



A STUDY OF FEATURES OF TAI GRAMMAR

การศึกษาคูณลักษณะของไวยากรณ์ไต

Phra Nawkham Narada

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts
International Program, Major in English
Graduate School
Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University
Bangkok, Thailand
C.E. 2015



A STUDY OF FEATURES OF TAI GRAMMAR

Phra Nawkham Narada

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts
International Program Major in English
Graduate School
Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University
Bangkok, Thailand
C.E. 2015

(Copyright by Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University)



การศึกษาคุณลักษณะของไวยากรณ์ไต

พระหน่อคำ นาราตา

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษา
ตามหลักสูตรปริญญาพุทธศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต
สาขาภาษาอังกฤษ
บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาจุฬาลงกรณราชวิทยาลัย
พุทธศักราช ๒๕๕๗

(ลิขสิทธิ์เป็นของมหาวิทยาลัยมหาจุฬาลงกรณราชวิทยาลัย)



The Graduate School of Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University has approved this dissertation of “A Study of Features of Tai Grammar” in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Arts in English

.....

Phramaha Somboon Uddhikaro, Dr.)

Dean of Graduate School

Examination Committee:	Chairperson
	(Phramaha Somboon Uddhikaro, Dr.)	
	Member
	(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ruengdet Pankhuenkhat)	
	Member
	(Dr. Veerakarn Kanokkamalade)	
	Member
	(Phramaha Suriya Varamethi, Dr.)	
	Member
	(Dr. Seng Hurng Narindo)	

Dissertation Supervisory Committee:	Dr. Veerakarn Kanokkamalade	Chairperson
	Dr. Kham Ing Kongsin	Member
	Dr. Seng Hurng Narindo	Member

Researcher

Phra Nawkham Narada



The Graduate School of Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University has approved this thesis as a part of "A Study of Features of Tai Grammar" education according to its curriculum of the Master of Arts Program in English (International Program).

.....
(Phramaha Sombon Uddhikaro, Dr.)
Dean of Graduate School

Thesis examination committee

.....
(Phramaha Sombon Uddhikaro, Dr.)

Chairperson

.....
(Dr. Veerakarn Kanokkamalade)

Member

.....
(Ven. Seng Hurng Narindo, Dr.)

Member

.....
(Asst. Prof. Dr. Phramaha Suriya Varamedhi)

Member

.....
(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ruengdet Pankhuenkhat)

Member

Dissertation supervisory committee:

Dr. Veerakarn Kanokkamalade

Chairperson

Ven. Seng Hurng Narindo, Dr.

Member

Dr. Kham Ing Kongsin

Member

Researcher

.....
(Phra Nawkham Narada)

Thesis title : A Study of Feature of Tai Grammar

Researcher : Phra Nawkham Narada

Degree : Master of Arts program in English (International Program)

Thesis supervisory committee

: Dr. Veerakarn Kanokkamalade

B.A (English), M.A. & Ph. D. (Linguistics)

: Dr. Senghurng Narindo

M. A. & Ph. D. (Buddhism)

: Dr. Kham Ing Kongsin

MA & Ph.D. (Linguistics)

Date of graduation

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to study The Feature of Tai Grammar of Mong Nawng dialects on phrase and clause level. The desired outcome of this research is the understanding of some aspects of Tai Grammar.

The results of the study reveal that the Tai of Mueng Naung has 18 consonant phonemes / p, t, k, ʔ, p^h, t^h, k^h, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, r, l, s, c, h, w, j / and 8 of them /-p, -t, -k, -m, -n, -ŋ, -w, -j/ are found in the final position. The 3 consonant clusters are / l, w, j, /.

There are 11 vowels in Tai, 10 monophthongs / i, e, ε, ω, ə, a, a:, u, o, ɔ, / and 1 diphthong /aw /.

The 5 tones in Tai are 1) a rising tone 2) a low tone 3) a mid tone 4) a high tone and 5) a falling tone. .

Tai words are formed by nominalization, compounding, reduplication and expressive without changing the word's original forms.

- ชื่อวิทยานิพนธ์ : การศึกษาคูณลักษณะของไวยากรณ์ไต
- ผู้วิจัย : Phra Naekham Narada
- ปริญญา : พุทธศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต (สาขาภาษาอังกฤษ หลักสูตร
นานาชาติ)
- คณะกรรมการควบคุมวิทยานิพนธ์
- : ดร. วีระกาญจน์ กนกมเลส
- B.A (English), M.A. & Ph. D. (Linguistics)
- : Dr. Senghurng Narindo
- M. A. & Ph. D. (Buddhism)
- : Dr. Kham Ing Kongsin
- MA & Ph.D. (Linguistics)
- วันสำเร็จการศึกษา :

บทคัดย่อ

การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาคูณลักษณะของไวยากรณ์ไตถิ่นเมืองหนอง เพื่อทำความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับลักษณะทางไวยากรณ์ของไต

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า ภาษาไตเมืองหนองมีพยัญชนะต้น ๑๘ เสียง/ p, t, k, ʔ, p^h, t^h, k^h, m, n, ŋ, r, l, s, c, h, w, j / และเป็นพยัญชนะท้ายได้ ๘ เสียง /-p, -t, -k, -m, -n, -ŋ, -w, -j/ พยัญชนะเสียงกล้ำ ๓ เสียง/ l, w, j, /

เสียงสระไตพบ ๑๑ เสียง คือสระเดี่ยว ๑๐ ตัว คือ / i, e, ε, u, ə , a, a:, u, o, ɔ, / และ
สระผสม ๑ ตัว คือ /au /

ส่วน วรรณยุกต์มี ๕ เสียง คือ ๑) เสียงต่ำเลื่อนสูง ๒) เสียงต่ำ ๓) เสียงกลางระดับตก
เล็กน้อย ๔) เสียงสูง ๕) เสียงสูงตก

ในการสร้างคำใหม่ในภาษาไทยนั้นเกิดจากการผสมคำอิสระเข้าด้วยกัน เช่น การทำให้เป็น
คำนาม ผสมคำ คำซ้อนและ คำสร้อย เป็นต้น

ACNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to many people for the invaluable help, support and encouragement without which I would not have been able to complete this work.

First, I would like to record my sincerest gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Veerakarn Kanokkamalade, who has supported me throughout my research with his patience and knowledge. His invaluable advice and kind support helped me overcome many crisis situations and finish this research. I am hugely appreciative to Dr. Kham Ing Kongsin and Dr. Seng Hurng Narindo, especially for sharing his taxonomic expertise so willingly, and for being so dedicated to role as my second supervisor.

I would like to express my sincere grateful to all lecturers for their teaching and advising. My sincere thanks to all members of the Faculty of Humanities and all of my friends in the class, whose continuous support have made this thesis possible.

I would like to say thank you to my best friend Sai Shai Fa, without him this thesis would not have been started or completed! Your encouragement and support has never faltered; thank you. My deep appreciation is due to other people whose names have not been mentioned here for their help and encouragement.

Last but by no means least, I would like to express a tremendous gratitude to my parents, my brothers and my sisters for their support and encouragement whatever I do. While I am deeply grateful for the assistance and support of all these people, I must clarify that the blame for errors in the dissertation (if any) lies with me alone. And any shortcomings are solely my responsibility.

Phra. Nawkham Narada

TABLE OF CONTENTS

page	
ABSTRACT (ENG)	v
ABSTRACT (Thai)	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xv
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background and Significance of the problem	1
1.1.1 Why is this topic studied?	4
1.1.2 How is this topic important?	4
1.2 Objectives of the thesis	4
1.3 Scope of the study	5
1.4 Definitions of terms used in this study	5
1.5 Literature review and Research works concerned	5
1.6 Expected Benefits	7
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Introduction	8
2.2 Overview of discourse analysis	8
2.3 Theoretical framework	12
2.4 Related studies	17
2.5 Summary	20

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 Introduction	21
3.2 Population	21
3.3 Data and fieldwork	21
3.3.1 Published materials	21
3.3.2 Fieldwork	21
3.4 Data Collection	22
3.5 Data Analysis	22

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction	23
4.2 Phoneme classes	23
4.2.1 Consonant phoneme	23
4.2.2 Vowel phoneme	25
4.2.3 Toneme	26
4.3 Grammar Sketch	28
4.3.1 Noun phrase	28
4.3.1.1 Constituent order	29
4.3.1.2 Noun phrase heads	29
4.3.1.3 Modifiers	31
4.3.1.4 Quantifiers	33
4.3.1.5 Classifiers	34
4.3.1.6 Demonstratives	34
4.3.1.7 Possessors	35
4.3.1.8 Complex noun phrase	37
4.3.2 Prepositional phrase	38
4.3.2.1 Locative	38
4.3.2.2 Benefactive	39
4.3.2.3 Instrument	40
4.3.3 Verb phrase	40

4.3.3.1 Constituent order	41
4.3.3.2 Head verb	41
4.3.3.3 Preverbal elements	42
4.3.3.4 Postverbal element	45
4.3.3.5 Quote formulas	47
4.3.4 Clause level	49
4.3.4.1 Intransitive clause	49
4.3.4.2 Transitive clause	49
4.3.4.3 Di-transitive clause	50
4.3.4.4 Dependent and independent clause	51
4.3.4.5 Time expression	52
4.4 Summary	52
CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION,DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTION	
5.1 Conclusion	53
5.2 Discussion	53
5.3 Suggestion	55
BIBLIORGAPHY	56
APPENDIX	61
Appendix A: Tai Orthography	62
Appendix B: Glossary	69
BIOGRAPHY OF RESEARCHER	86

LIST OF TABLES**Table**

1: An etic salience scheme for narrative	15
2: Tai consonants	24
3: Tai vowels	25
4: Tai tonemes	27
5: Tai tones as appear in Gedney's tonal box	28
6: Tai personal pronouns	30

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

1. Givon's coding scale	16
2. Tai noun phrase template	29
3. The constituent order of Tai verb phrase	41

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

ADV	Adverb
CLF	Classifier
COMP	Complementizer
COMPAR	Comparative
COND	Conditional
CONJ	Conjunction
CONN	Connector
DEM	Demonstrative
DO	Direct Object
DUR	Duration
EXCL	Exclamation
H	Head
HV	Head Verb
IMPER	Imperative
IO	Indirect Object
INTER	Intensifier
IRR	Irrealis
MOD	Modifier
N	Noun
NEG	Negator
NMLZR	Nominalizer
NP	Noun Phrase
NUM	Numeral
O	Object
ONOM	Onomatopoeia
POSS	Possession
POSTY	Postverbal

PP	Preposition
PREV	Preverbal
PRO	Pronoun
PRT	Particle
QNT	Quantifier
REL	Relative pronoun
RFLX	Reflexive
S	Subject
V	Verb
VOC	Vocative
VP	Verb Phrase
vV	Modal Auxiliary

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1. 1 Background and Significance of the Problem

Many Shan historians believe that the Shan once lived in central Asia and migrated southward. The migrations were usually caused by invasion forces from outside or internal conflict among the Tai. The migration routes were along the main rivers (Kher Sen 1999:14)¹.

Migration and Settlement of Tai Ethnic Groups Like many other ethnic peoples the Tai once had their homeland in China. Some historians believe that the Tai people first came to settle north of the yellow (Huang Ho) river, occupying the region known as Hebei and Shanxi round about 2515 B.C. The Chinese annals also mention Tai settlements in the middle basin of the Yellow River in 850 B.C. They made their homeland here for a long time, establishing small feudal kingdoms and spreading their “Na” culture to neighboring regions. But new emigrants coming from Central Asia later impelled the Tai and other ethnic groups to move southwards to new fertile areas between the Yellow and Yangtze (Chang Jiang) rivers covering the present provinces of Hunan and Hubei.

The history of an ethnic group known as “Tai” has been widely studied and argued over the past century² (Winai 2002:30)³. Most prominent academics suggest Tai history is “a potent blend of fact and fantasy” (Conway 2006:33)⁴. The relegation to “legend” of the ancient Tai settlements as well as the disagreement on the establishment - years of the Tai principalities

¹ Kher Sen, *Shan chronicle and Shan State history*. Thailand, 1999.p. 14.

²Scholar from Western societies have studied the Tai history since mid-19th century, and their studies seem to focus on the Tai in Shan principalities, which were the British colonies (Yos 2000:4).

³ Winai Pongsripian. *In kan sueksa prawattisat lae wannakam khong klum chattiphan tai* (Studies of History and Literature of Tai Ethnic Groups). (in Thai).2002.

⁴ Conway, susan. *The Shan: Culture, Art and Crafts*. Bangkok: River books.2006. p. 33.

(see Anan 1995⁵, and Yos 2000⁶) lead to the so-called “legendary history” or, in Leach’s team, a “proto-history”(1960:53). A number of western scholars such as Elias (1876)⁷ an eminent Tai scholar - build their separate historical studies on different and individual Tai chronicles, which have been compiled and kept in Mandalay (Yos 2000:4). To cite an example, Cochrane shows his opinion on the method in which the Tai had recorded their history in ancient times:

Scholars and historians have assumed that the various cultures of Southeast Asia have known about the Tai people for centuries. According to certain intellectuals⁸, the first Tai kingdom, which was located in the valley on the left side of the Yangtze, is called “Nanchao.” Among others is William Clifton Dodd⁹ who indicates that the Ai-Lao¹⁰, an ethnic people living in southern Yunnan during the Han Dynasty¹¹, established Nanchao. “Nanchao as the Tai kingdom” is an assumption that has also been critically challenged from some Chinese historians, who propose that the origin of Tai should be in Guangxi and the eastern part of Yunnan (Winai 2002:36). The Tai gradually migrated from the mentioned areas to the west via the northern part of Vietnam and Lao, including moving southwardly from the Yunnan frontier zone to the northern vicinity of Myanmar and Thailand (Winai 2002:37). Winai (2002:43-44) is

⁵ Anan Ganjanapan. *Sathanaphap kan wichai phatthanakan than sangkhom lae watthanatham thaiyai* (Research History, social Development, and Culture of the Thai Yai. In *Kan sueksa watthanatham choncaht tai* (The Study of Tai Culter). Pp. 7-17. Bangkok: Office of the National Culture Commission, Ministry of Education. (in Thai).1995.

⁶ Yos Santasombat. *Lak chang: kan sang mai khong attalak tai nai tai khong* (Lak Chang: A Reconstruction of Tai Identity in Daikong). Bangkok: Withithat Project. (in Thai).2000.

⁷ Elias, Ney. *Introductory Sketch of the History of the Shan in Upper Burma and Western Yunnan*. Calcutta: Foreign Department Press.1876.

⁸For example, de Lacouperie (1885),Sao Saimong Mangrai (1965), Htin Aung (1967), and Tzang Yawng hwe (1987). Among others, Leach suggests that Nanchao is the empire of the Shan (Leach 1954:36).

⁹He is a missionary evangelist of the Presbyterian Church USA and an explorer, who played a key role in the expansion of Protestant missions from northern Thailand into southern China.

¹⁰The terms “Lao” or “Ai-Lao” has been substituted with the title “Tai” (Dodd 1996:3,7), and “it is still applied by the Annameese to the Shan of Uper Saim” (Scott 1982:208).

¹¹Unlike Dodd, Yin-Tang Chang- a Chinese scholars – indicates that Nanchao Kingdom was established during the Tang Dynasty (Chang 1944:63).

among the Thai scholars who disagree with the Nanchao conception. He raises a question, if Nanchao had been occupied by the Tai, why there is not any trace of any Tai-speaking group or Tai culture in the place that is the central area of Nanchao, the kingdom that remained for several centuries. According to his fieldwork, he claims that he had never discovered evidence showing that there is a Tai settlement between Xishuangbanna¹² and Yunnan cities of Tali and Kunming.

According to the Hsenwi Chronicle, in the 11th century Tai kingdoms in the Mao Basin were established, and the kingdoms had more military powers. However, their glorious time came to an end. The Tai kingdoms could not resist the more powerful army of the Bagan¹³ Kingdom, which was ruled by King Anawratha (Yos 2000:6-7). Several chronicles consistently indicate that the Mao Kingdom, or “Mok Khao Mao Luang,” literally White Flower-Great Mao, reached its peak during the reign of “Hso Khan Pha¹⁴,” Tai principalities, and expanded the territory of the Tai kingdom (Somphong 2001:126)¹⁵. Hso Khan pha solidified a number of Tai principalities, and expanded the territory of the Tai kingdom (Thanwa 2007:4). It is the first kingdom that became so powerful that they had been occupying other kingdoms ruled by other ethnic groups (Somphong 2001:120) for a certain period of time. The Tai respect Hso Kha Pha as their hero King. The saga of the king has become one of the best-known legendary stories among the Tai to date (Somphong 2001:116).

The history of the Tai people exists within the context of the (re)establishment of kingdoms and states (principalities), the warfare among themselves, and its being ruled by certain ethnic groups, and its being occupied by nearby kingdoms, including Western power since 16th century. In terms of a Tai-Burmese relationship, the Tai have had a political and

¹²The Thai people call Xishuangbanna “Sipsong Panna.”

¹³Bagan had been the capital of several ancient kingdoms in Myanmar. It was located in the dry central plains of the country, on the eastern bank of the Irrawaddy River, 145 kilometers southwest of Mandalay.

¹⁴Or “Suea Khan Fa” in Thai sources. He is also referred to as Khun Suea Khwan Fa in some books.

¹⁵ Somphong Witthayasakphan. *Prawattisat thai yai* (A Tai history). Bangkok: Sangsan Publishing, Co., Ltd. (in Thai). 2001.

sociocultural relationship with the Burmese for over a thousand years (Somphong 2001:198-199).

1.1.1 Why is this topic studied?

The purpose of the present work is to outline the main structural features of standard spoken Tai. The analysis designed to serve three main purposes. First it is designed to serve as documentation of this endangered language in a systematic way, including phonemic analysis, syllable structure, tone, morphophonemic, and grammatical description. Second, it is designed to serve as a reference for linguistic, anthropologists. Third, it is designed to serve as a foundation for the development of a Tai writing system and materials to aid in the preservation and maintenance of the Tai language for the benefit of future generations of Tai people or who are not native Tai.

1.1.2 How is this topic important?

Grammar is a very important aspect of language study because it is the language that makes it possible for human to talk about language as it is an essential form of communication and a set of symbols which represent the significant sound features pertaining to one particular tongue. It allows people to convey and elaborate their perspective. It means that language is the bridge to connect people all over the world. Therefore, language is a subtle and complex instrument used to communicate an incredible number of different things. Being a basic component of language, word plays an important role in communication. Word helps us to express many shades of meanings different levels of style. For that reason, in expressing what need to be said or written.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this research are as follows (1) to describe aspects of the grammar of Tai dialect. This will include a general description of Tai word classes phrases, clauses and (2) to investigate the syntax of Tai dialect, element of Tai dialect grammar appears to be unusual and therefore warrants further study.

1.3 Scope of the Study

This is to study basic grammatical features of the Tai language on the word, phrase, clause and sentence levels. The pronunciation common in the principalities of Mueng Nawng has been taken as a standard.

1.4 Definitions of Terms Used in the Study

Tai means the language spoken by the Tai people who live in Mueng Naung with the population of approximately 10,000.

Grammar means the study of words, phrase, clause, their functions and relations in the sentence.

1.5 Review of Literature and Research Works

1.5.1 Grammar of the Shan Language, (1887), Rev. J. N. Cushing. It was first published in 1871 and it is believed to be the first printed form of Shan Grammar. Dr. Cushing had provided a great benefit to the Shan language. He also wrote an English-Shan Dictionary (1881). He offered himself to the American Baptist Missionary Union as a candidate for the foreign field. He sailed to Burma in 1866, being designated to the Shan people in the mission of spreading the words of christ. Within a decade he had successfully translated all the New Testament into the Shan language. (Khur-yearn 2006:4)

His Shan Grammar book consists of 17 Chapters which can be roughly grouped as follows. The first four Chapters cover the Shan writing system consisting of 10 vowels and 19 consonants. Concerning the 5th and 17th consonants is found to be exactly the same both in sound and form. Cushing gave the reason that the 17th alphabet was once had a distinct sound of its own and it has been retained in the Shan alphabet on account of a custom connected with the naming of children. Now the 17th consonants is no longer found in new Shan alphabets.

In the following chapters, he studied the word classes and some noticeable characteristics of Shan Such as Proper Couplets, Phonetic Couples and Idiomatic Constructions. These are the ways of word formation or the morphological system of the Shan. He then ended the last two chapters of his book with prose and poetry.

No doubt the old Shan writing system in this book took him much time and effort in explaining. In the old Shan characters, there were fewer symbols representing the vowel sounds than they really existed. In other word, one symbol might stand for different sounds.

1.5.2 Another work of Rev. J. N. Cushing is the *Elementary Handbook of the Shan Language*, (1888, revised and reprinted 1906). The Shan writing is presented in the introduction. In this book the author intended to provide general knowledge of the Shan language for the beginner. It divided into three main parts, the first of which consisting of 20 lessons, deals with the basic Shan grammar; parts of speech and tenses so on. Part two of the book contains the sentences in Shan with their English translation of and presented in various topics such as, Man, Clothing, House, Weapons, Money, Fire, Water so on,. Though these colloquial conversations are slightlydifferent from today Shan, they still make sense. And the third part of the book consists of some Tai simple stories, Jataka (Buddha's previous life story), petitions to Sawbwa (Saopha), written language from a book and sayings. All these stories appear in Shan and they make up 17 lessons. A huge number of vocabularies are listed in the pattern of English-Shan which make up two third of the whole book's pages.

1.5.3 A guide to the Study of Shan, (1911), by Major F. Bigg-Wither, is another book of book of Shan language learning published in the early 20th century. The British official wanted to assist the needs of travelers or officials to know the Shan language in order to communicate with local people. So the author who himself was an official focused on natural language as she is spoken in everyday life and at court.

The presentation of this book is quite similar to Cushing's work. It means that the first part introduces the Shan Rammar. And the second part, which takes up most of the book, presents lists of English sentences with Shan translations. It covers different topics of everyday conversation such as Age, Time, School, Tatooing, Gambling and the Law and the Police. These sentences come in the form of conversation and some in narrative style. Twenty exercises in English with their Shan translations are given at the end. These exercises come from the set of examinations or petitions from different schools and some are from the Shan stories.

1.5.4 *Shan Chrestomathy: An Introduction to Tai Mau Language and Literature*, (1985) by Linda Wai Ling Young. This is a study of the oral narrative of Tai Mau (Mao)

folktales. It consists of more than ten Tai Mau folktales and some Nam Kham folksongs. It also consists of transcription of Tai Mau into English word by word.

The interesting point is that at the beginning of the book, it provides a few notes on Shan Grammar. Tai Mao has Affected Reduplication pairs in which nonsense items are suffixed to adjectives and other intransitive verbs. According to Young, the vowels /ɔ, i, e, ε / are associated with a 'good' connotation whereas / u, o, aa / are found with a 'bad' connotation. The vowel / u / appears as neutral.

1.6 Benefits of the Study Expected

The expectation of this study is that (1) The reader can understand more the Tai Grammar. (2) This study can be used as a comparison to the previous studies of Tai. (3) This study can be used as guidance for further research or to look at different angles of research on the Tai language.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter first gives a brief review of the literature on discourse analysis that is pertinent to the scope of this thesis. It goes on to summarize the theories and methodologies used and to interact with them to underwrite the validity of the research. Also found in this chapter is the summary of some related studies on Tai languages which have served as the guidelines for this study of Tai narrative.

2.2 Overview of discourse analysis

There has been rapid growth in the linguistic area called discourse analysis for the past few decades. The traditional view held by Chomsky (1957)¹⁶ that there are no relationships beyond sentence as far as linguistics is concerned, no longer satisfies many linguists who seek explanations for variations of syntactic forms beyond the sentence level.

The question is why discourse analysis? Sander (1970)¹⁷ states that sentence grammar will not work unless it is part of discourse grammar. His rationale for this statement is that certain factors which are needed for understanding and accounting for elements in sentences cannot be found in the sentences themselves, rather they can only be found elsewhere in the discourse. This same view is found in Wirth (1985)¹⁸ which states that only the discourse context can explain why certain word order, word choice, anaphora, and several other syntactic forms are

¹⁶ Chomsky, Noam. *Syntactic structures*. (Janua Linguarum 4.) The Hague: Mouton. 1957.

¹⁷ Sanders, Gerald A. On the natural domain of grammar. *Linguistics* 63, 51-123. 1970.

¹⁸ Wirth, Jessica R. *Beyond the sentence: Discourse and sentential form*. Ann Arbor, MI: Karoma. (ed) 1985.

applied to certain sentences. Longacre (1996:1)¹⁹ strengthens this view by claiming that “language is language only in context”. He further reasons that to study the grammar of language by simply looking at isolated sentences not only leaves many unanswered questions but also limits the ability to fully explain many difficult problems. In conclusion, it is necessary to analyze the grammar of a language from the discourse point of view.

There have been many studies in the discourse area including different genres from different languages. However, narrative discourse has received the most attention. Grimes (1975)²⁰ states that narrative discourse is where the distinction among different types of information is most clearly displayed. He divides information in narrative discourse into two kinds. The first kind of information he gives the name “event” which records that “a particular person did something” (1975:35). The second kind is called a “non-event” which can be further divided into setting, background, evaluation, and collateral. Setting is mainly about place, time, and circumstances. Background provides explanations to the narrative. Evaluation records a narrator’s opinions about participants, events, etc. Collateral records events which did not happen in a narrative.

Hopper and Thompson (1980)²¹ claim that the transitivity feature of verbs has a discourse function. That is, verbs with high transitivity often occur in clauses denoting foreground information while verbs with low transitivity usually occur in clauses expressing background information.

Longacre (1996) has contributed much to the area of discourse analysis. He has studied discourse structure of many languages of the Philippines and of Papua New Guinea. His major contributions to the field of discourse analysis include the realm of surface and notional structures, mainline vs. supportive material (storyline and non-storyline) which includes salience scheme, and participant reference system especially in narrative discourse. He has also

¹⁹ Longacre, Robert E. *The grammar of discourse*. Second edition. New York: Plenum Press. 1996.

²⁰ Grimes, Joseph E. *The thread of discourse*. The Hague: Mouton. 1975.

²¹ Hopper, Paul J. and Sandra A. Thompson. *Transitivity in grammar and discourse*. *Language* 56, 251- 299. 1980.

contributed much to paragraph types and their combinations and discourse typology. The focus of this thesis draws on Longacre's surface and national structures and storyline studies.

Levinsohn (2003)²² has primarily done discourse analysis for the sake of translation. He often points out applications for translation from a discourse view point. He states (1992) that to start analysis with narrative discourse will help one understand the features of other types of discourse. He has conducted discourse studies on New Testament Greek and on various languages of West-Central Africa. He has developed a methodology for analyzing participant reference. I have chose Levinsonh's methodology and not Longacre's because it is comparable in a more statistical manner.

Grammar of the Shan Language, (1887)²³, Rev. J. N. Cushing It was first published in 1871 and it is believed to be the first printed form of Shan Grammar. Dr. Cushing had provided a great benefit to the Shan language. He also wrote an English-Shan Dictionary (1881). He offered himself to the American Baptist Missionary Union as a candidate for the foreign field. He sailed to Burma in 1866, being designated to the Shan people in the mission of spreading the words of christ. Within a decade he had successfully translated all the New Testament into the Shan language. (Khur-yearn 2006:4)

His Shan Grammar book consists of 17 Chapters which can be roughly grouped as follows. The first four Chapters cover the Shan writing system consisting of 10 vowels and 19 consonants. Concerning the 5th and 17th consonants are found to be exactly the same both in sound and form. Cushing gave the reason that the 17th alphabet was once had a distinct sound of its own and it has been retained in the Shan alphabet on account of a custom connected with the naming of children. Now the 17th consonants are no longer found in new Shan alphabets.

In the following chapters, he studied the word classes and some noticeable characteristics of Shan Such as Proper Couplets, Phonetic Couples and Idiomatic Constructions. These are the ways of word formation or the morphological system of the Shan. He then ended the last two chapters of his book with prose and poetry.

²² Levinsohn, Stephen H. *Analysi of narrative texts*. Dallas: SIL International. 2003.

²³ Cushing J.N. Rev. *Grammar of the Shan Language*. Rangoon: American Baptist Mission Press. 1887.

No doubt the old Shan writing system in this book took him much time and effort in explaining. In the old Shan characters, there were fewer symbols representing the vowel sounds than they really existed. In other word, one symbol might stand for different sounds.

Another work of Rev. J. N. Cushing is the *Elementary Handbook of the Shan Language*, (1888, revised and reprinted 1906). The Shan writing is presented in the introduction. In this book the author intended to provide general knowledge of the Shan language for the beginner. It divided into three main parts, the first of which consisting of 20 lessons, deals with the basic Shan grammar; parts of speech and tenses etc. Part two of the book contains the sentences in Shan with their English translation of and presented in various topics such as, Man, Clothing, House, Weapons, Money, Fire, Water etc. Though these colloquial conversations are slightly different from today Shan, they still make sense. And the third part of the book consists of some Shan simple stories, Jataka (Buddha's previous life story), petitions to Sawbwa (Saopha), written language from a book and sayings. All these stories appear in Shan and they make up 17 lessons. A huge number of vocabularies are listed in the pattern of English-Shan which make up two third of the whole book's pages.

A guide to the Study of Shan, (1911)²⁴, by Major F. Bigg Wither, is another book of book of Shan language learning published in the early 20th century. The British official wanted to assist the needs of travelers or officials to know the Shan language in order to communicate with local people. So the author who himself was an official focused on natural language as she is spoken in everyday life and at court.

The presentation of this book is quite similar to Cushing's work. It means that the first part introduces the Shan Rammar. And the second part, which takes up most of the book, presents lists of English sentences with Shan translations. It covers different topics of everyday conversation such as Age, Time, School, Tattooing, Gambling and the Law and the Police ect. These sentences come in the form of conversation and some in narrative style. Twenty exercises

²⁴ Bigg-Wither, F. Major..*A Guide to the Study of Shan*.Rangoon: American Baptist Mission Press.1991.

in English with their Shan translations are given at the end. These exercises come from the set of examinations or petitions from different schools and some are from the Shan stories.

Shan Chrestomathy: An Introduction to Tai Mau Language and Literature, (1985) by Linda Wai Ling Young. This is a study of the oral narrative of Tai Mau (Mao) folktales. It consists of more than ten Tai Mau folktales and some Nam Kham folksongs. It also consists of transcription of Tai Mau into English word by word.

The interesting point is that at the beginning of the book, it provides a few notes on Shan Grammar. Tai Mao has Affected Reduplication pairs in which nonsense items are suffixed to adjectives and other intransitive verbs. According to Young, the vowels /ɔ, i, e, ε / are associated with a 'good' connotation whereas / u, o, aa / are found with a 'bad' connotation. The vowel / ʉ / appears as neutral.

2.3 Theoretical framework

An important thing to do prior to analysis is to identify the discourse type of each of the texts. Longacre (1996) classifies different types of discourse: narrative, procedural, behavioral, and expository, based on four parameters. These parameters are contingent temporal succession, agent orientation, projection, and tension. Longacre (1996:9-10) defines these for parameters in term of their binary nature in narrative discourse as follows:

...Contingent temporal succession refers to a framework of temporal succession in which some (often most) of the events or doings are contingent on previous events or doings. Agent orientation refers to orientation towards agents with at least a partial identity of agent reference running through the discourse. These two parameters intersect so as to give us a four-way classification of discourse types: Narrative discourse (broadly conceived) is plus in respect to both parameters... The first two parameters, however carefully defined, leave us with a classification much too broad for most purposes. Further parameters, projection, can be posited so as to give us eight types instead of four. Projection has to do with a situation or action which is contemplated, enjoined, or anticipated, but not realized. Thus, narrative as a board category can be subdivided into prophecy, which is plus projection, versus story, history, which are minus projection, i.e., the events are represented as having already taken place... Although a scheme in

three parameters captures many useful distinctions, still a fourth parameter, tension, can be posited, which has to do with whether a discourse reflects a struggle or polarization of some sort. This is relevant to narrative discourse of all sorts where episodic (minus tension) narrative is distinguished from climactic narrative (plus tension).

Longacre also developed a framework for discussing the features of surface and notional structures of texts. He proposed that the features on the surface structure of a story may be comprised of a title, aperture, stage, prepeak episode(s), peak episode, postpeak episode(s), closure, and finis. He also proposed the notional structure of a narrative discourse to be the plot structure whose progression starts “from the stage to inciting moment to further build up to a climax of confrontation to denouement and to final resolution” (Longacre 1983:xvi)²⁵. He stages that the relationship between the surface and notional structures is a two-way relationship, where the surface structure marks what the notional structure or plot requires in the given story. In its turn the notional structure is the motivation for the different surface structure features that are found marking the various notional structure units.

Longacre’s (1996:28) demonstration of the correlation between the surface and notional levels of climactic narrative discourse claims that the title, aperture, and finis are features of surface structure only. A normal story will have the stage filled by the exposition, the pre-peak episodes – anything from zero to ‘n’ – are filled by the inciting moment and developing conflict, the peak episode contains the climax of the story, the post-peak episodes – again, any number may exist – is filled with the denouement and perhaps final suspense, and lastly the closure will contain the conclusion. Longacre claims that the labeling of the notional structure of narrative discourse chunks, as well as of other types of discourse, does not necessarily have a one-to-one correspondence with those on the surface structure. It is possible for skewing to take place, particularly at the peak of a narrative. He also states that in brief stories it is common for the stage and inciting moment to run together.

Longacre (1996) emphasizes that it is especially essential that we recognize the peak of the story with the distinctive features emerging on the surface structure. Once the peak is

²⁵ Longacre, Robert E. *The Grammar of discourse*. New York: Plenum. 1983.

recognized, we can then identify the pre-peak and post-peak episodes and the other features of the surface structure of a narrative in contrast to those marking the peak.

Longacre (1996:38) defines peak as a “zone of turbulence in regard to the flow of the discourse in its preceding and following parts”. The peak episode has special features which may not occur anywhere else in the narrative, Longacre (1985)²⁶ further stages that peak often corresponds with the notional structure climax, where the maximum tension of the story is reached. In some cases the peak also marks the denouement, where an event occurs making a resolution possible. The different features he proposed that may mark the peak are rhetorical underlining, a concentration of participants, heightened vividness, a change of pace, a change of vantage point and/or orientation, incidence of particles and onomatopoeia.

Another area in Longacre’s work which has influenced my study of Tai narrative is what he calls “salience scheme”, Longacre (1989)²⁷ stages that a text of any discourse type in a given language always contains two kinds of material. He refers to these as “main lines of development” and “supportive materials”. He claims that the main line of development in a narrative is the storyline which is considered the “main structure feature” of a story. That is, it is the most prominent element in the story. Longacre further suggests that the clauses which carry the storyline and the clause which carry the storyline and the clauses which carry supportive materials (non-storyline) in a narrative can be arranged in an order indicating a level of “salience” on importance. Storyline is placed in the highest position and all non-storyline clauses are placed lower. Longacre (1996:28) proposed an etic salience scheme for narrative which is presented in Table 1 below. The bands carrying the clauses of storyline are positioned highest in the scheme and the other bands carrying non-storyline are placed successively lower in the hierarchy depending on their importance to development of the narrative.

²⁶ Longacre, Robert E. Discourse peak as zone of turbulence, ed. by Jessica R. Wirth. *Beyond the sentence: Discourse and sentential form*. Ann Arbor, MI: Karoma. 1985.

²⁷ Longacre, Robert E. Two hypotheses regarding text generation and analysis. *Discourse Processes* 12, 413-460. 1989.

Table1. An etic salience scheme for narrative (adapted from Longacre 1996:28)

-
1. Pivotal storyline (augmentation of 1)
 1. Primary storyline
 2. Secondary storyline
 3. Routine (script- predictable action sequences)
 4. Background actions/events
 5. Background activity (durative)
 6. Setting (exposition)
 7. Irrealis (negatives and modals)
 8. Evaluations (author intrusions)
 9. Cohesive and thematic
-

Note: Flashback can group with (2) or (4) or can be added after (5)

Longacre (1990)²⁸ also states that the verbs of storyline clauses should have distinct forms in terms of tense or aspect, or both tens aspect. Many Asian languages are isolating languages, and consequently the storyline clauses are marked in other ways.

Promotion and demotion up and down the salience scheme may take place. That is, non-storyline clauses in the hierarchy of saliency may be promoted to storyline while storyline clauses may be demoted to non-storyline. For instance in English punctiliar adverbs like *suddenly* can promote non-storyline clauses to the storyline. Storyline elements can be demoted by the use of grammatical subordination or relativization, that is, to subordinate a clause whose verb reports an action by making it a pre-posed adverbial or relative clause (Longacre 1996).

Levinsohn (1994)²⁹ states that participants throughout a discourse can be encoded along the coding scale provided by Givon (1983:18) presented in Figure 1 the amount of

²⁸ Longacre, Robert E. Storyline concerns and word-order typologies in East and West Africa. *Studies in African linguistics*, supplement 10. 1990.

encoding material used to refer to a participant depends on several factors. Among these are the number of participants on the stage, the role of the referent if the previous clause, the presence of a discontinuity, whether or not the clause is highlighted, and the status of the participant in the story.

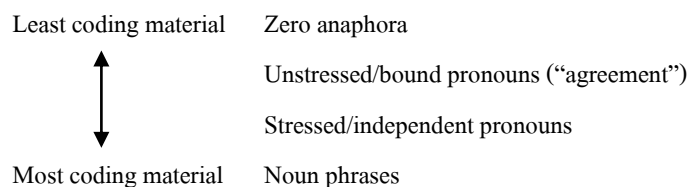


Figure 1. Givon’s coding scale

Levinsohn’s methodology for analyzing participant reference consists of eight steps. Since the topics chosen in this study require the breaking of the text as a whole into chunks³⁰, Barnwell’s work in setting forth criteria to determine the boundaries between these chunks is important. Barnwell (1980) state that at either the beginning or the end of a chunk there are criteria which signal its boundary, any one criterion by itself does not necessarily signal the boundary of a chunk. However, when there are two or more criteria, it is likely that there is the presence of a boundary. More criteria are likely to be found at section breaks than at paragraph breaks. Barnwell’s list of criteria includes grammatical markers, a change in time, place, and participants, topic phrases or sentences, summary statements, overlap clauses, direct address, rhetorical questions, the use of tense or adverbial tense markers, and other signals like long pauses, different intonation patterns, and several others.

²⁹ Levinsohn, Stephen H. Field procedures for the analysis of participant reference in a monologue discourse, ed. By Stephen H. Levinsohn. Discourse features of ten languages of West-Central Africa. Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics and University of Texas. 1994.

³⁰ Barnwell uses the term “unti”. However, I prefer to use the term “chunk” which refers to the various parts in a story. A chunk can consist of anything from one sentence at the least to several paragraphs, or even a whole book.

2.4 Related studies

There has been several discourse studies conducted on various Tai languages. In regard to narrative discourse, Somsonge (1991)³¹ is a primary source. There is also Patchance (1989)³². S. Person (1998)³³, Jaranya (2004), and several others. In the field of hortatory discourse there are K. Person (1993) and Usitara (1997). Since the present study deals with narrative, the research on narrative discourses, especially that of Somsonge (1991), have served as the guidelines in analyzing different aspects of Tai narrative. Longacre's framework was the main influence for these studies on narrative discourse.

Somsonge studied the structure of Thai narrative based on folk tales. The major areas discussed are surface and notional structures, storyline and non-storyline, and participant reference. Prior to proposing the features of surface and notional structures to the texts, Somsonge divided the texts into chunks. The criteria which mark the boundaries of these chunks are a change in time, a change in location, a change in participants, and a change of circumstance. The surface structure features of Thai folk tales include title, aperture, stage, pre-peak, peak, post-peak, closure, and finis. The peak is marked by the elaboration of details, a miraculous incident, a crowded stage, rhetorical understanding, and heightened vividness achieved through a passive structure, peaked storyline verbs, and shifts along the narration drama parameter. The features of the national structure of these Thai climactic narratives are comprised of exposition, inciting incident, developing conflict, climax, denouement, and conclusion.

Somsonge proposed a salience scheme which includes seven bands, storyline, background, flashback, setting, irrealis, evaluation, and cohesion. Thai storyline verbs are verbs of motion, action, cognitive experience and event proper, which are accompanied by sequential markers. Motion and action verbs of storyline clauses are often accompanied by directional

³¹ Somsonge, Burusphat. The structure of Thai narrative. Texas: the University of Texas at Artington. Ph.D. Dissertation. 1991.

³² Patchance Thammawong. Multiple levels of significant discourse information in Thai short stories. Mahidol University: M.A. thesis. 1989.

³³ Person, Suzanne Renee. The story of Mea Laa: A discourse analysis of a Northern thai life history in its cultural context. Chiang Mai: Payap University. M.A. thesis. 1998.

verbs. The background band consists of cognitive states and background activities which are customary, ongoing, repetitive, or gradual. The band of flashback contains verbs similar to those of storyline band except that these flashback band clauses are out of sequential order. The clauses of the setting band contain verbs which are stative, possessive, existential, and equative. These setting band clauses serve to explain and to describe. The irrealis band contains clauses whose verbs indicate wish, doubt, estimation, and the like. Irrealis is also achieved by negation and conditional sentences. Evaluation is characterized by author intrusion or author's opinions about morality. The verbs of evaluation band are often stative. The cohesion band includes adverbial and relative clauses, thematicity and topicalization. To promote a cognitive state from background band to a cognitive experience of storyline band, the punctiliar adverb 'suddenly' is used. Demoting clauses of storyline band to non-storyline bands is achieved by subordinating those clauses.

The main participants in the stories in Somsonge's study are all animate and are introduced by existential constructions. They are referred to by zero anaphora until there are points of discontinuities occurring in the texts. After discontinuities, they are referred to by overt forms (noun phrases). Secondary or thematic local participants are introduced by overt forms. Zero anaphora is found within the section of which they are the thematic participants; otherwise they are referred to by overt forms. Tertiary participants are mostly encoded by overt forms except for instances in which they are locally thematic participants of paragraphs; they may then be referred to by zero anaphora.

Patchance (1989) analyzed Thai short stories looking at the multiple levels of significant discourse information including peak, storyline, and non-storyline. The devices which are found marking the peak in these Thai short stories are the absence or presence of flashback, a crowded stage, the incidence of onomatopoeia, a change of page, rhetorical underlining marked by repetition of cognitive experience verb, and heightened vividness which is achieved through the extensive use of storyline verbs, a shift from monologue to dialogue, and a shift to a specific time.

Storyline forms in Patchance's study are divided into three categories based on the degree of significance. The first level storyline is characterized by punctual verbs of action, motion, and event proper, accompanied by sequential markers and punctual adverbs. The second

level storyline is marked by cognitive experience, speech, and causative verbs. The third level of storyline has the form of the negation word *maj*⁵ ‘not’ plus a series of verbs. It is noted that since this kind of storyline has the characteristics of both non-storyline and storyline, context has to be taken into account. Regarding non-storyline, there are two levels of non-storyline information presented in the study. The first level of non-storyline information consists of background activities, cognitive stage, and flashback. Background activities and cognitive stage are often marked with time phrases indicating duration, while flashback is marked with time phrases signaling past time. The second level of non-storyline information includes setting marked by time phrases and existential verbs, irrealis characterized by modality verbs and negation, evaluation, and cohesion mainly characterized by adverbial clauses.

Jaranya (2004)³⁴ analyzed a Thai short story focusing on the surface and notional structure of that text. The four boundary markers found in the short story “Mom” are a change in time, a change in location, a change in participants, and a change in theme. The following features are found for surface structure, title, stage, pre-peak episode, peak episode, post-peak episode, and closure. The peak of the story is marked by rhetorical underlining through parallelism, paraphrase, and tautology, an unusual element called head-head linkage, and a change of pace. The features of the notional structure include exposition, exciting incident, climax, denouement, and conclusion. The correlation of notional and surface structures maps perfectly, excepting the title which is a feature of surface structure only.

S. Person (1998) studied Northern Thai first person narratives. The main aspect of her research that is related to the present study is that of surface structure. The six criteria which mark the boundaries in Northern Thai texts are a change in topic, a change in participants, a change in time, a change in location, the use of prominent connective words or phrases, and summary statements which can be classified as “author intrusion”. The features of the surface structure of Northern Thai texts are comprised of the aperture, stage the pre-peak, the peak, post-peak, and closure. The peak is marked by the concentration of participants, high intonation.

³⁴ Jaranya Thepphornbanchakit. A discourse analysis of the plot and orofile of M.R. Kukrit Pramote’s short story “Mom”. Chiang Mai: Payap University. M.A. thesis. 2004.

2.5 Summary

This chapter provides a brief literature review on discourse analysis which is pertinent to the scope of the thesis. It also lays out the theoretical framework designed by Longacre and Levinsohn which has heavily influenced this study. The works by Somsonge and others, which serve as guidelines to the study, are also briefly summarized.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 Introduction

This is a documentary research. The materials that will be collected for this research are mostly from books, documents, articles, and journals, including from native speakers of Tai people in Mueng Naung, Kee Hsi Township, Shan State. After the textual materials have been collected they will be analyzed in this description.

3.2 Population

The population of this study included 5 native speakers in Mueng Naung, Shan State, Republic of the Union of Myanmar. Most of these native speakers are from high school study in different places.

3.3 Data and fieldwork

The dialect data used in this dissertation comes both published materials, interview and my own fieldwork.

3.3.1 Published materials

The main set of data used is from Gedeny's unpublished wordlist (Gedney n.d.), which has now been published as part of the *William J. Gedney's Comparative Tai Source Book* (Hudak 2008). In addition to these sources, other resources that play invaluable roles in this dissertation include published and unpublished wordlists, dictionaries, and dialect descriptions in English, Thai and Tai.

3.3.2 Fieldwork

My own fieldwork is very important to be carried out on a number of dialects in Shan State, Republic of the Union of Myanmar. During the period of the fieldwork, I collected data from the Tai dialects of Mueng Naung, Shan State, Republic of the Union of Myanmar. I met

some key informants or alternatively known as “research collaborators”– who later introduced me to other informants or gave me recommendations about whom I should speak with or interview. After being acquainted with local people and the area, I earnestly began collecting qualitative data related to the research questions by participant observation, semi-structure and unstructured interviews. I also conducted in-depth interviews with certain key informants, and had discussions with Tai scholars and other people on the feature of Tai Grammar to validate the data. Please note that key informants for semi- structured interviews in this period of fieldwork and the others were carefully selected from native speakers of different backgrounds to ensure a gender and age.

3.4 Data Collection

The data consists of about 1,000 words for an analysis which are collected. Phrases and sentences are elicited together with various utterances recorded on tape as other Tai speakers passed by the language helpers and conversation between the language helpers.

What to be emphasized here is: first, the language helpers who can speak Tai (Shan), Burmese and English, good in Tai language even in old words.

Second, the language studied in the Tai dialect which is spoken in Mueng Naung.

Last, the data studied are both the spoken and the written.

3.5 Data Analysis

A basic linguistic functional approach is used to describe the phenomena. Various typological grammars are informed the analysis.

.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents phoneme classes and a basic grammar sketch of the Tai language. It attempts to provide a grammatical foundation for the Tai language which is helpful for charting the texts and getting them ready for analysis at the discourse level.

4.2 Phoneme classes

Tai phoneme consists of three main classes, 1) consonant phoneme 2) vowel phoneme and 3) toneme.

4.2.1 Consonant phoneme

There are 18 consonants in Shan language which can be divided into three categories according to their distribution, 1) initial consonants, 2) consonant clusters and 3) final consonants. They are displayed in Table 1. The three of these 18, namely / b /, / ts /and /tʃ/ which are underlined in Table 1, were not found in data which the researcher of this thesis collected at Mueng Naung, Shan State, Republic of the Union of Myanmar.

Table 2: Tai consonants

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Voiceless stops	p p ^h	t t ^h		k k ^h	ʔ
Voiced stops	<u>b</u>				
Fricatives		s			h
Affricates		ts tʃ	c		
Nasals	m	n	ɲ	ŋ	
Lateral		l			
Continuants	w		j		

All of the consonants in Table 1 can occur initially in syllables. There are three consonant clusters in Tai / l, w, j / that occur as second member of an initial consonant. All consonant clusters occur with long vowel /a:/ and some occur with vowels /ɛ, ə, a, ɔ /. While the vowels / i, e, u, u, o / are never occur with the consonant clusters.

The consonant cluster aren't common in Shan colloquial. It is mostly found in loanwords and many Tai speakers pronounce them variously and some do pronounce without cluster sound. Some Tai speakers pronounce the cluster /-l/ separately as two syllables. In the Tai writing system, the /l/ cluster is written with a symbol (F-) representing the (I) [r] sound. Therefore, sometime cluster /-l/ may be heard as cluster /-r/. The final consonants are /p, t, k, m, n, ŋ, w, j, /³⁵

³⁵ Here the / -? / is not interpreted as a final consonant because the glottal constriction occurs with the low tone and falling tone in open syllables. Therefore, it is predictable.

4.2.2 Vowel phoneme

There are 11 vowels, 10 monophthongs and 1 diphthong, as can be seen in Table 2. The vowel length in Tai is non-contrastive except for the central low vowels/ a, a: /.³⁶ When the vowels occur in open syllable with tones 1,2, and 3, they are slightly long, in contrast when the vowels occur in checked syllables with tone 4 and 5, they are slightly short. The following table shows the tongue position and tongue height of Tai vowels. (see table 3)

Table 3: Tai vowels

		Front	Central	Back
Monophthongs	High	i	ɯ	u
	Mid	e	ə	o
	Low	ɛ	a a:	ɔ
Diphthong		au		

1) Monophthong

Of all Tai vowels there are 10 monophthongs. They are / i, e, ɛ, ɯ, ə, a, a:, u, o, ɔ /.

The examples below are the Tai vowels as they occur with consonants.

Example:

/ ki ³ /	‘bloom’
/ ke ² /	‘few’
/ kɛ ² /	‘old’
/ ku ⁴ /	‘familiar with’
/ kə ¹ /	‘salt’
/ kan ⁴ /	‘handle’
/ ka: ¹ /	‘crow’

³⁶ ‘In such dialects as Shan, Lu, White Tai, Wu-Ming etc., the distinction of the short and long vowel (written \bar{a} and a) may be due to the quality of the vowel, as no other vowels show a contrastive length distinction (Li, 1977).

/ku ³ /	‘borrow’
/ko ¹ /	‘fear’
/kɔ ¹ /	‘clump’

2) Diphthong

There is one diphthong in Tai vowels. It is /au/. The only Tai diphthong /au/ never occurs with any final consonants.

Example:

/p ^h au ¹ /	‘who’
-----------------------------------	-------

In this research, the final vowels [-i] and [-u] are interpreted as final consonants /-j/ and /-w/ respectively as in the words /kaj¹/ ‘far’ and /kaw¹/ ‘I’ because of the syllable structure and for economical reasons. The two final vowels can occur after the long vowel [a:]. If they are interpreted as /-i/ and /-u/, the none-permissible syllable structure CVVV will arise. And since these two final vowels can follow various vowels, if they are treated as the final vowels, a large number of diphthongs will arise. Finally the consonants /j-/ and /w-/ also occur as initials so interpreting the final vowels as /-j/ and /-w/ is more economical than as vowels.

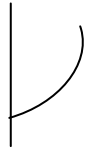
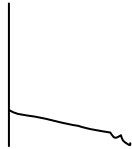

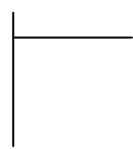
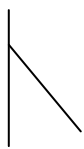
4.2.3 Toneme

The toneme functions as a nucleus in syllable. There are five contrasting tones in open syllable and four tones in checked syllable. They are rising, low, mid, high, and falling tones.

- Tone 1: a rising tone
- Tone 2: a low tone or low falling with slightly glottal constriction at the end
- Tone 3: a mid level tone with slightly glottal constriction at the end
- Tone 4: a high tone
- Tone 5: a high falling tone with glottal constriction at the end

The following table shows the five contrasting tones in Tai. The meaningful words with five tones are selected as examples below. Tone 1 never occurs in checked syllable.

Table 4: Tai Tonemes

Tone 1: Rising	Tone 2: Low falling	Tone 3: Mid level	Tone 4: High level	Tone 5: High falling
				
Ka: ²⁴ (crow)	Ka: ²¹ (guava)	Ka: ³³² (dance)	Ka: ⁴⁴ (car)	Ka: ⁴¹ (trade)
Kaw ²⁴ (i)	Kaw ²¹ (old)	Kaw ³³² (nine)	Kaw ⁴⁴ (disturb)	Kaw ⁴¹ (owl)
Pu ²⁴ (crab)	Pu ²¹ (grandfather)	Pu ³³² (carpenter bee)	Pu ⁴⁴ (white mouse)	Pu ⁴¹ (betel leaf)
kɔn ²⁴ (cherry)	kɔn ²¹ (former time)	kɔn ³³² (lump)	kɔn ⁴⁴ (roost)	kɔn ⁴¹ (dip up)
	pɔk ²¹ (peel)	pɔk ³³² (return)	pɔk ⁴⁴ (short)	pɔk ⁴¹ (area of house)

As the tonal system plays quite an important role in Tai family language, for it can be used as one criteria in Tai dialects classification. Here, therefore, the Gedney's tonal box and Praat Program (V.5.1.00) are used in analyzing the Shan tonal system.

William J. Gedney's tonal box (1972) is widely known and used by many Tai linguists in tonal analyzing. It is a twenty-box table and each box contains three or four words. There are sixty four test words. As known to all, in tonal checking Gedney has divided the pro-tai initial consonants at the time of tonal splitting into four groups according to their phonetic feature as: 1) Voiceless affricative, *s, hm, ph, etc. 2) Voiceless unaspirated stop, *p, etc. 3) Glottal stop, *ʔ, ?b, etc. and 4) Voiced sound *b, m, l, z, etc. respectively. The ABC columns

represent the proto tones of open syllables and the DS and DL columns are the proto tones of checked syllables.

Following is the Tai tones as appear in Gedney's tonal box (see table 4). Tai is a bipartition or two ways splitting as A234-4 and B = DL. The same way of splitting is true to Tai Lue, Red Tai, White Tai, Black Tai, Zhuangetc.

Table 5: Tai tones as appear in Gedney's tonal box

	A	B	C	DS	DL
1					
2	24	21	332	44	21
3	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(2)
4	44	33	41		33
	(4)	(3)	(5)		(3)

Tone 1: A 1 2 3

Tone 2: B 123, DL 1 2 3

Tone 3: B 4, C 1 23, DL4

Tone 4: A 4, DS 1 2 3

4.3 Grammar Sketch

The grammar sketch presented in this section is basic and the specific areas of interest are noun phrase, prepositional phrases, verb phrases, clause types, and time expressions.

4.3.1 Noun Phrase

This section first discusses the constituent order and the components of a noun phrase, which are noun phrase heads, modifiers, quantifiers, classifiers, demonstratives, and possessors. Then it goes on to describe types of complex noun phrases.

4.3.1.1 Constituent order

The noun phrase (NP) template in Tai consists of a head (H), one or two modifiers (MOD), a quantifier (QNT), a classifier (CLF), a demonstrative (DEM), and a possessor (POS). The head and its relation to the other components of the noun phrase are illustrated in Figure 1. The components in parentheses are optional.

NP=[H+(MOD)+(QNT)+(CLF)+(DEM)+(POS)]

Figure 2. Tai noun phrase template

4.3.1.2 Noun Phrase heads

The head of a noun phrase can be a common or proper noun, a pronoun, or a classifier. Example (1) presents a common noun *mu*¹ ‘pig’ as the head of the noun phrase *mu*¹ *nan*⁵ ‘that pig’, which is the subject of the clause ‘that pig did not die’.

- (1) CONJ N DEM NEG V
*Koŋ*⁴ *ka*³ *mu*¹ *nan*⁵ *am*² *tai*¹.
 But pig that not die

However, the pig didn’t die.

A proper noun can also fill the head slot of a noun phrase. It can see in example (2) that the proper noun, the name *Kham* ‘Kham’, is the head of the noun phrase.

- (2) Nprop V
Kham *haj*³
 Kham cry
 Kham cries.

The Tai language has singular and plural pronouns. There are no precise forms of pronouns which indicate ducal, inclusive, or exclusive in Tai. Instead, for example, *haw⁴ sɔŋ¹ kɔ⁵* ‘we two people’ is used to express dual. Table 3 presents the personal pronouns in Tai. The pronouns *kaw¹* ‘I’ and *mau⁴* ‘you’ are used only among close friends, or by an elder person to a younger one. To address oneself as *kaw¹* and a hearer of older age as *mau⁴* is considered very rude in Tai culture.

Table 6 . Tai personal pronouns

	Singular	Plural
1P	k ^h a ³ Kaw ¹	haw ⁴
2P	mau ⁴	su ¹
3P	man ⁴	K ^h aw ¹

The pronouns *haw⁴* and *su¹* can be also used as singular pronouns. Friends or husband and wife use *haw⁴* and *su¹* to address each other.

Tai pronouns can function as a subject or object in a clause, filling the noun phrase head position. Example (3) illustrates the pronouns *k^ha³* ‘I’ and *haw⁴* ‘they’ as the heads of noun phrases.

- (3) **PRO** CONN NEG V COMP **PRO** V ADV N
 INTER
K^ha³ kɔ³ am² hu⁵ wa³ kaw¹ p^hit⁴ kan¹ lɔŋ³
saj¹
1PS conn not know that **3PL** quarrel each story
 what
 I did not know what they quarreled about.

Classifiers in Tai can also act as heads of noun phrases, as can be seen in example (4). The classifier $k\mathcal{O}^5$, which is the classifier for human beings, is the head of the noun phrase $k\mathcal{O}^5 nan^5$ ‘that person’.

(4)	CONJ	CLF	DEM	NEG	V	V	V	ADV
	$Koj^4 ka^3$	$k\mathcal{O}^5$	nan^5	am^2	$t^h \mathcal{O}m^2$	lEn^3	$k^h uan^3$	$t^h \varepsilon\eta^3$
	but	person	that	not	listen	run	ascend	more

But that person did not listen, and climbed up more.

4.3.1.3 Modifiers

The modifier of a noun phrase can be a noun or a relative clause. Example (5) shows that the noun nam^5 ‘water’ acts as a modifier to the head $se\eta^1$ ‘sound’ of the noun phrase meaning ‘the sound of water’.

(5)	N	N	V	V	ADV	CONN	NEG	V	V
	$se\eta^1$	nam^5	$la\eta^1$	lat^3	$t\mathcal{O}^2 kan^1$	$k\mathcal{O}^3$	$?am^2$	lai^3	jin^4
	sound	water	loud	talk	eachother	conn	not	get	

hear

The sound of the water was (so) loud (that) (the children) talked but could not hear (each other).

A relative clause which acts as a modifier to the head of the noun phrase is found in example (6). The relative clause $ti^3 mi^4 k\mathcal{O}\eta^3$ ‘who have guns’ modifies the head $k\mathcal{O}^5$ of the noun phrase ‘people who have guns’.

(6)	NUM	CLF	V	CLF	REL	V	N
	Hok^4	$k\mathcal{O}^5$	pen^1	$k\mathcal{O}^5$	ti^3	mi^4	$g\mathcal{O}\eta^3$
	six	person	be	person	which	have	gun

Six people were people who had guns.

The head of a noun phrase can sometimes take two modifiers. In example (7) the noun *lɔŋ*³ ‘story’ is modified by two modifiers. The first one is the verb *tɛ*⁵ ‘true’ (underlined), and the second is the relative clause *tɪ*³ *lai*³ *han*¹ *kap*² *ta*¹ ‘which (I) saw with (my own) eyes’ (double underlined).

(7)	PRO	V	N	<u>V</u>	<u>REL</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>PP</u>	<u>N</u>
	<i>Man</i> ⁴	<i>pen</i> ¹	<i>lɔŋ</i> ³	<u><i>tɛ</i>⁵</u>	<u><i>tɪ</i>³</u>	<u><i>lai</i>³</u>	<u><i>han</i>¹</u>	<u><i>taŋ</i>⁴</u>	<u><i>ta</i>¹</u>
	3PS	be	story	true	which	get	see	with	eye

It is a true story which I saw with (my own) eyes.

In example (8), the head noun *kon*⁴ ‘person’ is modified by two relative clauses standing next to each other. The first modifier is the relative clause *tɪ*³ *ju*² *ʃam*¹ *kan*¹ *taŋ*⁴ *həŋ*⁴ *haw*⁴ ‘who lived next to our house’ and the second one is *tɪ*³ *ma*⁴ *tʰam*¹ *ham*⁴ ‘who came to ask us’.

(8)	N	<u>REL</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>ADV</u>	<u>PP</u>	N	<u>PRO</u>	<u>REL</u>	<u>V</u>
	<i>Kon</i> ⁴	<u><i>tɪ</i>³</u>	<u><i>ju</i>²</u>	<u><i>ʃam</i>¹</u>	<u><i>kan</i>¹</u>	<u><i>taŋ</i>⁴</u>	<u><i>həŋ</i>⁴</u>	<u><i>haw</i>⁴</u>	<u><i>tɪ</i>³</u>	
		<u><i>ma</i>⁴</u>								
		Person	which	stay	near	each otherwith	house	1PL	which	
				come						
	<u>V</u>	<u>PRO</u>	<u>DEM</u>	CONN	V	V	N	N		
	<u><i>Tʰa:m</i>¹</u>	<u><i>haw</i>⁴</u>	<u><i>nan</i>⁵</u>	<i>kɔ</i> ³	<i>hɔŋ</i> ⁵	<i>ha</i> ¹	<i>kon</i> ⁴	<i>ʃa:t</i> ⁴		
	Ask	1PL	that	conn	call	lookfor	person	male		

The person who lived next to our house, who came to ask us before, called for the man.

4.3.1.4 Quantifiers

Quantifiers are words which indicate quantity. In relation to classifiers, they often precede, as can be seen in examples (9) and (10). The quantifiers *tʰɛŋ*³ ‘more’ and *sɔŋ*¹ ‘two’ come before the classifier *kɔ*⁵ in examples (9) and (10), respectively.

(9)	V	N	N	<u>QNT</u>	CLF	CONN	V	N	V
	<i>mi</i> ⁴	<i>kon</i> ⁴	<i>ʃa:j</i> ⁴	<i>tʰɛŋ</i> ³	<i>kɔ</i> ⁵	<i>kɔ</i> ³	<i>kʷn</i> ⁴ <i>pɔk</i> ³	<i>pɔj</i> ⁴	
<i>ma</i> ⁴									
	Have	person	male	<u>more</u>	person	conn	return	festival	
come									

There was another man (who) came back from the festival.

(10)	N	<u>NUM</u>	CLF	DEM	CONN	V	N	PRO
	<i>pʰa</i> ² <i>laŋ</i> ²	<i>sɔŋ</i> ¹	<i>kɔ</i> ⁵	<i>nan</i> ⁵	<i>kɔ</i> ³	<i>?up</i> ²	<i>la:m</i> ³	<i>kʰaw</i> ¹
	foreigner	<u>two</u>	person	that	conn	talk	interpreter	3PL

Those two foreigners talked with their interpreter.

However, when the quantifier is *nʷŋ*³ ‘one’ then it can follow the classifier, as can be seen in Example (11). This could be possible because the quantifier ‘one’ can also act as an indefinite determiner, ‘a’.

(11)	N	NUM	CLF	CONJ	N	PRO	CLF	<u>NUM</u>	V	V	V
	<i>pʰa</i> ² <i>laŋ</i> ²	<i>sɔŋ</i> ¹	<i>kɔ</i> ⁵	<i>taŋ</i> ⁴	<i>la:m</i> ³	<i>haw</i> ⁴	<i>kɔ</i> ⁵	<i>nʷŋ</i> ³	<i>lai</i> ³	<i>loŋ</i> ⁴	
	<i>kwa</i> ²										

Foreigner two person and interpreter 3PL person one get descend go

...two foreigners and their interpreter went down to...\

4.3.1.5 Classifiers

Classifiers Tai can act as heads of noun phrases as was discussed earlier in example (4) in section 3.1.2. However, their main role is to serve as a means to identify the nouns which precede them and to denote counting those nouns. When a classifier comes with the quantifier *nuŋ*³ ‘one’, it can serve to determine the noun as well. Each classifier possesses certain feature that license what nouns it can go with. For example, the classifier *kɔ*⁵ is assigned to go with noun denoting ‘human beings’, *to*¹ with ‘legged-thing’, *laŋ*¹ with ‘house’, and so forth. They cannot be used interchangeably. This is illustrated in examples (12) and (13).

- (12) CONJ N NUM CLF V V ADV
*koŋ*⁴*ka*³ *kon*⁴ *sɔŋ*¹ *kɔ*⁵ *leŋ*³ *ma*⁴ *tʰeŋ*³
 but person two person run come inaddition

However, two (more) people ran (to the three) in addition.

- (13) CONJ N Nprop V PP N PRO Vv v N NUM
CLF
*Pɔ*⁴ *pi*³ *li*¹ *kwa*² *nau*⁴ *tʰən*² *man*⁴ *te*¹ *ju* *kwa:ŋ*¹ *nuŋ*³
*to*¹if brother Lee go in forest 3PS will shoot
 deerone legged thing

if brother Lee goes to the forest he will shoot a deer.

The classifier *kɔ*⁵ is used in example (12) because the head of the noun phrase is *kon*⁴ ‘person’ while *to*¹ is used in example (13) since the noun phrase head is *kwa:ŋ*¹ ‘deer’, an animal.

4.3.1.6 Demonstratives

There are two pairs of demonstratives found in Tai, *nai*⁵ and *nan*⁵, *nai*³ and *nan*³. *Nai*³ and *nan*³ are used for a different demonstrative purpose, that is within quote formulas (see Section 3.3.5). *nai*⁵ and *nan*⁵, which can be translated as ‘this’ or ‘these’ and ‘that’ or

‘those’ follow and modify the noun phrase heads. In example (14), *nai*⁵ ‘this’ modifies the head *an*¹ of the noun phrase *an*¹ *nai*⁵. Example (15) presents *nan*⁵ ‘that’ modifying the head *tuuŋ*⁴ of the noun phrase *tuuŋ*⁴ *nan*⁵,

- (14) **CLFDEM** V N V
*An*¹ *nai*⁵ *pen*¹ *loŋ*³ *tɛ*⁵
 *** **this** be story true
 This is a true story...

- (15) N **DEM** CONN V
*tuuŋ*⁴ *nan*⁵ *kɔ*³ *luk*⁵
deepwater that conn deep

That water was deep.

4.3.1.7 Possessors

Possessors can be a noun (proper or common noun), a kinship term, or a pronoun. Example (16) presents the proper noun *k*^h *am*⁴ ‘Kham’ as the possessor in the noun phrase *pɔ*³ *k*^h *ɔŋ*¹ *k*^h *am*⁴ ‘father of Kham’.

- (16) N **POSS** **Nprop** CONN V V NEG V
*Pɔ*³ *k*^h *ɔŋ*¹ *k am*⁴ *kɔ*³ *la:t*³ *wa*³ *?m*² *mi*⁴
Father of Kham conn say quote not have

Kham’s father then replied, “No”.

The pronoun *haw*⁴ ‘we’ and the kinship term *pɔ*³ ‘father’ function as the possessors in examples (17) and (18), respectively.

- (17) N V N **PRO** V ADV
*Pu*² *pa*² *?aw*¹ *pi*³ *?ai*³ *haw*⁴ *kaw*² *jaw*⁵

Head-hunter get **elder-brother** **1PL** go already

Head-hunter took our brother away.

- (18) PRO CONJ V V PP N N
Man⁴ jaw⁵kɔ³ t^hup⁵ k^haw³ ti³ ho¹ pɔ³
 3PS ... then punch enter at **head** **father...**

He (my brother)then punched him in the head...

Possessors can either come right after the noun phrase heads or be connected with the noun phrase heads by *k^hɔŋ¹‘of’*. When a noun phrase consists of only the head and the possessor, the connector *k^hɔŋ¹‘of’* is optional, as can be seen in examples (19) and (20). In example (19), the connector *k^hɔŋ¹* is used while in (20) it is not.

- (19) N **POSS** **PRO** CONN V N V
nɔŋ⁵ʃa:i⁴ k^hɔŋ¹ k^ha³ kɔ³ pen¹ kon⁴ p^hit⁴
youngerbrother of 1PS conn be person wrong ..
 ...my brother was wrong....

- (20) N **PRO** CONN V
nɔŋ⁵ʃa:i⁴ k^ha³ kɔ³ jɔm⁴
youngerbrother 1PS conn concede
 My brother conceded.

However if the possessor is separated from its noun phrase head by other components of the noun phrase then the connector *k^hɔŋ¹‘of’* is required, as can be seen in example (21).

- (21) N V **NUM** **CLF** **POSS** **PRO** V PP
 ADV

*Hən*⁴ *jau*² *sa:m*¹ *laŋ*¹ *k*^h*ɔŋ*¹ *k*^h*a*³ *ju*² *tɪ*³
*pun*⁵

House big three roofedthing of 1PS stay at

overthere

My three big houses are over there.

In example (21), since the noun head *hən*⁴ ‘house’ is separated from its possessor *k*^h*a*³ ‘1PS’ by the modifier *jau*² ‘big’, the quantifier *sa:m*¹ ‘three’, and the classifier *laŋ*¹, the connector *k*^h*ɔŋ*¹ ‘of’ is used.

4.3.1.8 Complex noun phrase

The complex noun phrases presented in this section are coordinate noun phrases. Coordinate noun phrases are comprised of two or more noun phrases which are connected with one another by conjunctions. In example (22) the conjunction *taŋ*⁴ ‘and’ is used to connect the two noun phrase *luŋ*⁴ *ka:ŋ*⁵ ‘uncle headman’ and *kon*⁴ *loŋ*¹ *ku*³ *kɔ*⁵ ‘every influential [great] people’ together.

(22) N N CONJ N V QNT CLF CONN V V

V

*Luŋ*⁴ *ka:ŋ*⁵ *taŋ*⁴ *kon*⁴ *loŋ*¹ *ku*³ *kɔ*⁵ *kɔ*³ *tep*⁴ *tat*⁴
*la:t*³ *wa*³

Uncle headman and person great every person conn decide say

quote.

...the headman and every influential [great] people (in the village) then decide that..

A coordinate noun phrase which consists of three noun phrase joined together by the conjunction *taŋ*⁴ ‘and’ can be seen in example (23).

(23)	V	PP	N	NUM	CLF	<u>CONJ</u>	N	PRO
	<u>CONJ</u>							
	<i>Hop</i> ⁵	<i>saɯ</i> ²	<i>p^ha²laŋ</i>	<i>²sɔŋ¹</i>	<i>kɔ</i> ⁵	<u><i>taŋ</i></u> ⁴	<i>la:m</i> ³	<i>haw</i> ⁴
<u><i>taŋ</i></u> ⁴								
	<i>See</i>	<i>into</i>	<i>foreigner</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>person</i>	<u><i>and</i></u>	<i>interpreter</i>	<i>3PL</i>
						<u><i>and</i></u>		

CLF	V	NUM	NUM	DEM	V	V	ADV	DUR
<i>kɔ</i> ⁵	<i>?a²ju⁵</i>	<i>sip</i> ⁴	<i>ha</i> ⁵	<i>nan</i> ⁵	<i>tʃuk</i> ⁴	<i>?up</i> ²	<i>kan</i> ¹	<i>ju</i> ²
person	age	ten	five	tha	stand	talk	eachother	stay

..(we) saw the two foreigners and their interpreter, and that fifteen-year-old boy standing talking with one another.

4.3.2 Prepositional phrase

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition, which is the head of the phrase and a noun phrase. Locative, benefactive, and instrument phrases are discussed respectively in this section.

4.3.2.1 Locative

Locative phrases indicate the location of the actions described by the verbs. A locative phrase consists of a preposition and a noun of location. In Tai, the prepositions which are used in locative phrases are *ti*³ ‘at’, *nə*¹ ‘on’, *nau*⁴ ‘in’, *tau*³ ‘under’, and several others. The locative phrase *naɯ⁴ t^hən²*, which is best translated as ‘in the forest’, shows the location of the action *kep⁴ p^hak⁴* ‘pick vegetable’, as can be seen in example (24).

(24)	PRO	V	N	<u>PP</u>	N
	<i>Haw</i> ⁴	<i>kep</i> ⁴	<i>p^hak</i> ⁴	<u><i>nau</i></u> ⁴	<i>t^hən</i> ²
	1PL	pick	vegetable	<u><i>in</i></u>	forest

We pick vegetable in the forest.

However, if these prepositions come with motion verbs they can indicate the direction. It is illustrated in example (25).

(25)	N	Nprop	V	PP	N	V	N
	<i>Pi³</i>	<i>li¹</i>	<i>kwa²</i>	<u>nau⁴</u>	<i>t^həŋ²</i>	<i>ju⁴</i>	<i>kwa:ŋ¹</i>
	brother	Lee	go	in	forest	shoot	deer
	Brother Lee goes to the forest (to) shoot deer.						

The phrase *nau⁴ t^həŋ²* in example (25) comes after the motion verb *kwa²* ‘go’ to show the direction of the verb ‘go’. It is best translated as ‘to the forest’.

4.3.2.2 Benefactive

The prepositions *ti³* and *ka³ti³* in example (26) and (27) mark the beneficiary of an action. They come after the direct object and are followed by the indirect object of the clauses. In (26), a person named *lek⁵* is the beneficiary of the action *pan¹* ‘give’ and in (27) *po¹ k^ha³* ‘my father-in-law’ is the beneficiary of the action *mεŋ²* ‘give’.

(26)	N	Nprop	V	N	PP	Nprop
	<i>Pi³</i>	<i>sɔj⁴</i>	<i>pan¹</i>	<i>nam⁵ p^huŋ³</i>	<u>ti³</u>	<i>lam¹</i>
	brother	Soi	give	honey	at	Lam
	Sister Soi gave honey to Lam.					

(27)	N	PRO	V	NUM	NUM	N	PP	N	N
	<i>nɔŋ⁵ ʔa:j⁴</i>	<i>k^ha³</i>	<i>mεŋ²</i>	<i>ha³</i>	<i>lɔŋ⁵</i>	<i>wa:t²</i>	<u>ka³ti³</u>	<i>pɔ³</i>	<i>p^ho¹</i>
	youngerbrother	1PS	give	five	hundred	baht	at	father	husband
	1PS	My brother gave 500 baht to my father-in-law.							

4.3.2.3 Instrument

The preposition *loj*³ ‘with, by’ followed by a noun describing some kind of instrument forms a prepositional phrase which indicates the instrument by which an action is being carried out. Depending on the instruments that follow, the preposition *loj*³ can be translated as ‘with’ or ‘by’, as can be seen in examples (28) and (29).

(28)	Nprop	V	N	PP	N
	<i>K^ham⁴</i>	<i>kin¹</i>	<i>k^haw³</i>	<i>loj³</i>	<i>ʃɔ⁵</i>
	Kham	eat	rice	with	spoon

Kham eats with a spoon.

(29)	Nprop	V	Nprop	PP	N
	<i>Sa:j⁴</i>	<i>kɔn⁴</i>	<i>kwa²</i>	<i>kej⁴</i>	<i>maj²</i>
	Saikon	go	Chiangmai	with	plane

Saikon went to Chiangmai by plane.

In example (28), *loj*³ preceding *ʃɔ*⁵ ‘spoon’ expresses that the action ‘eat’ is carried out ‘with’ a spoon. *loj*³ in example (29) expresses that the action ‘go’ is carried out by the means of transportation ‘plane’ and it is best translated into English as ‘by’.

4.3.3 Verb Phrase

As mentioned earlier, this grammar sketch serves as a foundation to discourse analysis and is not the focus this study. The verb phrase discussed here, therefore, is not an exhaustive list of all related matters. This section describes the Tai verb phrase in terms of the relative order of the components in relation to one another and what can fill each component of the verb phrase. Also found in this section is the discussion of Tai quote formulas.

4.3.3.1 Constituent order

A Tai verb phrase is comprised of three positions which are an obligatory head verb (HV), optional preverbal elements (PREV), and optional post verbal elements (POSTV). Figure 2 presents the constituent order of the verb phrase.

VP=[(PREV)+HV+(POSTV)]

Figure 3. The constituent order of Tai verb phrase

Preverbal and post-verbal elements used in this discussion are general terms. Preverbal elements are elements that come before the head verb while post-verbal elements include elements which follow the head verb of a verb phrase.

4.3.3.2 Head verb

The head verb position can be filled by which can stand independently in clause and semantically carry the most content of the verb phrase. In example (30), the verb *kwa*² ‘go’ is head verb because it can stand independently in the clause and it carries the most content of the verb phrase.

(30)	PRO	V	PP	N	PRO
	<i>haw</i> ⁴	<i>kaw</i> ²	<i>ʃɔm</i> ⁴	<i>pi</i> ³ ?a:j ³	<i>haw</i> ⁴
	1PL	go	with	olderbrother	1PL

..We (will) go with our elder brother.

However, the verb *kwa*² ‘go’ is not the head verb of the verb phrase *tok*⁴*kwa*² ‘fall off’ in example (31). Instead, it serves as a direction verb; a post-verbal modifier of the head verb *tok*⁴ ‘fall’.

(31)	CLF	PRT	DEM	V	<u>V</u>
	<i>kɔ̌⁵</i>	<i>na³</i>	<i>nan⁵</i>	<i>tok⁴</i>	<i><u>kwa²</u></i>
	person	***	that	fall	go

... the first person fell off.

Head verbs can be preceded or followed by verbs of a different nature, such as modals, directional verbs, adverbs and/or markers of various sorts to construct complex verb phrases. This will be discussed in sections 3.3.3 and 3.3.4.

4.3.3.3 Preverbal elements

Preverbal elements are elements which precede the head verbs in verb phrases. Preverbal elements include independent verbs functioning as modifiers, modal auxiliaries, adverbs, and markers of various sorts, such as irrealis, negation, and duration.

In example (32), the independent verb *lai³* ‘get’ serves as a preverbal element to the head verb *ɲin⁴* ‘hear’. The verb *laj³* ‘get’ in Tai behaves in a similar way as the verb *da:j⁵* ‘get’ in Thai. Hass (1964:178) states that *da:j⁵* indicates past. The verb *laj³* ‘get’ in Tai when it precedes the head verb indicates that the event expressed in the head verb has already occurred. Therefore, the verb phrase *laj³ɲin⁴* (32) is the best translated ‘heard’.

(32)	PRO	CONN	<u>V</u>	V	N	CONJ	N	V
ADV								
	<i>K^ha³</i>	<i>kɔ̌³</i>	<i><u>laj³</u></i>	<i>ɲin⁴</i>	<i>pɔ̌³</i>	<i>taŋ⁴</i>	<i>nɔŋ⁵fɔa:j⁴</i>	<i>p^hit⁴</i>
	<i>kan¹</i>							
	1PS	conn	get	hear	father	and	youngerbrother	quarrel
								eachother

... I then heard my father and my younger brother quarrel with each other...

Also preceding the head verbs are verbs indicating direction. These verbs are *kwa²* ‘go’, *ma⁴* ‘come’, *k^haw³* ‘enter’, *k^hun³* ‘ascend’, *loŋ⁴* ‘descend’, and several others. Example

(33) illustrates the directional verb *loŋ*⁴ ‘descend’ as the preverbal element to the head verb *kwa*² ‘goes’ in the verb phrase *loŋ*⁴ *kwa*² ‘go down’.

(33)	N	CONJ	N	<u>V</u>	V	PP	N	N	
	<i>Pi</i> ³ <i>?a:j</i> ³		<i>tan</i> ⁴	<i>pɔ</i> ³ <i>t^haw</i> ³	<u><i>loŋ</i></u> ⁴	<i>kwa</i> ²	<i>ka</i> ³ <i>ti</i> ³	<i>p^haj</i> ²	<i>na</i> ⁴
	Older_brother	and	grandfather	descendg	go	at	edge		

ricefield

.. (my) grandfather and I went down to the edges of the rice-fields.

The Tai passive expression is formed by the independent verb *pa*⁴ ‘meet’ and a transitive verb. Passive expressions are only used to express negative experiences, as can be seen in example (34).

(34)	N	REL	<u>V</u>	V	ADV	V
	<i>Kon</i> ⁴	<i>ti</i> ³	<u><i>pa</i></u> ⁴	<i>teŋ</i> ⁴	<i>kɔ</i> ³	<i>lom</i> ⁵
	Person	which	meet	stab	then	fall

The person who was stabbed then fell.

Modal auxiliaries are another element that can precede the head verb in a verb phrase. Example (35) illustrates a verb phrase which consists of the preverbal element *?a:j*³ ‘may’ indicating possibility and the head verb *kwa*² ‘go’.

(35)	PRO	<u>vV</u>	V	PP	Nprop
	<i>Man</i> ⁴	<u><i>?a:j</i></u> ³	<i>kwa</i> ²	<i>ti</i> ³	<i>kej</i> ⁴ <i>maj</i> ²
	3PS	may	go	at	Chiangmai

He may go to Chiangmai.

Example (36) and (37) present two occasions where the modal auxiliaries *ja:m*³ ‘ever’ and *lo*² ‘must’ act as preverbal elements to the head verbs.

- (36) N DEM NEG Vy V N N N
P^ha²laŋ² nan⁵ ?am² ja:m³ han¹ pən³ ɲɔp⁴ pa¹
 Foreigner that **not** **ever** **see** otherperson catch fish
 Those foreigners did not ever see people catching fish before.

- (37) CONN V V vV V NUM NUM N
kɔ⁵ la:t³ wa³ lo² suk³ na³ la:ŋ⁵ ta¹ ha³ lɔj⁵ wa:t²
 conn tell quote **must** **facethemusic** five hundred baht
 ..then said, “(you) must pay [wash-face-wash-eye] 500 baht compensation.”

Adverbs are another element which can be in the preverbal position in Tai verb phrase. The adverbs *?ɔn¹kan¹* and *pa⁴kan¹*, which both mean ‘together’, come before the head verb to indicate that the subject of the clause is in plural form and the action expressed by the head verb is done with unity. Example (38) presents the adverbs *?ɔn¹kan¹* ‘together’ as a preverbal; element to the head verb *ja³* ‘dress’.

- (38) PRO CONN ADV V N N DEM
Haw⁴ kɔ³ ?ɔn¹kan¹ ja⁵ nau⁵ mu¹ nan⁵
 1PL conn **together** **dress** meat pig that
 ...we together dressed the pig...

Also able to fill the preverbal position are markers of various sorts. Example (39) presents the marker of negation in Tai, the negator *?am²* ‘not’ serving as a preverbal element to the head verb *t^hɔm²* ‘listen’.

- (39) PRO CONN NEG V
Haw⁴ kɔ³ ?am² t^hɔm²
 3PL conn **not** **listen**
 They did not listen

Example (40) and (41) present the marker of irrealis *te*¹ and the marker of duration *tuk*⁵ which act as preverbal element to the head verbs *p^huj*¹ ‘open’ and *paj*¹ ‘walk’, respectively.

(40) PRO	<u>IRR</u>	V	N
<i>Haw</i> ⁴	<i><u>te</u></i> ¹	<i>p^huj</i> ¹	<i>t^hoŋ</i> ¹
3PL	<u>irr</u>	open	bag

...they would open the bag...

(41) PRO	<u>DUR</u>	V	ADV	INTS	ADV
<i>K^ha</i> ³	<i><u>tuk</u></i> ⁵	<i>paj</i> ¹	<i>p^hau</i> ⁴	<i>na</i> ²	<i>te⁵te⁵wa³wa³</i>
1PS	<u>***</u>	walk	quickly	very	really

I am walking very quickly indeed..

4.3.3.4 Post-verbal elements

Post-verbal elements are elements which follow the head verbs in verb phrase. Post-verbal elements include verbs indicating direction, markers of duration, modal auxiliaries, and adverbs. In example (42), the directional verb *k^hun*⁴ ‘ascend’ serves as a postverbal element to the head verb *?εn*³ ‘run’.

(42) CONJ	V	<u>V</u>	PP	N	N	ADV
<i>Jaw⁵kɔ³?εn³</i>		<i><u>k^hun</u></i> ³	<i>fɔm</i> ⁴	<i>p^haj</i> ²	<i>nam</i> ⁵	<i>pun</i> ⁵
Then	run	<u>ascend</u>	with	edge	water	overthere

...then ran up to the bank of the river over there.

Duration in Tai can be marked by the preverbal element *tuk*⁵ (see example (41)) as well the post-verbal element *ju*². Example (43) records the marker of duration *ju*² acting as a post-verbal element to the head verb *kop*⁴ ‘bite’.

- (43) N CONN V CLF DEM **DUR**
*Juj*⁴ *kɔ*³ *k^hop*⁴ *kɔ*⁵ *nan*⁵ **ju**²
 Mosquito conn **bite** person that **stay**
 The mosquito was biting that (first) person...

However, there is also an instance where the preverbal element *tuuk*⁵ and the post-verbal element *ju*² sandwich the head verb between them, as can be seen in example (44).

- (44) PRO **DUR** V **DUR**
*Haw*⁴ **tuuk**⁵ *?up*² **ju**²
 3PL ******* talk **stay**
 They are talking.

Modal auxiliaries in Tai can also fill the post-verbal position. Example (45) presents the modal auxiliary *laj*³ ‘can’ acting as a post-verbal element to the head verb *la:t*³ ‘say, speak’.

- (45) PRO V N Nprop **vV** ADV PRT
*Man*⁴ *la:t*³ *kwa:m*⁴ *taj*⁴ **laj**³ *it⁵?ɔn² ?ɔ³*
 3PS **say** language Tai **can** alittle ***
 He can speak a little bit of Tai.

Adverbs are another element which fill the post-verbal position. The adverbs in post-verbal position can be either adverbs of manner modifying the verb head directly or adverbs of degree which modify adverbs of manner. It can be seen in example (46) that the adverb of manner *p^hau*¹ ‘quickly’ modifies the verb head *paj*¹ ‘walk’ and the adverb of degree *na*² ‘very’ describes how ‘quickly’ the action of walking is carried out.

(46)	PRO	V	<u>ADV</u>	<u>INTS</u>	ADV
	<i>K^ha³</i>	<i>paj¹</i>	<i>p^hau⁴</i>	<i>na²</i>	<i>tɛ⁵tɛ⁵wa³wa³</i>
	1PS	walk	quickly	very	really

I walk very quickly indeed.

4.3.3.5 Quote formulas

A quote formula refers to a clause which introduces speech. The clause consists of a noun phrase (which is optional) and a verb phrase. In Tai, these quote formulas may consist of two parts or types, one to “open” which precedes the quote and one to “close” which follows the quote. The opening part often contains combinations of speech verbs, such as, *la:t³* ‘say, speak’, *t^ha¹m¹* ‘ask’, *fɔ⁴* ‘invite’, etc., with the speech verb *wa³* ‘quote’. The closing part is also comprised of speech verbs, those which occur in the opening part, *wa³* ‘quote’, and one of the following: *naj⁵* ‘this’, *nan⁵* ‘that’, *naj⁵wa²* ‘like this’, *nan⁵wa²* ‘like that’, *fəŋ⁵naj¹* ‘like this’, *fəŋ⁵nan¹* ‘like that’. Speech verbs and /or *wa³* ‘quote’ in the closing part may be omitted. A Tai quote can be introduced in a number of ways. In this data a quote was introduced by only an opening part, only a closing part, by both parts and even by inserting what looks most like an opening part into the middle of a quote.

The most common examples of quote formulas found in these texts is of the type in which the quote is introduced by either an opening part or a closing part, as can be seen examples (47) and (48), respectively.

(47)	N	N	CONN	V	V	PRO	NEG	V	V	PRO
	<i>Pɔ³</i>	<i>P^ho¹</i>	<i>kɔ³</i>	<i>la:t³</i>	<i>wa³</i>	<i>kaw¹</i>	<i>?am²</i>	<i>laj³</i>	<i>wa³</i>	<i>haj⁴</i>
										<i>mau⁴</i>

Father husband conn say quote “1PS not get say anything
2PS”

My father-in-law answered, “I did not say anything about you.”

(48)	N		V	N		PRO	V	ADV	V	PRO	
	NUM										
			<i>Pu²pa:t²</i>	<i>aw¹ pi³?a:j³</i>		<i>haw⁴</i>	<i>kwa²</i>	<i>jaw⁵</i>	<i>ku⁴</i>	<i>haw⁴</i>	
			<i>sɔŋ¹</i>								
			“head-hunter get olderbrother			1PL	go	already	remain	1PL	two
CLF	ADV	V	V	V	V	N	V	V	DEM		
	<i>kɔ⁵</i>	<i>koj⁴</i>	<i>?ɛn³</i>	<i>k^huun⁴</i>	<i>ma⁴</i>	<i>ha¹</i>	<i>kon⁴</i>	<i>fɔj³</i>	<i>wa³</i>	<i>naj¹</i>	
Person	alone	run	ascend	come	lookfor	person	help”	quote	this		

“Head-hunters took our brother away, left just the two of us, (and we) ran up looking for help [helper]”, [(they) said this].

Example (49) illustrates a quote is sandwiched between an opening and closing part. In this example the opening part (bolded) and the closing part (underlined) bracket the quote *kwa² le² t^hən² hu⁵* ‘go to the forest’.

(49)	V		N		N		ADV	DEM	V	V	V	V	
			<i>Mi⁴</i>		<i>pi³</i>		<i>nɔŋ⁵</i>		<i>t³nan³</i>	<i>nan⁵</i>	<i>ma⁴</i>	<i>fɔ⁴</i>	<i>wa³</i>
			<i>kwa²</i>										
			Have	older	younger		there	that	come	invite	quote	“go	
V	N		PRT	<u>ADV</u>									
	<i>le²</i>		<i>t^hən²</i>	<i>hu¹</i>	<i>fɔŋ⁵ naj¹</i>								
go out	forest		*** ”	<u>like this</u>									

There were brother there (who) came and asked (us), “Do you want to go the forest for hunting?” said like this.

4.3.4 Clause Level

This section aims to describe several features of Tai clauses. The Tai normal word order is SVO (subject-verb object). The types of clauses are discussed first. Then a discussion on time expression follows.

4.3.4.1 Intransitive clause

In an intransitive clause the verb phrase requires only one argument. The word order of an intransitive clause is SV (subject-verb), as can be seen in examples (50) and (51). In example (50), the verb phrase *haj*³ ‘cry’ takes only one argument *k^ham*⁴ ‘Kham’, the one who is doing the ‘crying’. The verb phrase *luk*⁵ ‘be deep’ in example (51) is a descriptive verb phrase which also takes one nominal argument *tuy*⁴ *nan*⁵ ‘that water’.

(50) Nprop V

*K^ham*⁴ *haj*³

Kham cry

Kham cries.

(51) N DEM CONN V

*tuy*⁴ *nan*⁵ *kɔ*³ *luk*⁵

Deepwater **that** conn deep

That water was deep.

4.3.4.2 Transitive clause

Transitive clause take two arguments, a subject and an object. The word order of a transitive clause is SVO (subject-verb-object), as can be seen in example (52). The head verb is *?aw*¹ ‘get’ requires a subject, the one ‘getting’, *pi*³ *?a:j*³ ‘older brother’, as well as an object, the thing being gotten, in this case, *p^huy*³ ‘honey’.

(52) N	V	V	<u>N</u>
<i>Pi³?a:j³</i>	<i>kwa²</i>	<i>?aw¹</i>	<i>p^huŋ³</i>
Olderbrother	go	get	bee

...I (older brother) went to get honey.

4.3.4.3 Di-transitive clause

Di-transitive clauses take three arguments: a subject, a direct object (DO) and an indirect (IO). The word order of a Tai di-transitive clause is either S-V-IO-DO or S-V-DO-IO. Example (53) presents a di-transitive clause with S-V-IO-DO word order. The verb phrase *mɛŋ²* 'give' requires a subject, the one who gives, *nɔŋ⁵fɔj⁴k^ha³* 'my younger brother', an indirect object, the one receiving, *pɔ³po¹k^ha³* 'my father-in-law', and a direct object, the thing being given, *ha³lɔj⁵wa:t²* '500 baht'.

(53) N	PRO	V	N	N	PRO	NUM	NUM	N
<i>nɔŋ⁵fɔj⁴</i>	<i>k^ha³</i>	<i>mɛŋ²</i>	<i>pɔ³</i>	<i>p^ho¹</i>	<i>k^ha³</i>	<i>ha³</i>	<i>lɔj⁵</i>	<i>wa:t²</i>
Younger brother	IPS	give	father	husband	IPS	five	hundred	baht

My younger brother gave my father-in-law 500 baht.

When the direct object comes before the indirect then a preposition *ti³* or *ka³ti³* is used before the indirect object. Example (54) presents the S-V-DO-IO word order. The direct object *nam⁵p^huŋ³* 'honey' comes before the indirect object *num²* 'Num' and is connected to the indirect object by the preposition *ti³* which can be translated as 'to' in this case.

(54) N	Nprop	V	N	<u>PP</u>	Nprop
<i>Pi³</i>	<i>sɔj³</i>	<i>pan¹</i>	<i>nam⁵p^huŋ³</i>	<i>ti³</i>	<i>num²</i>
Brother	Soi	give	honey	at	Num

Sister Soi gave honey to Num

4.3.4.4 Dependent and independent clause

Dependent clauses in the Tai language are pre-posed or post-posed clauses. Dependent clauses which are pre-posed include adverb ‘when’ clauses and ‘if’ clauses, as can be seen in example (55) and (56), respectively.

(55)	CONJ	PRO	V	V	V	N	V	V	N
	<i>Mə³</i>	<i>haw⁴</i>	<i>loŋ⁴</i>	<i>kwa²</i>	<i>hɔf³</i>	<i>p^ha²laŋ²</i>	<i>t^ha:m¹</i>	<i>wa³</i>	
<i>luk³</i>									
	When	1PL	descend	go	arrive	foreigner	ask	quote	
child									
V	NUM	CLF	DEM	V	INTER				
<i>ʔɔn²</i>	<i>sɔŋ¹</i>	<i>kɔ⁵</i>	<i>nan⁵</i>	<i>ʔɛn³</i>	<i>het⁴saŋ¹</i>				
Young	two	person	that	run	why				

When we got there, the foreigners asked, “Why did those two children run (away)?”

(56)	CONJ	CLF	DEM	V	N	IRR	V	ADV
	<i>pɔ⁴</i>	<i>kɔ⁵</i>	<i>nan⁵</i>	<i>ta:j¹</i>	<i>pi³ʔa:j³</i>	<i>te¹</i>	<i>maj³fau¹</i>	
<i>te⁵te⁵wa³wa³</i>								
	If	person	that	die	olderbrother	irr	worry	really

It that person died, I would really worried [hot-heart]..

Dependent clauses which are post-posed are ‘because’ clauses. Example (57) presents a post-posed ‘because’ clause.

(57)	PRO	NEG	V	ADV	CONJ	PRO	V	INTS
	<i>Man⁴</i>	<i>ʔam²</i>	<i>pɔ⁴fau¹</i>	<i>heit⁵</i>	<i>kɔp³pə³wa³</i>	<i>man⁴</i>	<i>fjep⁴</i>	<i>na²</i>
	3PS	not	content	at_all	because	3PS	pain	very

He was not satisfied [enough-heart] at all because he had much pain.

4.3.4.5 Time expression

The Tai language marks tense and aspect in the verb phrase to a certain extent. For example, to express past tense *laj*³ is used and to express durative aspect *tuuk*⁵ is used. Both *laj*³ and *tuuk*⁵ are preverbal elements. However, it is also common for time expressions to be used to express these in Tai. When a time expression is used it takes the whole sentence as its scope rather than just the verb phrase. Time expressions are sometimes adverbs of time, such as, *mə*³*lew*¹ ‘at this moment’, *mə*³*p^hut*³ ‘tomorrow’, *mə*³*wa*⁴ ‘yesterday’, and so forth. At other times, they can be a whole clause, for example, *mə*³*la:j¹ pi¹ pon⁵ ma⁴* (when many years which passed by) ‘many years ago’. Example (58) illustrates that the time expression *mə*³*lew*¹ ‘at this moment’ is used to mark durative aspect. In example (59) *mə*³*wa*⁴ ‘yesterday’ is used to mark past tense.

(58) N	V	ADV
<i>P^hon</i> ¹	<i>tok</i> ⁴	<i>mə</i> ³ <i>lew</i> ¹
Rain	fall	now

It is raining now.

(59) ADV	PRO	V	N	PP	N
<i>Mə</i> ³ <i>wa</i> ⁴	<i>haw</i> ⁴	<i>kep</i> ⁴	<i>p^hak</i> ⁴	<i>nau</i> ⁴	<i>t^hən</i> ²
Yesterday	1PL	pick	vegetable	in	forest

Yesterday, we went to pick vegetable.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has provided phoneme classes and a grammar sketch of the language and it has briefly described the Tai language in terms of its grammatical features at the phrase and clause levels. This is needed to chart the texts and get them ready for analysis later on.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTION

5.1 Conclusion

This research has confined its study within the feature of Tai Grammar of Mueng Naung, Shan State, republic of the Union of Myanmar. Chapter one provides an introduction to the Tai (Shan) people, the objectives, Scope of the study, Definitions of terms used in this study, Literature review and Research works concerned, Methodology and Expected Benefits.

Chapter two gives an introduction to discourse analysis and provides the theoretical framework for the interested areas that have been discussed in this study.

Chapter three presents a detailed description of the methodology of the research. It describes the research procedures concerning the participants, group discussion, interview with informants and data collection. The participants selected for this study were five of Tai native speakers in Mueng Naung. The participants were selected and then randomly allocated to the group. The participants in the group were discussed about Tai Grammar using in phrase and clause levels. The experiment was carried out over a period of 10 weeks.

Chapter four presents a Tai phoneme a grammar sketch. The phoneme starts with its components: consonants, vowels and tones. The Grammar sketch presented in this chapter discusses the basic phrase and clause types. It serves as a foundation for charting the texts in preparation for analysis at the discourse level.

5.2 Discussion

These findings on a brief grammatical analysis of the language on phoneme, phrase and clause types which then will help to understand about other Tai languages at the discourse level.

5.2.1 Phoneme

1) The Tai of Mueng Naung has 18 consonants phonemes / p, t, k, ʔ, p^h, t^h, k^h, m, n, ɲ, ɲ, l, s, c, h, w, j /, which all of them can be appeared in the initial position and 8 of them / -p, -t, -k, -m, -n, -ɲ, -w, -j / are found in the final position. The 3 consonant clusters are / l, w, j /.

2) There are 11 vowels of the Tai, 10 monophthongs / i, e, ε, ω, ə, a, a:, u, o, ɔ / and 1 diphthong /au / . Out of all Tai vowels, only two central low vowels / a, a: / are contrasting in vowel length.

3) There are five contrasting tonemes in smooth syllable. They are 1) a rising tone 2) a low tone 3) a mid tone 4) a high tone and 5) a falling tone. The rising tone never occurs in checked syllable.

5.2.2 Phrase

The phrase consists of noun phrase, prepositional phrase and verb phrase. First, it discusses the constituent order and the components of a noun phrase, which are noun phrase heads, modifiers, quantifiers, classifiers, demonstratives, and possessors. Then it goes on to describe types of complex noun phrases.

Second, it was discussed a prepositional phrase that consists of a preposition, which is the head of the phrase and a noun phrase. Locative, benefactive, and instrument phrases are discussed respectively in this section.

Last, the verb phrase discussed here, therefore, is not an exhaustive list of all related matters. This section describes the Tai verb phrase in terms of the relative order of the components in relation to one another and what can fill each component of the verb phrase. Also found in this section is the discussion of Tai quote formulas

5.2.3 Clause

The clauses in this section consist of Intransitive clause, Transitive clause, Ditransitive clause and Dependent and independent clause. The Tai normal word order is SVO (subject-verb object). The types of clauses were discussed first. Then a discussion on time expression followed.

5.3 Suggestion

Tai (Shan), Ahom, Phake, khamti and Tai Nue share quite close writing system and they are believed to have come from the same source. When times gone by, those writing have been developing to fit the modern need. The most important process that these writings underwent was modernization, i.e. to have enough symbols represented every single sound existed in the languages. The methods of modernizing may differ from one language to another. Therefore, a comparison of these modern writings is interesting to study.

As the Tai is the language is spoken all over the Shan state in general, there is no particular place is acknowledged as standard Tai (Shan). Different parts of the Shan State have their influence from different languages spoken in neighboring areas in different ways. For instance, the eastern Tai of KengTun g has major influence from Thai, while the southern Tai has more Burmese influence and northern Tai along china border has more influence from Chinese. Therefore, a comparative study of vocabulary comparative from all parts of the Tai language should be carried out in order to find foreign influences on the Tai language in modern day.

Researcher has studied only the feature of Tai Grammar of MuengNaung, Shan State, Republic of the Union of Myanmar. In the linguistic field, there are many aspects that should be studied, especially, the phonological system of consonants, vowels, tones, and syllables of Tai language because it will be useful for the persons interested and for those who are interested in studying more about Tai language. Some may get confused between Tai and Thai if it is studied the confusion will be clarified.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Anan Ganjanapan. *Sathanaphap kan wichai phatthanakan than sangkhom lae watthanatham thaiyai* (Research History, social Development, and Culture of the Thai Yai. In *Kan sueksa watthanatham choncaht tai* (The Study of Tai Culter). Pp. 7-17. Bangkok: Office of the National Culture Commission, Ministry of Education. (in Thai).1995.
- Akkhani Munmek. *Rat chan: prawattisat lae kan patiwat* (Shan State: History and Revolution). Bangkok: Matichon press. (in Thai).2005.
- Bigg-Wither, F. Major. *A Guide to the Study of Shan*. Rangoon: American Baptist Mission Press.1991.
- Backus, Charles. *The Nan-chao Kingdom and T'ang chian's southwestern Frontier*. Cambridge [Cambridgeshire]; New York: Cambridge University Press.1981.
- Banchop Phanthumetha. *Ka-le man tai nai rat chan* (A Trip to Tai Land in Shan Stae). Bangkok; Subcommittee for the Propagation of Thai Identity, National Identity Board, the Secretariat of the Prime Minister Office. (inThai).1983.
- Bunchuai Sisawat. *Khon thai nai phama* (Thais in Burma). Bangkok:Ramin Press. (in Thai).1960.
- Chamberlain, J. R. A new look at the history and classification of the Tai languages. In J.G. Harris and J.R. Chamberlain (ed.), *Studies in Tai Linguistics in Honor of William J. Gedney, 49-66*. Central Institute of English Language.1975.
- Cushing J.N. Rev. *Grammar of the Shan Language*. Rangoon: American Baptist Mission Press.1887.
- Chang, Yin-Tang. Anthropological Features of the Shans and Their Geographical Environment in South-West Yunnan. 1944. *Man* 44:61-68.
- Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic structures. (janua linguarum 4.) The Hague: Mouton. 1957.
- Cochrane, Wilbur W. The Northern Shan: A Brief Historical Account. In Leslie Milne, *Shans at Home*. London: John Murray.1910.
- Conway, Susan. *The Shan: Culture, Art and Crafts*. Bangkok: River Books.2006.

- De la Loubere, Simon. *The Kingdom of Siam*. Singapore: Singapore University Press. 1986.
- Durrenberger, Paul E. *Changes in a Shan Village. In Highlanders of Thailand*.
John McKinnon and Wanat Bhruksasri, eds. Kuala Lumpur: Oxford
University Press. 1983. pp. 112-122.
- Dodd, William C. *The Tai Race: Elder Brother of the Chinese*. Bangkok: White Lotus
Press. 1996.
- Dodd, William Clifton. *The Tai Race. First Edition*. Cedar Rapids, Iowa: The torch Press.
Reprinted in 1996, by Bangkok: White Lotus Co., Ltd. 1923.
- DeLancey, Scott. Toward a history of Tai classifier systems. In Craig, C. (ed) *Noun classes
and Categoriation*, 437-451. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins. 1986.
- Elias, Ney. *Introductory Sketch of the History of the Shan in Upper Burma and Western
Yunnan*. Calcutta: Foreign Department Press. 1876.
- Glick, Irving and Sao Tern Moeng. *Shan for English speakers: Dialogues, reading, and
vocabulary*. Wheaton: Dunwoody Press. 1991.
- Gedney, W. J. A Checklist for Determining Tones in Tai Dialects. In M. Estellie Smith
(ed.), *Studies in Linguistics in Honor of George L. Trager*. The Hague. 1972.
- Grimes, Joseph E. *The thread of discourse*. The Hague: Mouton. 1975.
- Hallet, Holt S. *Historical Sketch of the Shan. In Archibald Ross Colquhoun, Amongst the
Shans*. London: Field & Tuer. 1885.
- Hopper, Paul J. and Sandra A. Thompson. Transitivity in grammar and discourse. *Language* 56,
251- 299. 1980.
- Jaranya Thepphornbanchakit. A discourse analysis of the plot and profile of M.R. Kukrit
Pramote's short story "Mom". Chiang Mai: Payap University. M.A. thesis.
- Kham Mong, Sai. *The History and development of the Shan Scripts*. Chiang Mai: Silkworm
Books. 2004.
- Kher Sen. *Shan chronicle and Shan State history*. Thailand. 1999.
- Khur-yearn, J. A Short Introduction to Shan Sources. In *SCA_UK Newsletter Vol. II*. London. 2006.
- Lebar, Frank M. et. Al. *Ethnic groups of Mainland Southeast Asia*. New Haven: Human
Relations Area Files Press. 1964.

- Levinsohn, Stephen H. Participant reference in Inga narrative discourse, ed. By J, Hinds. Anaphora in discourse, 69-135, Edmonton: Linguistic Research Ina. 1978.
- Levinsohn, Stephen H. Textual connections in Acts. Atlanta: Scholars Press. 1987.
- Levinsohn, Stephen H. Discourse features of New Testament Greek: A course book. Dallas: Summer Institute of Linguistics. 1992.
- Levinsohn, Stephen H. Field procedures for the analysis of participant reference in a monologue discourse, ed. by Stephen H. Levinsohn. Discourse features of ten languages of West-Central Africa. Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics and University of Texas. 1994.
- Levinsohn, Stephen H. Analysis of narrative texts. Dallas: SIL International. 2003.
- Longacre, Robert E. Philippine languages: Discourse. Paragraph and sentence structure. Santa Anna, CA: Summer Institute of Linguistics. 1968.
- Longacre, Robert E. Hierarchy and universality of discourse constituents in New Guinea languages: Discussion. Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press. 1972.
- Longacre, Robert E. The Grammar of discourse. New York: Plenum. 1983.
- Longacre, Robert E. Discourse peak as zone of turbulence, ed. by Jessica R. Wirth. Beyond the sentence: Discourse and sentential form. Ann Arbor, MI: Karoma. 1985.
- Longacre, Robert E. Two hypotheses regarding text generation and analysis. Discourse Processes 12, 413-460. 1989.
- Longacre, Robert E. Storyline concerns and word-order typologies in East and West Africa. Studies in African linguistics, supplement 10. 1990.
- Longacre, Robert E. The grammar of discourse. Second edition. New York: Plenum Press. 1996.
- Longacre, Robert E. and Stephen H. Levinsohn. Field analysis of discourse. In Current trends in textlinguistics, ed. By Wolfgang U. Dressler. 103-122. Berlin: De Gruyter. 1978.
- Lewis, C. C. *The tribes of Burma: Ethnographical Survey of India*. No. 4. Rangoon: Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Burma. In Edmondson, Jerold A. and David B. Solnit. (1997). Comparative Shan. Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics and University of Texas. 1919.
- Li, Fang-Kuei. *A Handbook of Comparative Tai*. 2nd edition. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press. 1977.

- Milne, Leslie. *Shan at Home*. London: John Murray. 2001.
- Min Naing B.A. *Race of Burma*. Rangoon: Ministry of Union Culture. 1960.
- Orawan, Poo-Israkij. *The Phonology of Tai Yai at Amphoe Mae La Noi, Mae Hong son Province*. Master Thesis. Mahidol University. 1985.
- Patchance Thammawong. Multiple levels of significant discourse information in Thai short stories. Mahidol University: M.A. thesis. 1989.
- Person, Suzanne Renee. The story of Mea Laa: A discourse analysis of a Northern Thai life history in its cultural context. Chiang Mai: Payap University. M.A. thesis. 1998.
- Ruengdet, Pankhuenkhat. *The Phonology of the Lanna Language (A Northern Thai Dialect)*. Bangkok: Mahidol University. 1982.
- Schliesinger, Joachim. *Tai groups of Thailand*. Volume 2. Bangkok: White Lotus Co., Ltd. 2001.
- Saisom Thammathi. *Lai sak Thai Yai (Tai Taiioos)*. Unpublished MS, presented at the conference entitled *watthanatham chonchat tai: kansueksa kiaokap prawattisat sangkhom lae watthanatham tai yai*, Chiang Mai University, August 8-9. (in Thai). 1994.
- Saimong Mangrai, Sao. *The Shan States and the British Annexation*. Ithaca, New York: department of Asian studies, Cornell University. 1965.
- Sanders, Gerald A. On the natural domain of grammar. *Linguistics* 63, 51-123. 1970.
- Shan Orthography Commission. *Report of the Shan Orthography submitted to the Shan State Council*. Taunggyi. 1969.
- Scott, James George and John Percy Hardiman. *Gazetteer of Upper Burma and Shan states*. Pt. 1, Vol. 1. Rangoon: Superintendent of government Printing and Stationary. 1900-1901.
- Somphong Witthayasakphan. *Kan sueksa kiaokap phasa lae akson Thai Yai (Shan)* [The study of Thai Yai [Shan] language and alphabets]. In *Kan sueksa watthanatham chonchat tai* (The study of Tai Culture). Pp. 18-30. Bangkok: Office of the National Culture Commission, Ministry of Education. (in Thai). 1995.
- Somphong Witthayasakphan. *Prawattisat Thai Yai* (A Tai history). Bangkok: Sangsan Publishing, Co., Ltd. (in Thai). 2001.

- Somsong, Burusphat. The structure of Thai narrative. Texas: the University of Texas at Artington. Ph.D. Dissertation.1991.
- Tanabe, Shigeharu. *Religious Traditions among Tai ethnic Groups: A Selective Bibliography*. Bangkok: Ayutthaya Historical Study Centre.1991.
- Tzang Yawnghwe, Chao. *The Shan of Burma: Memoirs of a Shan Exile*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.1987.
- TernMoeng, Sao. *Shan- English dictionary*.Maryland: Dunwoody Press.1995.
- Wasan Panyagaew. *Moving Dai:Towards an Anthropology of People “Living in Place” In the Borderlands of the Upper Mekong*.Ph.D. dissertation, the Australian national University.2005.
- Winai Pongsripian. *Sathannaphap kan sueksa prawattisat thai* (History of the Tai People: A Critical Review).*In kan sueksa prawattisat lae wannakam khong klum chattiphan tai* (Studies of History and Literature of Tai Ethnic Groups). Sarassawadee Ongsakul and Yoshiyuki Masuhara,eds. Pp.29-55. Bangkok: Amarin Printing & Publishing. (in Thai).2002.
- Wirth, Jessica R. *Beyond the sentence: Discourse and sentential form*. Ann Arbor, MI: Karoma. (ed) 1985.
- Young, Linda Wai Ling. *Shan Chrestomathy: An Introduction to Tai Mau Language and Literature*.Berkeley: University of California.1985.
- Yos Santasombat. *Lak chang: kan sang mai khong attalak tai nai tai khong* (Lak Chang: A Reconstruction of Tai Identity in Daikong). Bangkok: Withithat Project. (in Thai). 2000.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

TAI ORTHOGRAPHY

Introduction

To a nation, a writing system is as important as the language they speak and the religion they believe. The Tai have their own writing system for hundreds of years. It is believed that Tai had developed their writing system from Devanagari. However, some believe that it may have derived from Mon which is believed to have come from Pallava scripts. Among the Tai family, the related writing to Tai is Tai Nur, Tai Khamti, Ahom and Phake scripts. The writing here is the new Tai writing system which was developed in 1949.

Tai words consist of at least three components and at most five components, initial consonant, vowel and tone as obligation and secondary consonant and final consonant are optional

1. Tai Consonants

Modern Tai writing or new Tai writing consists of 18 consonants³⁷, 11 vowels and 5 tones, unlike Thai and Burmese, which have more alphabets symbols than the actual sounds that existed in the languages.

³⁷Some Tai reader may give 19 alphabets of Tai with ɕ /f/ added, but it is only an allophone of ɕ /ph/ therefore, it is excluded here.

Tai 18 Consonants

ဂ	ခ	င
ဇ	ဆ	ရာ
တ	ထ	ခေ
ပ	ဖ	မ
ယ	ရ	လ
ဝ	ရှ	က

I. Initial Consonants

All Tai consonants appear at the initial position and their symbols remain unchanged when combine with vowel.

Symbol	/IPA/	Description
ဂ	/k/	as <i>k</i> in sky
ခ	/ kh /	as <i>k</i> in king
ရ	/ ŋ /	as <i>ng</i> in singer
ဇ	/ c /	as <i>g</i> in agent
ဆ	/ s /	as <i>s</i> in sing
ရာ	/ ʃ /	as <i>ny</i> in canyon
တ	/ t /	as <i>t</i> in star
ထ	/ th /	as <i>t</i> in tear
ခေ	/ n /	as <i>n</i> in nine
ပ	/ p /	as <i>p</i> in speak
ဖ	/ ph /	as <i>p</i> in peak
မ	/ m /	as <i>m</i> in man
ယ	/ j /	as <i>y</i> in yes
ရ	/ r /	as <i>r</i> in red
လ	/ l /	as <i>l</i> in love
ဝ	/ w /	as <i>w</i> in wing

ဟ	/ h /	as <i>h</i> in him
က	/ ? /	as <i>ain</i> ago

II. Secondary consonants

Out of 18 initial consonants, 3 of them can be secondary consonant or consonant clusters. Note that the 3 secondary consonants transform their forms when follow the initial consonants as given below:

Symbol	Transformed form	/IPA/	Example
က ~	-ည	/ kj- /	ကျ
ရှ ~	ြ / ြ	/ tr- /	ြး / ြး
ဝ ~	-	/ kw- /	ွ

III. Final Consonants

Out of 18 consonants, 8 of them appear as final consonants. These final consonants can be divided into two main groups: a) smooth syllable which ends with continuant consonants (-m, -n, -၅, -့, -w) and b) checked syllable which ends with checked consonants (-p, -t, -k). The final consonants are not released in Tai. They always mark with devowelizer sign (ꨀ).

a) Smooth syllable with continuant consonants

Symbol	/IPA/	Description	Example
မ (ꨀ / ꨁ)	/ -m /	as <i>m</i> in com	လမ် / လံꨀ
ခ (ꨀ / ꨁ)	/ -n /	as <i>n</i> in can	ခင်းꨀ
င (ꨀ)	/ -၅ /	as <i>ng</i> in sing	ပိုင်းꨀ
ဝ (ꨀ)	/ -w (u) /	as <i>w</i> in cow	ဝင်းꨀ
ရာ (ꨀ / ရာꨀ)	/ -j (i) /	as <i>ai</i> in Tai	တီးꨀ / တူရီးꨀ

b) Checked syllable checked consonants

Symbol	/IPA/	Description	Example
--------	-------	-------------	---------

ပ (ပိ)	/-p/	as <i>p</i> in cup	လမ်း
တ (တိ)	/-t/	as <i>t</i> in cut	တံး
ဂ (ဂိ)	/-k/	as <i>k</i> in back	လမ်း

2. Vowels

In Tai, there are 11 vowels, 10 monophthongs and 1 diphthong. Only /a, aa/ are distinctive in vowel length. When monophthongs were followed by the final consonant, their forms are changed. The transform forms are shown in blanket. The diphthong never appears with any final consonants. The positions of the Tai vowels added to an initial consonant appear at all directions, in front / ၉- ၉- /, at the back/ -| / on the top / ၀, ၆, ၉ / below/ ၇, ၈ / in front and back / ၉-| / below and above/ ၀, ၀, ၉ /.

a) Monophthongs

Symbol	Transformed form	/IPA/	Example
က ~	(-)	(no form)	/ a / ကခဲ
ကျ ~	(-)		/ a: / တျ / တာင်း
ကီ ~	(၀)		/ i / လီ / ရိခဲ
ကေ ~	(၆)		/ e / ပေး / ဝိင်း
ကော ~	(၉)		/ ε / ဧမး / လိင်း
ကူ ~	(၇)		/ u / ပူ / တုင်း
ကွပ် ~	(၈)		/ o / ဝုပ် / ဝုခဲ
ကျေ ~	(၉)		/ ɔ / ဧျ / ဧွမ်
ကိုပ် ~	(၀)		/ ʉ / တိုင်း / ပိုခဲ
ကိုပ် ~	(၀)		/ ə / သိုပ် / မိုင်း

b) Diphthong

ကို	(၀)	/ au /	သို / သမ်
-----	-----	--------	-----------

3. Tonemes

Tai is a tonal language and tones play an important role. Linguists use tonal splitting as one of the criteria in Tai dialects classification. There are five tones in the Tai language but only four marks are available.

	Symbol	Description	Example
Tone 1:	- (unmarked)	Rising tone	သွင် / သမ်
Tone 2:	-,	Low tone	သီ, / ပိတ်,
Tone 3:	-း	Mid tone	ခိုင်း / ရှး
Tone 4:	-း	High tone	ရှ်း / သိး
Tone 5:	-.	Falling tone	မ့ / လှ်.

4. Numerals

Tai count 10 digits number system. Each number has its own symbol. The superscript number at phonetic symbol represents a tonal mark.

Symbol	/IPA/	Description
၁	/nuŋ ³ /	1
□	/sɔŋ ¹ /	2
၂	/sa:m ¹ /	3
□	/si ² /	4
□	/ha: ³ /	5
၆	/hok ⁴ /	6
□	/cet ⁴ /	7
□	/pɛt ² /	8
□	/kaw ³ /	9
၁□	/sip ⁴ /	10

5. Punctuation

In Tai writing, there are only two punctuations.

- ┆ (one stroke) equivalent to comma (,) in English.
- || (two strokes) equivalent to full stop (.) in English.

6. Transcribed Consonants

When many foreign words are introduced to Tai, another 4 extra consonants are created for transcribing foreign sounds that do not exist in Tai.

Symbol	/IPA/	Description
ᄁ	/g/	as <i>g</i> in game
ᄂ	/b/	as <i>b</i> in boy
ᄃ	/d/	as <i>d</i> in do
□	/θ/	as <i>thin</i> thin

Conclusion

As a conclusion, I like to present the table of the combination of consonant, vowel and tone in Tai. Each box contains a Tai writing and its pronunciation transcribed in international phonetic alphabets (IPA). The first Tai alphabet ᄁ /k/ and tone 1 (unmarked tone) are used as an example, though tone 1 with final checked consonants are meaningless in Tai words (the last three rows). All the tones below are tone 1 therefore the superscript tone number will not be marked in phonetic description. The first 6 rows are open syllables and the last 3 rows are the checked syllables.

The Combination of Tai Consonant and vowel

V \ FC	-	-l	◌ _i	◌ _e	◌ _ɛ	◌ _ɪ	◌ _{ɪ̄}	◌ _o	◌ _{ɪ̄}	◌ _{ɪ̄}	◌ _{ɛ̄}
	/ a /	/ aa /	/ i /	/ e /	/ ɛ /	/ u /	/ o /	/ ɔ /	/ u /	/ ə /	/ au /
-	က /ka/	ကလ /kaa/	ကိ /ki/	ကေ /ke/	ကေ /kɛ/	ကူ /ku/	ကူဝ် /ko/	ကေ /kɔ/	ကိဝ် /kuw/	ကိဝ် /kə/	ကိဝ် /kau/
မ် /-m/	ကမ် /kam/	ကမ် /kaam/	ကိမ် /kim/	ကိမ် /kem/	ကိမ် /kɛm/	ကုမ် /kum/	ကုမ် /kom/	ကုမ် /kɔm/	ကိမ် /kuwm/	ကိမ် /kə/	
ခမ် /-n/	ကခမ် /kan/	ကခမ် /kaan/	ကိခမ် /kin/	ကိခမ် /ken/	ကိခမ် /kɛn/	ကုခမ် /kun/	ကုခမ် /kon/	ကုခမ် /kɔn/	ကိခမ် /kuwn/	ကိခမ် /kə/	
င် /-ŋ/	ကင် /kaŋ/	ကင် /kaaŋ/	ကိင် /kiŋ/	ကိင် /keŋ/	ကိင် /kɛŋ/	ကုင် /kuŋ/	ကုင် /koŋ/	ကုင် /kɔŋ/	ကိင် /kuŋ/	ကိင် /kəŋ/	
ဝ် /-w/	ကဝ် /kaw/	ကဝ် /kaaw/	ကိဝ် /kiw/	ကိဝ် /kew/	ကိဝ် /kɛw/						
့ /-j/	ကိ့ /kaj/	ကိ့ /kaaj/				ကု့ /kuj/	ကု့ /koj/	ကု့ /kɔj/	ကိ့ /kuj/	ကိ့ /kəj/	
ပ် /-p/	ကပ် /kap/	ကပ် /kaap/	ကိပ် /kip/	ကိပ် /kep/	ကိပ် /kɛp/	ကုပ် /kup/	ကုပ် /kop/	ကုပ် /kɔp/	ကိပ် /kup/	ကိပ် /kəp/	
တ် /-t/	ကတ် /kat/	ကတ် /kaat/	ကိတ် /kit/	ကိတ် /ket/	ကိတ် /kɛt/	ကုတ် /kut/	ကုတ် /kot/	ကုတ် /kɔt/	ကိတ် /kut/	ကိတ် /kət/	
က် /-k/	ကက် /kak/	ကက် /kaak/	ကိက် /kik/	ကိက် /kek/	ကိက် /kɛk/	ကုက် /kuk/	ကုက် /kok/	ကုက် /kɔk/	ကိက် /kuwk/	ကိက် /kək/	

V – Vowel

FC - Final Consonant

APPENDIX B

GLOSSARY

A

English	/IPA/	Tai
Afraid	/ko ¹ /	ဂူဝ်
Aim at	/ŋa:/	ငျ
Alms bowl	/sa ⁵ pit ³ /	သဝိတံး
Ant	/mot ⁵ /	မူတ်.
Area of house	/pɔk ⁵ /	ပွဂ်.
Arrange	/k ^h ap ⁵ /	ခပ်.
Arrest	/ti ⁵ /	တိ
Arrive	/p ^h ɛw ¹ /	ငီဝ်
Ash	/taw ³ /	တဝ်း
Ask	/t ^h a:m ¹ /	ထမ်
Asleep	/lap ⁴ /	လပ်း
Aunt	/ʔa: ¹ /	ကျ
Ax	/k ^h wa:n ¹ /	ခွာခင်

B

Back	/lanj ¹ /	လင်
Bag	/t ^h oŋ/	ထူင်
Banana	/koj ³ /	ဂူရ်း
Banyan tree	/ŋɔŋ/	ရွင်,
Barking deer	/p ^h a:n ⁴ /	ငါခင်း
Be even	/p ^h eŋ ² /	ငီင်.
Be mildewed	/sa: ⁴ /	သျး
Be of use	/k ^h la: ² /	ခြံ,
Be over	/wa:j ⁴ /	ဝိး

Be proof	/kat ⁵ /	ဂတ်.
Be still	/nim ¹ /	ခိမ်
Be very dignified	/sa ⁵ le ² jau ² /	သရေးယ့်,
Bear	/mi ¹ /	မီ
Beckon	/kwak ⁴ /	ခွန်း
Bed	/ku ² /	ဂူ,
Begin	/te ² /	တေ,
Bell	/hiŋ ² /	နှိင်,
Below	/tau ³ /	တုံး
Belt	/sa:i ¹ ha:ŋ ⁵ /	သိရှင်.
Bitter (in taste)	/k ^h om ¹ /	ခူမ်
Bitter melon	/ma:k ² ?a:ŋ ¹ k ^h a:ŋ ¹ /	မက်,ကင်ခင်
Black	/lam ¹ /	လမ်
Blaze	/ma:p ³ /	မပ်း
Blister	/kawu ³ /	ဦး
Blood	/læt ³ /	လှိုတ်း
Bloom	/ki ³ /	ဂီး
Blow away	/piw ¹ /	ပိပ်
Book	/pap ⁵ /	ပပ်.
Borrow	/ku ³ /	ဂူး
Bottle	/?om ¹ /	ကွမ်
Bow	/ka:ŋ ² /	ဂင်,
Box	/tək ³ /	တိုက်း
Breakfast	/k ^h aw ³ nau ¹ /	ခမ်းခဏ်
Brew	/k ^h u ² /	ခိုင်,
Bridle	/kak ⁵ /	ဂတ်.
Broke	/tək ² /	တိတ်,
Broken	/kəj ¹ /	ခွီ
Brush	/p ^h at ⁵ /	ပြတ်.
Buddha	/p ^h la: ⁴ /	ဗုဒ္ဓါး

Buffalo	/kwa:j ⁴ /	ဦး
Buffalo cart	/cət ³ /	လွတ်း
C		
Calculate	/twa:k ³ /	တွင်း
Candle	/ten ⁴ /	တီခင်း
Carry	/tɔ ⁵ /	တော့
Cast away	/wut ⁵ /	ပိုတ်
Cat	/mɛw ⁴ /	မိင်း
Ceiling	/tum ⁴ /	တိုမ်း
Change	/la:i ³ /	လှီး
Cheek	/kɛm ³ /	ဂိမ်း
Chin	/ka:ŋ ⁴ /	ဂင်း
Choose	/lək ³ /	လှိုင်း
Chopping board	/k ^h ɛŋ ¹ /	ခိုင်
Circular (at the center of the hair)	/k ^h wa:n ¹ /	ခွာခင်
Clear	/sau ¹ /	သင့်
Clever	/lɛt ¹ /	လီတင်း
Close	/ʔut ⁴ /	ကိုတ်း
Cloud	/mɔk ² kum ³ /	မွတ်,ဂုမ်း
Clump	/kɔ ¹ /	ဂေ
Coax	/k ^h ɔj ⁴ /	ချေး
Cold	/kat ⁴ /	ဂတ်း
Comb	/wi ¹ /	ဝီ
Come	/ma: ⁴ /	မား
Compensate	/sa:j ³ /	သှီး
Confuse	/kwaŋ ¹ /	ဂွင်
Continue	/sup ² /	သိုင်း
Cooked (in bamboo tube)	/la:m ¹ /	လာမ်
Copper	/tɔŋ ⁴ /	တွင်း

Cotton	/kuj ¹ /	ဂုရ်
Count	/nap ⁵ /	ခေပ်.
Country	/mæŋ ⁴ /	မိုင်း
Crab	/pu ¹ /	ပူ
Cradle	/ʔu ² /	ဂူ,
Crave	/təŋ ³ /	တွင်း
Craving desire	/jin ⁵ /	ယိခင်.
Crazy	/jəŋ ² /	ယွင်,
Crow	/ka: ¹ /	ဂျ
Cucumber	/tɛŋ ¹ /	တီင်
Cup	/kək ⁴ /	ဂွန်း
Curve	/kot ⁵ /	ဂူတ်.
Cut	/tɛp ⁴ /	တီမ်း

D

Day	/wan ⁴ /	ဝခင်း
Decant	/p ^h im ⁴ /	ငမိမ်း
Decrease	/jəm ⁴ /	ယွမ်း
Deep	/lu:k ⁵ /	လိုက်.
Deer	/kwa:ŋ ¹ /	ဂွင်
Desire	/k ^h au ³ /	ခွီး
Dhamma	/tla: ⁴ /	တြး
Difficult	/ja:p ² /	ယာပ်,
Dig	/k ^h ut ⁴ /	ခုတ်း
Dilute	/p ^h jə ² /	ပေချူ,
Dip	/kən ⁵ /	ဂွခင်.
Dirty	/k ^h ə ² /	ခေ,
Disease	/k ^h ə ⁵ /	ခေ.
Distribute	/cɛk ² /	ငီင်,
Dive (into pocket)	/cok ⁴ /	ထူင်း

Divide	/p ^h e ¹ /	ပေ
Doctrine	/tla: ⁴ /	တြး
Dog	/ma: ¹ /	မၢ
Don't go	/ʔm ² kwa: ² /	ကမ်,ဂွၢ
Donkey	/la: ⁴ /	လၢး
Door	/p ^h ak ⁴ tu ¹ /	ပေင်းတူ
Draw	/tut ⁵ /	တိုတ်.
Drum	/kəŋ ¹ /	ဂွင်
Dull	/nuuk ⁴ /	ခိုင်း

E

Ear	/hu ¹ /	ဂူ
early	/caw ⁵ /	လဝ်.
Earth	/liŋ ¹ məŋ ⁴ /	လိခင်ပိုင်း
Eat	/kin ¹ /	ဂိခင်
Elephant	/ca:ŋ ⁵ /	လၢင်.
Emerald	/mja ⁵ /	မျှ.
Empty	/p ^h a: ⁴ ŋ ⁴ /	ပေင်း
End	/sut ⁴ /	သုတ်း
Enemy	/k ^h en ¹ /	ခီခင်
Envelop	/t ^h oŋ ¹ lik ³ /	ထိုင်လိင်း
Escape	/lot ³ /	လွတ်း
Eye	/ta: ¹ /	တၢ

F

Face	/na: ³ /	ခေး
Fake	/pɔm ¹ /	ပွမ်
Familiar with	/ku ⁴ /	ဂိုင်း
Far	/kaj ¹ /	ဂိ
Farmer	/kon ⁴ het ⁴ na: ⁴ /	ဂူခင်းဂိုတ်းခေး

Father	/pɔ̃ ³ /	ပေး
Fathom	/wa:⁴/	ဝါး
Fear (being lonely)	/ŋɛw¹/	ငိုက်
Fear	/ko¹/	ပူပန်
Fever	/na:w¹/	ခအင်
Few	/ke²/	စေ့
Field	/toŋ³/	တူင်း
Fight	/tuuk⁴/	တိုက်
Fill in	/sau²/	သွံ့
Fire wood	/p ^h uɔ̃⁴/	ယိုခင်း
Fire	/p ^h aj⁴/	ယိုး
Firm	/kum⁴/	ရိုင်း
Fish	/pa:¹/	ပျ
Fish trap	/saj⁴/	သီး
Five	/ha³/	ရှိုး
Flag	/tuŋ⁴/	တုင်း
Flatten thing	/kɛp⁴/	နိပ်
Flat	/p ^h ɛp⁵/	ယိပ်
Flea	/mat⁴/	မတ်း
Flow	/laj¹/	လံ
Flower	/mɔk²/	မွှ်
Flute	/pi²/	ပီ
Fog	/moj¹/	မူရ်
Foliage	/p ^h ə¹/	ယိုက်
Follow after	/luɔ̃³/	လိုင်း
Forest	/t ^h ən²/	ထိုခင်း
Four <i>kyats</i>	/toŋ²/	တွင်
Frame	/ka:ŋ⁵/	ဂင်
Frighten	/lɔk²/	လွှ်
Fruit	/ma:k²/	မာ်

Full	/tem ¹ /	တိမ်
G		
Garden	/son ¹ /	သူခင်း
Gardener's trowel	/ŋɔŋ ⁴ /	ငွင်း
Give	/pan ¹ /	ပခင်း
Go	/kwa: ² /	ဤ
Goat	/pɛ ⁵ /	ဧပ.
Gold	/k ^h am ⁴ /	ခမ်း
Good	/li ¹ /	လီ
Goods	/k ^h o ⁴ /	ရှင်း
Grab	/ŋɔp ⁴ /	ရွှမ်း
Grasp (the throat)	/ŋɛt ⁵ /	ငိတ်.
Grasp	/ŋam ¹ /	ခမ်
Grass	/ja: ³ /	ယား
Grip as chop sticks	/ŋip ³ /	ငိမ်း
Guest	/k ^h ɛk ² /	ခိတ်,
H		
Hand fan	/wi: ⁴ /	ဝီး
Hand	/mu ⁴ /	မိုင်း
Hang up	/hɔj ³ /	ရှိုး
Happy	/kjo ² /	ကျော်
Hard	/kɛn ² /	ဂီခင်း,
Harden	/ka:m ³ /	ဂမ်း
Hate	/caŋ ⁴ /	လင်း
He	/man ⁴ /	မခင်း
Hear	/jin ⁴ /	ယိခင်း
Heavy	/nak ⁴ /	ခင်း
Help	/cɔj ³ /	လွိုး

Hen	/kaj ² /	ဂိ၊
Here	/naj ³ /	ခင်း
Hermit	/caw ³ .ja ⁵ se ⁴ /	ထင်းရသေး
High	/suŋ ¹ /	သုင်
Himalayas forest	/t ^h ən ² p ^h a ⁵ sa ³ m ¹ heŋ ¹ /	ထိုခင်း၊ ဗဟိုသမ္မတနိုင်ငံ
Hook	/k ^h ɔ ¹ /	ခေါ
Horse	/ma ⁵ /	မာ၊
How	/cəŋ ⁵ hu ¹ /	လှိုင်း-ရှိုင်း
Hurry	/hip ³ /	ရှိုင်း
Husband	/p ^h o ¹ /	ယှော်
Husk	/kɛp ² /	ဂိတ်၊

I

I, me	/kaw ¹ /	ဂတ်
Ill	/na:w ¹ /	ခတ်
Incline	/kəŋ ⁴ /	ရှိုင်း
Industrious	/kaj ⁵ /	ဂိ၊
Inside	/nau ⁴ /	ခင်း
Intellect	/ŋa:n ² /	ရားခင်း
Iron	/lek ⁴ /	လိတ်

J

Jump	/wɛk ¹ /	ပိတ်
------	---------------------	------

K

Knee	/k ^h aw ² /	ခတ်
Knife	/mit ³ /	မိတ်

L

Large	/jau ² /	ယှော်
-------	---------------------	-------

Language	/kwa:m ⁴ /	စွမ်း
Late	/la: ³ /	လား
Laugh	/k ^h o ¹ /	ရဲ့
Lead	/cuun ⁴ /	လိုင်း
Leaf	/təŋ ¹ /	တွင်
Left	/sa:j ⁵ /	သို့
Leg	/k ^h a: ¹ /	ချ
Letter	/lik ³ /	လိမ်း
Light	/leŋ ⁴ /	လိင်း
Light	/waw ¹ /	ဝင်
Lighten	/taj ³ /	တီး
Like	/kjək ³ /	ရိုက်
Line	/t ^h ɛw ¹ /	ထိပ်
List	/sen ³ ma:j ¹ /	သိမ်းမိ
Listen	/t ^h əm ² /	ထွမ်း
Liver	/tap ⁴ /	တမ်း
Log	/tum ¹ /	တုမ်
Long	/ja:w ⁴ /	ယမ်း
Look	/toj ⁴ /	တူရ်
Look for	/ha: ¹ /	ရှာ

M

Mad	/jəŋ ² /	ယွင်
Mark	/ma:j ¹ /	မိ
Mat	/sa:t ² /	သတ်
Medicine	/ja: ¹ /	ယာ
Meet	/t ^h op ⁴ /	ထွမ်း
Mind	/cau ¹ /	လွှဲ
Miss	/kla:t ³ /	ကြမ်း

Monastery	/kjoŋ ⁴ /	ရွှင်း
Money	/ŋuun ⁴ /	ငွေခင်း
Monkey	/liŋ ⁴ /	လိင်း
Moon	/lən ¹ /	လှိုင်း
Morning	/caw ⁵ /	ထင်
Mosquito	/juŋ ⁴ /	ယုင်း
mosquito net	/sut ⁴ /	သုတ်း
Mother	/mɛ ³ /	မေ
Mountain	/lɔj ¹ /	လွဲ
Mouse	/nu ¹ /	ခူ
Mud	/kom ² /	ဂူမ်

N

Name	/cu ³ /	ငိုင်း
Narrate	/k ^h aj ³ /	ခီး
Narrow	/kɛp ³ /	ဂိုင်း
Nature	/sa ⁵ p ^h ɔ ⁴ /	သလေး
Neck	/k ^h ɔ ⁴ /	ချေး
Necklace	/sa:j ¹ k ^h ɔ ⁴ /	သီးချေး
Needle	/k ^h em ¹ /	ခိမ်
New	/mau ² /	မူး
News	/k ^h a:w ² /	ခက်
Nine	/kaw ³ /	ဂင်း
Noble	/mjɛt ³ /	မျိုတ်း

O

Old	/kɛ ² /	ခဂ
One	/nuuŋ ³ /	ခိုင်
Onehundred	/pa:k ² /	ပက်
Open	/puut ² /	ပိုတ်

Owl	/kaw ⁵ /	ဂင်.
Ox	/wo ⁴ /	ဂူဝ်း
P		
Packet	/hɔ ² /	ရှေ့,
Paddy field	/na: ⁴ /	ခေး
Pain	/cep ⁴ /	လိပ်း
Pair	/kop ⁵ /	ဂူပ်.
Paper	/ce ³ /	လေး
Pear	/ma:k ² ko ³ kap ⁴ /	မာဂ်ဂေးဂပ်း
Peel	/pɔk ² /	ပွတ်,
Pick	/kep ⁴ /	ဂိပ်း
Pinch	/jak ⁴ /	ယက်း
Plant	/sɔm ³ /	သွမ်း
Plough	/t ^h aj ¹ /	ထိ
Poison	/ŋon ⁵ /	ဂူခင်.
Poor (quality)	/na:m ⁵ /	ရားမံ.
Port	/ta: ³ /	တား
Post	/lak ⁴ /	လက်း
Pot	/mɔ ³ /	မေး
Pour out	/t ^h ɔk ² /	ထွတ်,
Practice	/kja:ŋ ⁵ /	ဂျင်.
Pregnant	/ma:n ⁴ /	မာခင်း
Press	/mip ² /	မိပ်,
Pull down	/cɔŋ ² /	ထွင်,
pull out	/t ^h ɔn ¹ /	ထွခင်
Pull	/can ¹ /	လခင်
Pure	/sau ¹ /	သွံ,

Q

Quite	/tɛ ² /	တီတ်,
-------	--------------------	-------

R

Rain	/p ^h on ¹ /	ယူခင်း
Raw	/lip ⁴ /	လိပ်း
Real	/tɛ ⁵ /	စတ.
Record	/ʔa:t ⁴ /	ကာတ်း
Remember	/tɔŋ ⁴ /	တွင်း
Return	/k ^h uən ⁴ /	ခိုခင်း
Reverse	/k ^h uən ¹ /	ခိုခင်း
Rice	/k ^h aw ³ /	ခပ်း
Rich man	/kon ⁴ sa ⁵ t ^h e ⁴ /	ဂူခင်းသထေး
Ride	/k ^h i ² /	ခီ,
Right side	/k ^h wa: ¹ /	ချို
Right	/cau ³ /	လှိုင်း
Rim	/k ^h ɔp ² /	ခွပ်,
Roast	/la:m ¹ /	လာမ်
Roll	/ken ² /	ဂီခင်း,
Root	/ha:k ³ /	ရှက်း
Rotten	/nau ³ /	ခင်း
Rough	/ca: ⁴ /	တး
Row (a raft)	/t ^h ɔ ² /	ထေး,

S

Sacred (where spirit dwells)	/sa ⁵ məŋ ⁴ /	သမိုင်း
Salad	/sa: ³ /	သး
Salt	/kə ¹ /	ဂိုဝ်
Salvation	/k ^h ɔt ³ /	ချွတ်း

Sand	/sa:j ⁴ /	သံး
Say	/wa:³/	ဝား
Scatter	/wa:n ² /	ဝါခင်,
Scold	/t ^h ət ⁴ /	တိုတ်း
Scream	/sɛn ² /	သီခင်,
Search	/ha:¹/	ရှာ
Seed	/mɔn ⁴ /	မွခင်း
Sesame	/ŋa:⁴/	ငူး
Sew	/jep ⁵ /	ယိပ်.
Shade	/hom ³ /	ရှမ်း
Shake	/sa:j ² /	သိး
Shan hat	/kup ⁴ /	ဂုပ်း
Shan paper	/sa:¹/	သျ
Shan	/taj ⁴ /	တီး
Sharp	/p ^h a:j ¹ /	ငါ
Shave	/t ^h a:¹/	ထျ
Sheath of the large bamboo	/ka:p ² /	ဂပ်,
Shirt	/sə ³ /	သိုင်း
Short (height)	/pɔk ⁴ /	ပွန်း
Short (period)	/kɛp ⁵ /	နိပ်.
Short cut	/lat ⁴ /	လတ်း
Shoulder	/ma ² /	မား
Show	/nɛ¹/	ခခေ
Shrink	/hot ⁴ /	ရှုတ်း
Side of the body	/pem ⁵ /	ပိမ်.
Similar	/ŋa:j ⁴ /	တီး
Size	/sɛn ⁴ /	သီခင်း
Skillful	/lɛn ² /	လီခင်,
Skin	/naŋ ¹ /	ခင်
Sky	/p ^h a ⁵ /	ငါး

Sleep	/lap ⁴ /	လမ်း
Slice	/t ^h ɛ ¹ /	ထိုင်
Slim	/se ⁴ /	သေး
Slip	/pla:t ³ /	ပြတ်း
Small	/nɔj ⁵ /	ခွဲ
Smoke	/kwan ⁴ /	စွမ်း
Smooth	/lɛm ³ /	လှိုင်း
Soak (in liquid)	/ma: ² /	မာ
Soft	/non ⁴ /	ခနေ
Solid	/tan ¹ /	တခင်း
Soul	/k ^h wan ¹ /	ခွမ်း
Sound of buffalo	/ŋwa ⁵ /	ငါ
Sound	/sen ¹ /	သံ
Soya bean	/tho ² nau ³ /	ထုပ်,ခင်း
Speak	/la:t ³ /	လား
Spend money	/ca:j ² /	ငါး
Spicy hot	/p ^h et ⁴ /	ငါး
Spirit	/p ^h i ¹ /	ငါး
Spoon	/cɔ ⁵ /	လှေ
Stand	/cuk ⁴ /	ထုတ်း
Star	/la:w ¹ /	လား
Steam	/ka:n ³ /	ဂါး
Sticky	/new ¹ /	ခင်း
Stink	/men ¹ /	မိမ်း
Stomach	/tɔŋ ⁵ /	တွင်း
Stop	/kwt ⁴ /	ဂိုတ်း
Straw	/p ^h əŋ ⁴ /	ယိုင်း
Stretch out	/ju:t ⁴ /	ယိုတ်း
Strike	/ti ¹ /	တီ
Stubborn	/tu ¹ /	တိုင်

Sugar cane	/ʔəj ³ /	ကွဲး
Suitable	/kuŋ ² /	ရိုင်း
Support	/kam ⁵ /	ဝမ်း
Swallow	/ʔuŋ ¹ /	ကိုခင်း
Swim	/luj ⁴ /	လှမ်း
Swing	/kwj ¹ /	ခွံ
Sword	/lɛw ⁴ /	လိင်း
Syllable	/k ^h ɔ ³ /	ခေး

T

Tail	/ha:ŋ ¹ /	ရှာင်
Talk	/ʔup ² /	ကုပ်
Teacher	/k ^h u ⁴ /	ရှူး
Tear	/sik ² /	သိင်
Tell	/la:t ³ /	လာတ်း
Temple	/kjoŋ ⁴ /	ရွှင်း
Tense	/k ^h ɛŋ ³ /	ခိင်း
Thick blanket	/p ^h a: ³ hom ² puk ⁴ /	ပေးရှမ်းပုန်း
Thick	/na: ¹ /	ခေ
This	/naj ⁵ /	ခဲ
Through away	/pɛt ³ /	ပိတ်း
Ticket	/mau ¹ /	မို့
Tiger	/sə ¹ /	သိုဝ်
Tight	/kap ⁵ /	ဝပ်
Tighten	/k ^h ɛŋ ³ /	ခိင်း
Tired	/hə ⁵ /	ရှိုင်း
Top	/pa:j ¹ /	ဟံ
Town	/weŋ ⁴ /	ဝိင်း
Trade	/ka: ⁵ /	ဂျ

Transude	/cuum ⁴ /	ထိုမ်း
Trap	/hew ⁵ /	နှိပ်
True	/cau ³ /	လှီး
Tuft	/juj ³ /	ယွီး
Twenty	/sa:w ⁴ /	သား

U

Uncle	/ʔa: ¹ /	ကျ
Unite	/p ^h om ⁵ /	ပွမ်း
Unlucky	/kɛn ¹ /	ဂိခ်
Upside down	/k ^h wam ³ /	ခွမ်း
Use	/cau ⁵ /	လှီး

V

Vacant	/lip ⁴ /	လိမ်း
Village	/wa:n ³ /	ဝါခ်
Violin	/ta ⁵ lɔ ⁴ /	တြေး
Violinist	/mɔ ¹ ta ⁵ lɔ ⁴ /	မောတြေး
Visit	/cau ⁴ /	လှီး

W

Waist	/ʔɛw ¹ /	ဂိပ်
Wait	/t ^h a: ³ /	ထူး
Walk backward	/hon ¹ /	ဂူခ်
Wall	/p ^h a: ¹ /	ယေ
Warm	/ʔun ² /	ကုခ်
Water	/nam ⁵ /	ခမ်း
We	/ha: ⁴ /	ရှူး
Weak	/ʔon ³ /	ကူခ်
Wear	/nuŋ ³ /	ခင်း

Wet	/jam ⁴ /	ယမ်း
Where	/lau ¹ /	လှံ
White	/k ^h a:w ¹ /	စာင်
Who	/p ^h au ¹ /	ပုၣ်
Wide	/ka:wŋ ³ /	ဂွင်း
Widen	/k ^h a:wk ³ /	ခွင်း
Widow	/ma:j ³ /	မီး
Wilt	/hew ² /	နှိပ်,
Wing	/pik ² /	ပိပ်,
Wood	/maj ⁵ /	မိ.
Worm	/nɔn ¹ /	ခွေခွေ
Wrestle	/kan ⁵ /	ဂခင်.
Write	/tɛm ³ /	တီမ်း
Writer	/ca ⁵ le ⁴ /	တရေး

Y

Yard	/la: ¹ /	လာ
Year	/pi ¹ /	ပီ
Yoke	/ʔɛk ² /	ကိုက်,
You (both)	/k ^h ə ¹ /	နှိုက်
You	/mau ⁴ /	မူး
Young unmarried man	/ma:w ² /	မာပ်,
Younger sibling	/nɔŋ ⁵ /	ခွေင်.

BIOGRAPHY OF RESEARCHER

Name : Phra Nawkham Narada

Date of birth : 5th Jan 1980

Date of ordination :

1990 Novice ordination: At the age of 10 years,
At Wat Naung Tao, Mueng Naung, Shan State, Republic of the
Union of Myanmar.

2000 Higher full ordination: At the age of 20 years, at Wat
Maisoongtairat, Hsai Leng, Mueng Su, Shan State, Republic of
the Union of Myanmar.

Nationality : Myanmar.

Present Address : Wat Samngam, Moo 8, Tambon Lam Pho, Amphoe Bang
Bua Thong, Nonthapuri, 11110 Thailand.

Education background:

2013-2014 :At the present, studying in Master of Arts in English (Inter-
program), Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University, Wat
Srisudaram, Bangkok, Thailand.

2008- 2012 :Graduated Bachelor's degree, Faculty of Humanities, major in
English, MCU.Wangnoi, Ayutthaya, Thailand.

2000 - 2005 :Finished high school level and Dhamma Scholar, advanced
level from Dhammodaya Monastery, Lanmaday, Yangon,
Myanmar.

Work Experience

2008 - 2014 :Volunteer worker of novice ordination project of Wat
Sanngam, Bangbuathong, Nonthapuri, Thailand, 11110