div>   |  |            |
|   | In order to be full ...  |  | p.140 357  |
| 4 | <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <span>v</span> <span>v</span> <span>vp</span> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <span>wañ</span> <span>lā</span> <span>prī:</span> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> <span>enter</span> <span>come</span> <span>p</span> </div> |  |            |
|   | After getting in ...   |  | p.142 365  |

	v	v	vp
5	cu	ne	tā
	gather	live	p
	Live together ...		

p.21 38

	v	vp
6	lhoñ	tai'
	mock	p
	(One who) mock(s) ...	

p.35 85

#### 6.17 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. lui' (as)
4. mha (from; only when)
5. mhā (at; on)
6. sā (only)
7. to' (as for; just; when; indicates permission)
8. toñ (even)



	n	nvp
6	kale:-twe	sā
	child-many	only
	<i>Only (the) children...</i>	

p.50 120b

	n	nvp
7	tuik-pwai	to'
	battle	p

As for the battle ...

p.215 597

	v	nvp
8	pui	toñ
	more	even

More even

p.252 725

### 6.18 SENTENCE FINAL PARTICLES

A sentence final particle<sup>1</sup> 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)

---

<sup>1</sup> 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. prī (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. samā:
5. carā
6. samhya
7. kroṅ:
8. re:
9. rā



- 6                    v            nfp  
 | pro    -samhya |  
 | speak -    p    |  
 What (one) speak                    p.96 223b
- 7                    neg v            nfp  
 | ma -pā            -kroñ; |  
 | not-involve-    p    |  
 not involve                            p.131 311
- 8                    v            v    nfp  
 | lwat   -lap -re: |  
 | escape-free-    p    |  
 Independence                            p.136 333
- 9                    v    nfp  
 | rhi -rā            |  
 | have-    p            |  
 The place (where one is)                p.142 366
- 10                    nfp    v  
 | 'a-khyac            |  
 | p-love                |  
 Love                                      p.234 654

6.20 INTERJECTIONS (intj)

Interjections, as have been mentioned in Chapter IV, (see pp.95-96 section 4.3 ), are expressive words.

Examples of interjections

- |   |  |         |
|---|--|---------|
| 1 | Intj<br>{ 'e: hai }<br>{ Aye intj }<br>Aye Yes | p.17 9  |
| 2 | Intj<br>{ 'ui }<br>{ Oh! }                     | p.20 34 |
| 3 | Intj<br>{ Ô }<br>{ Aw! }                       | p.32 63 |
| 4 | Intj<br>{ 'aŋ }<br>{ Ah! }<br>Yes              | p.35 88 |
| 5 | Intj<br>{ kway }<br>{ intj }                   | p.36 93 |





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