A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SHAN AND STANDARD THAI MORPHOLOGY

Kittisara

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts (Linguistics)

Graduate School Mahachulalongkornrajavidayalaya University

C.E. 2018
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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to explore the comparative study of Shan and standard Thai Morphology. The objectives of the study are classified into three parts as the following; (1) To study morpheme of Shan and standard Thai, (2) To study the word-formation of Shan and standard Thai and (3) To compare the morpheme and word-classes of Shan and standard Thai.

This research is the qualitative research. The population referred to this research, researcher selects Shan people who were born at Tachileik in Shan state consisting of 6 persons. Area of research is Shan people at Tachileik in Shan state union of Myanmar. Research method, the tool used in the research, the researcher makes interview and document research.

The main important parts in this study based on content analysis as documentary research by selecting primary sources from the books, academic books, Shan dictionary, Thai dictionary, library, online research and the research studied from informants' native speakers for 6 persons. The documentary Shan dialect data had been used for interviewing by way of qualitative methods linguistics.

The results of the research as:

The study of comparative Shan and standard Thai morphology. There were simple forms and compound forms and they can be classified based on Shan and standard Thai in two types, the morpheme refers to study of monomorphemic and
polymorphemic forms such as composite forms, prefix-derived forms, suffix-derived forms, reduplicated forms and rhyming forms.

The compound word of Shan and standard Thai is divided into four main types; nominalization compound, class term compound, word class compound and semantic compound.

The word-classes of Shan and standard Thai as a part of speech that are considered to be noun, pronoun, adjectives, numerals, verbs, adverb, prepositions, conjunction, interjection and final particles.
Acknowledgements

As the researcher, I wish to express my heartfelt gratitude and sincere thanks to those who have contributed to my progress over the past years. This study would have never been completed without the support and encouragement of the many people involved. I would like to express my sincere gratitude and greatest appreciation to Asst. Prof. Dr. Veerakarn Kanokkhamalade, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ruengdej Pankhuenkhat, Dr. Samorn Ketsom for their valuable advice and guidance in various ways to do this thesis.

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List of Abbreviations and Symbols

S = Shan
T = Thai
ST = Standard Thai
IPA = International Phonetic Association
etc. = et cetera
( ) = Optional
// = Phonemic Transcription
! = Exclamation Mark
- = Dash or hyphen
. = Period Full Stop
: = Vowel length (used after a vowel)
"or" = Quotation Marks
' = Comma
1 = Middle Tone
2 = Low Tone
3 = Falling Tone
4 = High Tone
5 = Rising Tone
Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Background and Significance of the Problems

As we all know, language and humankind are inseparable. One cannot imagine a full-fleshed human being unfurnished with speech, devoid of a means of communication of thought to other human beings. So, Shan also has own language and literature. Many words of Shan and standard Thai have more similar word and difference. Then in the research will be going to compare the word of Shan and Thai each other.

Shan or Tai Language belongs to the Shan family, local and this language is also called Tai. This group of the people call themselves “Tai” often adding the name of the village or local group.\(^1\) Shan is the language of Shan State, in Myanmar. It is in the Southwestern branch of the Tai family with 3,295,000 speakers of which approximately 150,000 are located in Northern Thailand. Shan is one of the largest national ethnic groups in Myanmar and one of the largest Tai speaking groups. Under the name Shan there are at least three distinguishable groups Tai Khamti, Southern Shan, and Northern Shan. Though outsiders typically use the name Shan, they usually refer to themselves as “Tai” with a secondary qualifying name that may come from the color of their costumes, or the places where they live. Tai Dang “Red Tai”, Tai Nua “Northern Tai”. Dates for the Tai migration into Myanmar go back as far as the 12\(^{th}\) century CE, when the Burma called these people “Shan”.\(^2\)

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The name seeming to be a corruption of “Siam”, with the lists of “Syam” slaves occurring in inscriptions dating back to 1120 CE in the ancient city of Bagan. During British colonial rule of Myanmar in the late 19th century, writings about Shan peoples started to be published for western audiences. The earliest work on the Shan language starts with Rev. J. N. Cushing who published Grammar of the Shan Language and Shan-English dictionary. His work presents the Shan language in an older writing system. Early Shan scripts are thought to have developed from Burmese, yet due to natural geographic barriers various Shan groups ended up developing different scripts. As recent as 1975, Shan scripts have continued to go through various reforms. But today the script based on the dialect of the “Tai Long” who inhabit southern Shan state and make up the majority of Shan people has become a standard vernacular for different Shan groups. It can be found used in popular media and music as well as for purposes of promoting a national Shan identity.\(^3\)

Shan dialects spoken in Shan State can be divided into three groups, roughly coinciding with geographical and modern administrative boundaries, namely the northern, southern, and eastern dialects. Dialects differ to a certain extent in vocabulary and pronunciation, but are generally mutually intelligible. While the southern dialect has borrowed more Burmese words, Eastern Shan is somewhat closer to northern Thai languages and Lao in vocabulary and pronunciation, and the northern so-called "Chinese Shan" is much influenced by the Yunnan-Chinese dialect.

Shan script is characterized by its circular letters, which are very similar to those of the Mon script. The old Shan script used until the 1960 did not differentiate all vowels and diphthongs and had only one tone marker, and a single form could represent up to 15 sounds. Only the well-trained were able to read Shan. This has been fixed, making the modern Shan alphabet easy to read, with all tones indicated

unambiguously. The standard Shan script is an abugida, all letters having an inherent vowel. Vowels are represented in the form of diacritics placed around the consonants.\(^4\)

Shan alphabet is much less complex than the Thai one and lacks the notions of high-class, mid-class and low-class consonants, distinctions which help the Thai alphabet to number some 44 consonants. Shan has only 19 consonants, and all tones are clearly indicated with unambiguous tonal markers at the end of the syllable (in the absence of any marker, the default is the rising tone). The number of consonants in a textbook may vary: there are 19 universally accepted Shan consonants and five more which represent sounds not found in Shan, g, z, b, d and th as in "thin". These five are quite rare. In addition, most editors include a dummy consonant used to support leading vowels. A textbook may therefore present 18-24 consonants. The representation of the vowels depends partly on whether the syllable has a final consonant.\(^5\)

Thai (formerly called ‘Siamese’) is a member of the Tai family of languages which are spoken by an estimated 70 million people dispersed over a wide area of Asia, from northern Vietnam to northern India. Thai, with nearly 50 million first-language speakers, is the most important language in the Tai family, which also includes Lao, Shan (spoken in northern Burma) and some 15 million speakers in southwestern China. Despite common structural features, even closely related Tai languages are often mutually unintelligible because of phonological and lexical differences. Tai speakers were once thought to have originated from China and migrated southwards, but today the border area between northern Vietnam and China’s Guangxi province is regarded as a more likely origin. From the eighth century AD Tai speakers began to migrate westwards and southwestwards into what is present-day Thailand.\(^6\)


Thai, which is sometimes referred to as Siamese, is part of the Tai language family. The languages in this family belong to the much larger Austric language group. The spoken language is believed to have originated in the area which is now the border between Vietnam and China, an idea which provides clues to the origin of the Thai people, an area of continued academic debate. Thai house the written Thai Language was introduced by the third Sukothai period king, Ramkamhaeng, in 1283. This writing system has undergone little change since its introduction, so inscriptions from the Sukothai era can be read by modern Thai readers. The writing was based on Pali, Sanskrit, and Indian concepts, and many Mon and Khmer words entered the language.

Within Thailand, there are four major dialects, corresponding to the southern, northern, north-eastern, and central regions of the country; the latter is called Central Thai or Bangkok Thai and is taught in all schools, is used for most television broadcasts, and is widely understood in all regions. There are a few minor Thai dialects such as Phuan and Lue, spoken by small populations. Also, within Thailand, small ethnic minority groups account for around sixty languages which are not considered related to Thai. The four primary dialects of Thai should not be confused with four different “languages” used by Thais in different social circumstances. For example, certain words are used only by Thai royalty, creating a royal language.

The Thai alphabet uses forty-four consonants and fifteen basic vowel characters. These are horizontally placed, left to right, with no intervening space, to form syllables, words, and sentences. Vowels are written above, below, before, or after the consonant they modify, although the consonant always sounds first when the syllable is spoken. The vowel characters can be combined in various ways to produce numerous compound vowels. Unlike the Chinese language, the system is alphabetic, so pronunciation of a word is independent of its meaning.

On the other hand, Thai is tonal, like Chinese and unlike English. This means that each word has a certain pitch characteristic with which it must be spoken to be properly understood. The Thai language uses five tones, called mid, low, high,
rising, and falling. The grammar of the Thai language is considerably simpler than the ones in Western languages. Most significantly, words are not modified or conjugated for tenses, plurals, genders, or subject-verb agreement. Articles such as “a”, “an”, or “the” are also not used. Tenses, levels of politeness, verb-to-noun conversion, and other language concepts are accomplished with the simple addition of various modifying words to the basic subject-verb-object format. The literature or language in Shan and Thai, even we are the same member but nowadays, the word of meanings, word of pronounce have more different and similar words.

In Shan state before we used to have our own textbook that we used to teach in Shan monasteries or private tuition but we never had the chance to use it in government schools. Now the government will allow Shan-language teaching in schools so we must have a good quality textbook. Then, this research paper also be for young generation to know the words of Shan and language.

The main problems of Shan nowadays most Shan children cannot speak, read or write their own language. Not only children but some adult also can not speak, read and write. So, in Shan state now, there will be many benefits from the government’s decision to allow ethnic groups to teach their languages in their own regions. For example, when students know their own language very well, they will be more willing to learn other languages as well.

Therefore, in this research work will be the language spoken by Shan people at Tachileik in Shan state union of Myanmar. It is the administrative seat of Tachileik township and Tachileik district in Shan state union of Myanmar bordering of Thailand. Shan people in Tachileik can understand Thai better, because of there is a lot of Thai media, Thai shop, Thai book and magazines in Thai as well. Regarding to the language family of Shan belong to a Tai-Kadai. The Shan word and Thai word are having similarly and different. We know that knowing a word means the sounds and meanings, both of language aspects are necessary for the same sounds but some

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meaning different, then sometime words of sound different but have same or nearly the same meanings in Shan and standard Thai.

So, the purpose of this research is to strengthen the connection between Shan and standard Thai as the Shan historical facets claim. Any comparative study attempts to find out the similarities and dissimilarities or regarding objects. Here the endeavor is to discover the similarities and dissimilarities of Shan and standard Thai morphology. Therefore, this study is an analytical study. It will analyze the Shan and standard Thai in morphology. Overall, through the comparisons of morphological each morphemes, word-formation and word-classes of the results here detail a clearer how Shan and Thai differ in respect to high-frequency word structure markers, but also highlight factors pertinent to each language’s historical development, as well as provide a context and questions for further research. The main focus of this study includes: morpheme, word formation, word classes and some important words indicates Shan and standard Thai close relationship etc.

For my research criteria the former language family is more important than the later one. Shan is to be under the Tai-Kadai family. To support this notion, it is necessary to go back to the past history of Shan nation through their ancient literatures including legendary, religious scriptures, historical poems and so on. The origin of the word "Shan" is obscure as is the origin of the word "Siam used for the Thai people in Thailand. The term of Shan is also referring to the Tai or Tai long and so on. Even from the cultural and religious points of view and language, the Shan and Thai are closely akin to each other.

However, this research work will be guideline significant for further study Shan and standard Thai, how the words of different and the history Shan. It could be very important to productively continue the study of Shan language and Shan origin

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words. Therefore, the researcher will try to examine and focus on Shan dialect spoken at Tachileik in Shan state union of Myanmar. Scientifically, because this topic has never been studied by anyone before. Therefore, the researcher hopes this study will be beneficial for linguistic field of Shan and standard Thai studies as well.

1.2 Objectives of the Research

The main purposes of this study are:

1.2.1 To Study the Morpheme of Shan and Standard Thai.
1.2.2 To Study the Word-formation of Shan and Standard Thai.
1.2.3 To Compare the Morphemes and Word-classes of Shan and Standard Thai.

1.3 Statements of the Research Question

1.3.1 What is the Morphemes of Shan and Standard Thai?
1.3.2 How is the Word-formation of Shan and Standard Thai?
1.3.3 What are the Word-classes of Shan and Standard Thai?

1.4 Scope of the Research

The scope of comparative morphology of Shan and Standard Thai is as follows:

1.4.1 Scope of Content: The contents consist of morphemes, word-formations and word-classes.

1.4.2 Scope of Place: The scope the place focuses on Tachileik in Shan state union of Myanmar.

1.4.3 Scope of Time: The scope of time focuses on taking time to study within in September to February 2018.

1.5 Definition of the Terms Used in the Research

1.5.1 Shan: It is the language which is spoken by the Shan people.
1.5.2 Standard Thai: It refers to the Thai language which is use in Thailand.
1.5.3 Morpheme: It refers to study the monomorphemic word and polymorphemic word of morphemes.
1.5.4 Word-Formation: It refers to study the compound word and how many ways they can be formed.

1.5.5 Word-Classes: It means the word classes of the Shan dialect spoken such as a part of speech, particles.

1.6 Expected Benefits

1.6.1 Knowing the morphemes of Shan and standard Thai.
1.6.2 Knowing the word-formation of Shan and standard Thai.
1.6.3 Knowing the comparative morpheme and word-classes of Shan and standard Thai.
Chapter II

Literature Review and Research Words Concerned

In this chapter is general information about Shan and standard Thai morphology. That will be research, covering a brief review of Shan and standard Thai as follows:

2.1 Morphology
2.2 Morphological Forms
2.3 Research Works Concerned

2.1 Morphology

The Concept and Theory of Morphology

Morphology is the study of morphemes and combination of morphemes to form words. The smallest part of expression associated with a unit of meaning is the morpheme.\(^1\) The rules understood by a speaker reflects specific patterns or regularities in the way of words formed from smaller units in the language they are using, and how those smaller units interact in speech. In this way, morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies patterns of word formation within and across languages and attempts to formulate rules that model the knowledge of the speakers of those languages.\(^2\)

There is no inflectional morphology at all in Shan and standard Thai. Nouns, verbs, and adjectives do not inflect, nor does any other part of speech. In cases where inflection would communicate essential information, such as number

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or tense, additional words are used to convey that information. For example, "I walk already" would be the Thai equivalent of "I walked". The words of Shan and Thai can be produced from other words by several derivational processes like morpheme, word-formation and word-classes.

2.2 Morphology Forms

2.2.1 Kind of Shan Morphology Forms

Aggasena Lengtai said as Shan monosyllabic language and its morphological methods are done with nominalization, compounding, reduplication and expressive. These methods are the characteristics of the Shan in forming new word. The focus is on word formation, how new words are formed in the Shan language.

1) Nominalization
2) Compounding
3) Reduplication
4) Expressive

1) Nominalization

Nominalization is “a noun derived from a member of another lexical category” Here, a derived noun from a verb, adjective and noun. Generally, in Shan, there are three words, which added to a verb or an adjective to form noun. Their usages are as follows:

The lexical means account of or case and it is used as an added word to a verb or adjective to form noun.

\[
\text{/ka:n}^3/ + \text{Verb} \\
\text{/ka:n}^3/ \text{ka:}^4 \text{kha:j}^5/ \quad \text{‘trading’} \\
\text{/ka:n}^5/ \text{kap}^4 \text{sup}^2/ \quad \text{‘communication’} \\
\text{/ka:n}^5/ + \text{Adjective} \\
\text{/ka:n}^5/ \text{jau}^2/ \quad \text{‘important work’}
\]

---

Aggasena Lengtai, “Shan Phonology and Morphology”, A Dissertation of Master of Arts in Linguistic Studies, (Graduate School: Mahidol University, 2009), p. 79.
Daniel Peter Loss has said all Shan languages and Thai are typically classified as an analytic language with instances of affixation rarely occurring. Yet, the nominalizing affix /nak/ is one of the few cases of bound morphology within the Thai language. The prefix /nak/ is both productive when fixed to verbs (e.g. 'fly' in /nak/ bin/ 'pilot', and some nouns (e.g. 'politics' in /nak/ ka:n/ 'politician'). Through comparison of Thai words which are produced through the use of /nak/, Shan was found to accomplish some similar nominalizations with the use of the word /mɔ:/ 'expert', as in examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>/mɔ: tem/</th>
<th>/nak khi:an/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(S)</td>
<td>NOM writes</td>
<td>NOM writes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'writer'</td>
<td>'writer'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S)</td>
<td>/mɔ: kɔm/</td>
<td>/nak rɔŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NOM sing</td>
<td>NOM sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'singer'</td>
<td>'singer'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Compounding

Aggasena Lengtai said compounding is “the process of forming a word by combining two or more existing words”. The compounding in Shan are superordinate-subordinate compound, class term compound, word class compound and semantic compound. Compounding plays an important role in forming new words in Shan; therefore, the usage of the compound words will also be studied.

---

Besides the above nominalization, there are some superordinate words added to subordinate words such as a noun, a verb or an adjective, indicating the same type of things. Here are some examples of the superordinate words: The examples of some superordinate words are as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
/k\text{on}^4/ + \text{Noun} \\
/k\text{on}^4 \text{maŋ}^4/ & \quad \text{'citizen'} \\
/k\text{on}^4 \text{wa:n}^1/ & \quad \text{'villager'} \\
/k\text{on}^4/ + \text{verb} \\
/k\text{on}^4 \text{ka:}^3/ & \quad \text{'trader'} \\
/k\text{on}^4 \text{cau}^3/ & \quad \text{'servant'} \\
/k\text{on}^4/ + \text{Adjective} \\
/k\text{on}^4 \text{laŋ}^5/ & \quad \text{'layman'} \\
/k\text{on}^4 \text{loŋ}^5/ & \quad \text{'adult'}
\end{align*}
\]

**a) Class Term Compound**

Compound word can be formed by class term and their classified nouns. The classifiers as: /tiː/ denotes to place or spot, /ʔan^5/ denotes to things are used as an example here.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/tiː/ + Verb</th>
<th>/ʔan^5/ + Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/tiː/ naŋ^1/ 'sitting place'</td>
<td>/ʔan^5/ liː^5/ 'good thing'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tiː/ ka:n^5/ 'word place'</td>
<td>/ʔan^5/ phit^4/ 'wrong thing'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tiː/ jip^4/ 'handle'</td>
<td>/ʔan^5/ baw^2/ 'empty thing'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The word class compound is a combination of the same or different word class, such as noun, verb, adjective and preposition. Based on syllable types, the word class compound is sub-categorized into two types i.e. disyllabic compound and trisyllabic compound. More than three syllables are uncommon in Shan origin, though it might be found.

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5. Aggasena Lengtai, "Shan Phonology and Morphology", *A Dissertation of Master of Arts in Linguistic Studies*, (Graduate School: Mahidol University, 2009), p. 78.

6. Ibid., p. 79.

7. Ibid., p. 81.
Below are the examples of disyllabic and trisyllabic compound words. The compound device into disyllabic compound and trisyllabic compound as there are follows:

**Disyllabic Compound**

**Noun + Noun**

/\( \text{wa:n}^1 \text{ məŋ}^4 \)/

'country'

(village + country)

/\( \text{nam}^3 + \text{nom}^4 \)/

'milk'

(water + breast)

**Noun + Verb**

/\( \text{hoŋ}^4 \text{ hen}^4 \)/

'school'

(building + study)

/\( \text{luk}^4 \text{ non}^4 \)/

'bedroom'

(room + sleep)

**Noun + Adjective**

/\( \text{lin}^5 \text{ new}^5 \)/

'clay'

(clay + sticky)

/\( \text{luk}^1 \text{ ?on}^2 \)/

'children'

(child + small)

**Noun + Preposition**

/\( \text{wa:n}^1 \text{ nək}^1 \)/

'country side'

(village + outside)

/\( \text{khong}^4 \text{ na:}^5 \)/

'heaven'

(country + above)

**Preposition + Noun**

/\( \text{nau}^4 \text{ wəŋ}^4 \)/

'downtown'

(inside + town)

/\( \text{məŋ}^4 \)/

'foreign country'

---

8 ibid., p. 83.
(outside + country)

**Trisyllabic Compound**

**Noun + Noun + Noun**

/nam³ nom⁴ wo:\⁴/  
'cow milk'  
(water + breast + cow)

**Noun + Noun + Verb**

/kon⁴ naː¹ kiː¹/  
'joyful man'  
(man + face + blossom)

**Noun + Noun + Adjective**

/nam³ neŋ¹ khom⁵/  
'plain tea'  
(water + tea + bitter)

**Noun + Verb + Noun**

/nam³ tok⁴ taːt²/  
'water fall'  
(water + fall + cascade)

**b) Semantic Compound**

The studying of compound words, the semantic is one way in approaching them. The meaning of compound words plays a significant role such as: with the same meaning, related meaning and pair meaning. Semantic compound words are created to be used for literary stylistics or aesthetic function. It is also used in spoken.

The compound words which their meaning are the same or related consisting of two words with the same word class. The first 8 lines in the examples below are the same meaning and the compound word with the opposite meaning are used together to generalize the meaning of thing. Both words weaken their original meanings and create a new meaning.

/luː³ lew⁵/  
'to break'

/man¹ kum⁴/  
'firm'

/khaj¹ naːw⁵/  
'ill'

/səː⁴ pjɔː²/  
'happy'

---

⁹ Ibid., p. 86.
Reduplication is defined as “The morphological phenomenon in which some morphological material is repeated within a single form for lexical or grammatical purposes”. The word class which is repeated can be an adverb or an adjective as found in Shan. There are three main types of reduplication as follows:

Imitative reduplication is a word imitating the sound of nature or onomatopoeia. The examples below are the adverb that modifies the preceding verb and emphatic reduplication is an adverb used in modifying the preceding verb to emphasize its meaning. No part of the word is changed as follow the examples:

- `/haj¹ ca:¹ ca:¹/ 'crying sound'
- `/nam³ jɔ² cik⁴ cik⁴/ 'water drop sound'
- `/mɔ⁴ mon⁴ mon⁴/ 'Shan drum sound'
- `/nam⁵ nam⁵/ 'many'
- `/kaj⁵ kaj⁵/ 'far away'
- `/hunjang⁵ hunjang⁵/ 'long time'
- `/tik⁴ tik⁴/ 'constantly'¹⁰

4) Expressive

Aggasena Lengtai said the Expressive, in Shan, is a word which follows the word showing the attitude of the speaker toward a particular thing, i.e. might be negative or positive. Generally, it is used when people speak with less patience. Usually, the expressive word does not have a meaning. In case it has, its original meaning will be lost in the expressive context. Based on syllable types, expressive,
here, is classified into two types, i.e., monosyllabic expressive and disyllabic expressive.

A monosyllabic expressive is a word added for the significance of the preceding word. The preceding word and the expressive have the same consonant and tone except the vowel. The table below shows how the vowel sound in the preceding word determines what vowel sound would follow in the expressive. The disyllabic expressive in Shan refers to the disyllabic words following the preceding word. The vowel of disyllabic expressive conveys the positive or negative feeling of the speaker.

The examples below show that the vowels indicate positive meanings while the vowels' represent the negative meanings and the vowel, the disyllabic expressive in Shan can be divided into two kinds as the syllables in the relative expressive have the same vowel, tones and final consonant, except their initial consonant. The vowel in the expressive indicates the positive or negative of the preceding word. The syllables of the duplicated expressive have the same consonant, vowel and tone. The vowel in the expressive indicates the positive or negative of the preceding word. The follow of some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ləŋ⁵ kən⁴ ƞəŋ⁴/</td>
<td>/ləŋ⁵ kən⁴ ƞəŋ⁴/</td>
<td>'yellow'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/khew⁵ kiw⁴ ηiw⁴/</td>
<td>/khew⁵ ka:w⁴ ηa:w⁴/</td>
<td>'green'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ləŋ⁵ cəŋ⁴ həŋ⁴/</td>
<td>/ləŋ⁵ ca:ŋ⁴ həŋ⁴/</td>
<td>'red'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kat⁴ ƞəŋ⁴ ƞəŋ⁴/</td>
<td>/kat⁴ ƞa:n⁴ ƞa:n⁴/</td>
<td>'cold'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʔon¹ jəm¹ jəm¹/</td>
<td>/ʔon¹ jum¹ jum¹/</td>
<td>'soft'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/maj¹ wət¹ wət¹/</td>
<td>/maj¹ wuŋ¹ wuŋ¹/</td>
<td>'hot'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11 ibid., p. 91.
2.2.2 Kind of Standard Thai Morphology Forms

The words of Thai can be produced from other words by several derivational processes like affixing, compounding, reduplication, Nominal, Verbal, Basic vocabulary is as follows:

2.2.2.1 Affixing

The Affixing includes the one of a restricted number of special prefixes or suffixes to nouns and verbs. For example, /ka:n⁵/ and /nak⁴/ are prefixes used to form abstract nouns from verbs, and /nak⁴/ adds the meaning of expertise:\(^\text{13}\)

/ka:n⁴ + len³/ (to play) = /ka:n⁴len³/ (playing)
/nak⁴+ ri:an¹/ (to study) = /nak⁴ri:an¹/ (student)

2.2.2.2 Compounding

Thai compound nouns are made of predicates and of related arguments. Most of the case, two arguments occur with the predicate in the compounds. So, the boundary of the compound nouns can be calculated from the number of the arguments. For compounds, the predicate functions as the head, and the argument functions as the modifier. Like English compounds, Thai compounds only have internal predicate. Although many compounds have a sentence-like structure: subject (noun)+verb (+object (noun), the compound and the sentence are different. The Compounding words may include nouns, adjectives, numerals and verbs. The head of compound is usually the first constituent and all others are modifiers:\(^\text{14}\)

/nam³/ (water)+ /kheŋ⁷/ (to be hard)= /nam³kheŋ⁷/ (ice)
/roŋ¹/ (hall)+ /ri:an¹/ (to study) = (school)

There are compounds that have two semantic heads:

---


\(^\text{13}\) Loc. cit.

\(^\text{14}\) Kanyanut Kriengket, AComputational Linguistics Study of Compound Nouns in Thai, (Graduate School of Chulalongkorn University, 2007), p. 3.
/phɔː/3 (father) + /meː/3 (mother) = /phɔː meː/3 (parents)

2.2.2.3 Reduplication

The reduplication consists of a repetition of a word or part of a word. Thai has three types: Reduplication without changes, in order to make a plural, intensify meaning or sometimes attenuate it, or create onomatopoeic words: /dek²/ 'child' /dek² dek²/ 'children'. Reduplication with vowel change in which the duplicated syllable has a different vowel than that of the base word, in order to expand its meaning. The reduplication adds with emphatic high tone. The base word keeps its tone but the reduplication carries the emphatic variant of the high tone to enhance meaning: ¹⁵

/rɔn³/ = hot – /rɔn³ rɔn³/ = blazing
/diː¹/ = good – /diː¹ diː¹/ = excellent

In spoken Thai, both derivational and inflectional functions are found in Thai reduplication. For derivation, it is used to change word class from (1) noun to verb (2) noun to adverb (3) adjective to adverb and (4) verb to adverb. In the last case, the changed form has a negative connotation added to it. For inflection, it is used to add grammatical features such as habitually, intensification, plurality, distributivity, and indefiniteness.¹⁶ Examples of each occurrence are shown below:

**a) Derivation**

Noun → Verb (with high tone on the first word) /mɛw¹/ (N) ‘cat’
/mɛw¹-mɛw¹/ (V) ‘having cat-like features’

Noun → Adverb /wan¹/ (N) ‘day’ /wan¹- wan¹/ (Adv) ‘all day long’
Adjective → Adverb /rek³/ (Adj) ‘first’ /rek³-rek³/ (Adv) ‘at first’
Verb → Adverb (with negative connotation) /sʊŋ⁵/ (V) ‘hand in’
/sʊŋ⁵-sʊŋ⁵/ (Adv) ‘sloppily’


¹⁶ Nattaya Piriyawiboom PhD, Reduplication in Spoken Thai and Thai Sign Language, (Bangkok: Srinakharinwirot University, 2017), p. 3.
b) Inflection


2.2.2.4 Nominal

Most nouns are monosyllabic. They are not inflected for case, gender or number. When referring to more than one object, each noun should be accompanied with its proper noun classifier. Thai has more classifiers which do not have any obvious semantic correlation with their nouns. For example, /khon 1/ is a classifier for human beings; /tu:a 5/ for animals, clothes and furniture; /\o\m 3/ for knives, needs; /ton 3/ for trees, poles, blades of grass. /dek 2/ sa:m 2 khon 1/ ‘child three’ Thai has a complex pronoun system which distinguishes age, sex, social position and attitude of the speaker. Kinship terms frequently replace personal pronouns.

a) Male speaks

Polite conversation
1st person: /phom 1/
2nd person: /khun 1/
Addressing a superior
2nd person: /tha:n 3/
(Informal conversation)

b) Female speaks

1st person: /di:\ 2-chan 5/
2nd person: /khun 1/
Addressing a superior

17 Ibid., p. 4.
2nd person: /thaːn³/

c) Adult speaking to child
1st person: /chan⁴/
2nd person: /nuː⁵/

d) Child speaking to an adult
1st person: /nuː⁵/
2nd person: /kin¹ ship¹/

2.2.2.5 Verbal

Thai verbs are not inflected for tense and number. The simple present is expressed by the verb alone. Other tenses by the use of particles or expressions of time. For example, the present continuous by adding the particle /juː²/ after the main verb, the past tense by adding the particle day before the verb, the past perfect by adding /lew³/ at the end of the phrase.

Serial verb constructions composed by a main verb modified by secondary verbs, are frequent. There two classes of secondary verb, one precedes the main verb and the other follows it. In some serial verb constructions both kinds of secondary verbs are used, in other constructions just one or the other. First class verbs are equivalent to modal verbs or adverbs. Some modal verbs are /tɔŋ³/ (must), /khon¹/ (should), /jaːk³/ (to wish to), /caː²/ (shall, will). For example:

/kʰaw¹ tɔŋ³ klap² ban³/
He must return home

Second class verbs usually indicate completion of the action initiated by the main verb.

/dek² wiŋ³ paj¹ sur³ khaː¹ nom⁵/
(Child run go buy candy)
The child runs to buy candy’

---

2.2.2.6 Basic Vocabulary

As transliteration systems for Thai are incomplete or inconsistent, we write the words with phonetic notation. Mid-tone is unmarked, low-tone is marked with a grave accent, high-tone with an acute accent, rising-tone with an inverted circumflex accent, falling-tone with a circumflex accent.\(^{19}\)

/nuŋ\(^{2}\)/ 'one' /san\(^{1}\)/ 'two' /saːm\(^{1}\)/ 'three' /sɪː\(^{2}\)/ 'four' /haː\(^{3}\)/ 'five' /hɔk\(^{2}\)/ 'six' /cet\(^{2}\)/ 'seven' /pɛt\(^{2}\)/ 'eight' /kaw\(^{3}\)/ 'nine' /sip\(^{2}\)/ 'ten' /raŋ\(^{1}\)/ 'hundred' /phɔː\(^{3}\)/ 'father' /meː\(^{3}\)/ 'mother' /phiː\(^{3}\)/ 'elder brother/sister' /nɔŋ\(^{1}\)/ 'younger brother/sister' /luk\(^{3}\)/ 'child' /luk\(^{3}\)/chaːj\(^{1}\)/ 'son' /luk\(^{3}\)/saːw\(^{5}\)/ 'daughter' /hoː\(^{5}\)/ 'head' /taː\(^{3}\)/ 'eye' /thaw\(^{3}\)/ 'foot' /caj\(^{5}\)/ 'heart' /lin\(^{3}\)/ 'tongue'.

2.2.3 Shan and Standard Thai Morphology forms

Samorn Ketsom has said about the morphology forms study the word of standard Thai, how they are formed, and relationship to other words in the same language. It analyzes the structure of morphemes in standard Thai the dialects may fall under the following types:

2.2.3.1 Monomorphemic (Simple Forms)

a) Monosyllabic

The simple forms are consisting of only one morpheme and can occur either freely or combine with other forms. The following are some examples of simple forms monosyllabic form and polysyllabic in the standard Thai dialects.

/phɔː\(^{3}\)/ 'father' /meː\(^{3}\)/ 'mother'
/maː\(^{5}\)/ 'dog' /diː\(^{5}\)/ 'to be good'
/wiŋ\(^{3}\)/ 'to run' /khaːw\(^{3}\)/ 'rice'
/nam\(^{1}\)/ 'water' /phut\(^{3}\)/ 'to say'
/nɔŋ\(^{1}\)/ 'to sleep'

b) Polysyllabic

The simple forms can occur either freely or combine with other forms. The following are some examples of simple form in polysyllabic in standard Thai dialects:

/na: 1 li: 1 ka: 1/ 'watch'  /tha: 3 ha:n 5/ 'soldier'
/ta: 2 la:t 2/ 'market'  /sa: 1 pha:n 1/ 'bridge'
/sa: 2 a:t 2/ 'to be clean'  /sa: 2 mut 2/ 'note book'

2.2.3.2 Polymorphemic (Complex Forms)

The complex forms composed of more than one morpheme. There are five types of complex such as a) composite forms, b) prefix-derived forms, c) suffix-derived forms, d) reduplicated forms and e) rhyming forms. 20

a) Composite Forms

Composite forms are those forms which consist of more than one simple form. The important types of compounding in composite forms are as follows:

Noun + Noun = Noun

/me: 3 na m 3/  
(mother+ water)
/pa:k 2 ka: 1/  
(mouth+ crow)
/phaj 1 fa: 3/  
(fire+ sky)

Noun + Verb = Noun

/roŋ 1 len 1/  
(hall+ learn)

---

/maː³ naŋ³/  'stool'
(horse+ sit)
/taw¹ rit²/  'iron'
(stove+ to iron)

Noun + Adjective = Noun
/caj⁵ diː⁵/  'kind-hearted'
(mind+ to be good)
/caj¹ jen¹/  'patient'
(mind+ to be cool)
/khruː¹ jaj²/  'headmaster'
(teacher+ to be big)
/tuː³ jen⁵/  'refrigerator'
(cabinet+ to be cool)

Verb + Noun = Noun
/phat³ lom¹/  'fan'
(to fan+ wind)
/phak³ tɔŋ⁴/  'pumpkin'
(to hatch+ gold)

Verb + Verb = Verb
/tok² run¹/  'to agree'
(to fall+ to descend)
/klaː³ daj³/  'to be enterprising'
(to brave+ to get)²¹

b) Prefix- Derived Forms
Prefix-derived forms are those form to which some morphemes a
prefixed to form complex forms. The following are the morphemes to be prefixed to
form complex forms:

²¹ ibid., p. 85.
/nak⁴/ and /ka:n⁵/ used as a front element in many a compound nouns meaning an expert, a carry something by heavy of the thing. It can be prefixed to a noun or verb. ²²

/kot²ma:j¹//nak⁵-kot²ma:j⁵/ ‘lawyer’
(law)

/pha:¹ sa:⁵ sat²//nak⁴-pha:¹ sa:⁵ sat²/ ‘linguist’
(linguistics)

/ba:n³//ka:n⁵-ba:n³/ ‘homework’
(home)

/dən¹//ka:n⁵-dən¹/ ‘walking’
(to walk)

/phut³//ka:n⁵-phut³/ ‘speaking’
(to speak)

c) Suffix-Derived Forms

Suffix-derived forms are those forms to which some morphemes to form complex forms. The following are the morphemes to be suffixed to form complex forms, /-kan⁴/ and /sat²/ when suffixed to noun, it indicates worker, or man in Thai dialects. ²³

/phi:³-thi:¹//phi:³-thi:¹-kan⁴/ ‘Master of ceremonies’
(rite)

/ka:¹si:²//ka:¹si:²-kan⁴/ ‘agriculturist’
(agriculture)

/pha:¹ sa:⁵//pha:¹ sa:⁵-sat²/ ‘linguistics’
(language)

/sañ⁵ khom⁴//sañ⁵khom⁴-sat²/ ‘sociology’
(society)

²² Ibid., p. 86.
²³ Ibid., p. 88.
**d) Reduplicated Forms**

The complex forms may also be formed by any type of reduplication. They are frequently based on compound forms and are expended by simply repeating or adding some other compound forms having the same syllable as the first part of the first compound forms for the sake of repeating. The normal patterns of reduplicated forms:

\[
\begin{align*}
/\text{dek}^2-\text{dek}^2/ & \quad \text{‘children’} \\
/\text{dek}^2/ & \quad \text{child} \\
/\phi:\text{i}^3-\phi:\text{i}^3/ & \quad \text{‘brothers and sisters’} \\
/\phi:\text{i}^3/ & \quad \text{elder brother or sister} \\
/\text{nəŋ}^3/ & \quad \text{younger brother or sister} \\
/\text{nam}^3-\text{hu}:^5/ & \quad \text{‘tear’} \\
/\text{nam}^3/ & \quad \text{water} \\
/\text{hu}:^5/ & \quad \text{ear} \\
/\text{ta}:^5/ & \quad \text{eye} \\
/\text{wan}^1-\text{di}:^1/ & \quad \text{‘a good day’} \\
/\text{wan}^1/ & \quad \text{day} \\
/\text{khun}^1/ & \quad \text{night} \\
/\text{di}:^1/ & \quad \text{to be good}
\end{align*}
\]

**e) Rhyming Forms**

Rhyming forms have two major paste or halves, each half consists of at least two components the last or final component of the first half rhymes with the first component of the second half. The rhyming parts have the same vowels, tones may or may not be the same; but their initial consonants are always different. Such forms may be said to be elaborated expressions which are colloquial but a few are considered elegant.

The rhyming parts are sometimes meaningful and sometime not or one part may be meaningful and the other not. It may be noted here that these

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24 Ibid., p. 90.
types of Rhyming forms may be used also as verbs and adverbs or adjectives if the components function as verbs, adverbs or adjectives respectively. The following are some example of rhyming forms:

\[
\text{/ja:k}^3\text{-\text{di:}^1} /\text{mi:}^1\text{-\text{con}^1}/ \text{‘to be poor’}
\]
\[
\text{/ja:k}^3/ \text{to be difficult}
\]
\[
\text{/di:}^1/ \text{good}
\]
\[
\text{/mi:}^1/ \text{there is}
\]
\[
\text{/con}^5/ \text{to be poor}^{25}
\]

### 2.3.3 Word-Formation

The chief processes of Shan and standard Thai in word-formation which refer to compound word the base may be modified are as follows:

#### 2.3.3.1 Compounding

Aggasena Lengtai, said compounding is the process of forming a word by combining two or more existing words. The compounding in Shan are superordinate-subordinate compound, class term compound, word class compound and semantic compound. Compounding plays an important role in forming new words in Shan therefore; the usage of the compound words will also be studied.

Besides the above nominalization, there are some superordinate words added to subordinate words such as a noun, a verb or an adjective, indicating the same type of things. Here are some examples of the superordinate words: /\text{kon}^1/(Shan) denotes to a man or his profession, ‘denotes to a man or his profession’, /\text{mak}^2/ ‘denotes to fruit or rounded object’, /\text{ton}^1/ ‘denotes to tree or plant’, /\text{caw}^1/(Shan) ‘denotes to owner or career’ etc. The examples of some superordinate words are as follows:

\[
/\text{kon}^4/ \text{‘denotes to a human or his profession.} /\text{kon}^4/ \text{lexically means human and it is used as a superordinate word added to noun, a verb or an adjective indicating human or his profession as follow the examples:}
\]

\[
/\text{kon}^4/ + \text{Noun}
\]

\(^{25}\) Ibd., p. 92.
/kon⁴ maŋ⁴/ 'citizen'
/kon⁴ wa:n¹/ 'villager'
/kon⁴ thɔn²/ 'guerilla'

/kon⁴/ + Verb
/kon⁴ cau⁴/ 'servant'
/kon⁴ ka:³/ 'trader'
/kon⁴ ha:p²/ 'porter'

/kon⁴/ + Adjective
/kon⁴ loŋ⁵/ 'adult'
/kon⁴ jɔŋ²/ 'mad man'
/kon⁴ num²/ 'young man'

/ma:k²/ 'denote to fruit or any rounded object'. /ma:k²/ lexically means fruit or rounded object and it is used as a superordinate word added to a noun indicating fruit-like object as follow the examples:

/ma:k²/ + Noun
/ma:k² moŋ¹/ 'mango'
/ma:k² ?un¹/ 'lemon'
/ma:k² keŋ⁵/ 'tamarind'
/ma:k² laŋ⁴/ 'durian'
/ma:k² ka:²/ 'guava'
/ma:k² khɔŋ⁵/ 'bullet'
/ma:k² maŋ⁵/ 'damson'

/ton¹/ 'denote to tree and /ton¹/ lexically means trunk or tree and it is used as a superordinate word added to a noun indicating tree. The following of examples:

/ton¹/ + Noun
/ton¹ maj³/ 'tree'
/ton¹ maj³ sak⁴/ 'teak tree'
/ton¹ ma:k² cɔk⁴/ 'orange tree'
/ton¹ ma:k² ?un⁵/ 'coconut tree'
/tonʰ khawʰ/ 'rice plant'
/tonʰʔɔjʰ/ 'sugar cane'
/tonʰ kɔjʰ/ 'banana tree'

cawʰ/ is 'denotes to owner or career'. cawʰ/ lexically means owner or
career and it is used as a superordinate word added to a noun indicating owner or
career. The follow of some example examples:

cawʰ/ + Noun
/cawʰ naː⁴/ 'farmer'
/cawʰ təː¹/ 'ferryman'
/cawʰ kʊn⁵/ 'merchant'
/cawʰ kəː⁴/ 'driver'
/cawʰ phaː³/ 'prince'
/cawʰ caːk¹/ 'miller'
/cawʰ həː⁴/ 'mariner'

2.3.3.2 Class Term Compound

Compound word can be formed by class term two and their classified
nouns. The classifiers as /tiː¹/ ‘denotes to place or spot’, /ran⁵/ ‘denotes to things’
are used as an example here.

/tiː¹/ ‘denotes to place or spot' and /tiː¹/ lexically means place or spot
and it is used as class term added to a word indicating place or spot.

Examples:
/tiː¹/ + Verb
/tiː¹ naːŋ¹/ 'sitting place'
/tiː¹ juː²/ 'abode'
/tiː¹ buːŋ¹/ 'place of refuge'
/tiː¹ jəŋ⁴ maːj⁵/ 'goal'

Aggasena Lengtal, "Shan Phonology and Morphology", A Dissertation of Master of
Arts in Linguistic Studies, (Graduate School: Mahidol University, 2009), p. 81.
2.3.3.3 Word Class Compound

The word class compound is a combination of the same or different word class, such as, noun, verb, adjective and preposition. Based on syllable types, the word class compound is sub-categorized into two types i.e. disyllabic compound and trisyllabic compound. More than three syllables are uncommon in Shan origin, though it might be found. Below are the examples of disyllabic and trisyllabic compound words.\(^{27}\)

### a) Disyllabic Compound

**Noun + Noun**

/\textit{wa:n}^1 \textit{maŋ}^4/  \hspace{1cm} 'country'

(village + country)

/\textit{ten}^4 \textit{khaj}^5/  \hspace{1cm} 'candle'

(candle + fat)

/\textit{nam}^3 \textit{nom}^4/  \hspace{1cm} 'milk'

(water + breast)

\(^{27}\)Ibid, p. 82.
/bo:1 me:1/ 'parents'
(father + mother)

/hɔn̥4 maj̄3/ 'wooden house'
(house + wood)

**Noun + Verb**

/ma:3 taŋ2/ 'pack horse'
(horse + load)

/pha:1 sa:2/ 'bed sheet'
(cloth + to lay)

/hon̥4 hən̥4/ 'school'
(building + study)

/luk̄4 nɔn̥4/ 'bedroom'
(room + sleep)

**Noun + Adjective**

/lin̥5 new̄5/ 'clay'
(clay + sticky)

/luk̄1 ?ən̥2/ 'children'
(child + small)

/ləŋ̄5 suŋ̄5/ 'high mountain'
(mountain + high)

/pha:1 laŋ̄5/ 'monk robe'
(cloth + yellow)

/kon̥4 thaw1/ 'old man'
(man + old)

**Noun + Preposition**

/wa:n̥1 nɔk1/ 'countryside'
(village + outside)

/kon̥4 naur̄4/ 'insider'
(man + inside)

/taj̄4 nɔ:5/ 'Chinese Shan'
(Shan+ North)
/\text{can}^3 \text{tau:}^4/ \quad 'down stair' \\
(lever+ below)

\textbf{Preposition + Noun}
/\text{nau}^4 \text{wen}^4/ \quad 'downtown' \\
(inside+ town)
/\text{nok}^1 \text{maŋ}^4/ \quad 'foreign country' \\
(outside+ country)
/\text{tau}^1 \text{lin}^5/ \quad 'underground' \\
(below+ clay)
/\text{lan}^5 \text{han}^4/ \quad 'backyard' \\
(back+ house)

\textbf{a) Trisyllabic Compound}

\textbf{Noun + Noun + Noun}
/\text{nam}^3 \text{nom}^4 \text{wo:}^4/ \quad 'cow milk' \\
(water+ breast+ cow)
/\text{mak}^2 \text{mo:}^1 \text{nam}^3/ \quad 'flower vase' \\
(flower+ pot+ water)
/\text{nam}^3 \text{mo:}^2 \text{sa:j}^4/ \quad 'sand well' \\
(water+ well+ sand)
/\text{sa:j}^5 \text{kho:}^4 \text{kham}^4/ \quad 'gold necklace' \\
(string+ neck+ gold)
/\text{ho:}^5 \text{maŋ}^4 \text{leŋ}^4/ \quad 'dawn' \\
(head+ country+ bright)

\textbf{Noun + Noun + Verb}
/\text{no:}^3 \text{mu:}^5 \text{sa:}^1/ \quad 'minced pork salad' \\
(meat+ pig+ salad)
/\text{kon}^4+ \text{na:}^1 \text{ki:}^1/ \quad 'joyful man' \\
(man+ face+ blossom)
2.3.3.4 Semantic Compound

Again, in the studying of compound words, the semantic is one way in approaching them. The meaning of compound words plays a significant role such as: with the same meaning, related meaning and pair meaning. Semantic compound words are created to be used for literary stylistics or aesthetic function. It is also used in spoken.

a) Compound Word with the Same or Related Meaning

To compare the compound words of Shan which their meaning is the same or related consisting of two words with the same word class.\textsuperscript{28} They are as

\textsuperscript{28} Samorn Ketsom, "A Synchronic-Comparative- Contrastive Study of Modern I-San (Northeastern Thai) and Standard Thai", \textit{A Dissertation of Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistic Studies}, (Graduate School: in Linguistics at Deccan College Postgraduate & Research Institute Poona University, 1983), p. 90.
follow the examples:

/lu:³ lew⁵/ 'to break' /man¹ kum⁴/ 'firm'
/khaj⁴ na:w⁵/ 'ill' /jaau² loŋ⁵/ 'big'
/sac⁴ mon¹/ 'happy' /ma:x⁵ ca:n¹/ 'tired of'
/pau³ tha:¹/ 'to wait' /muŋ¹ maŋ⁴/ 'to hope'
(to wait) (look out+ hope)
/lst² maj¹/ 'hot' /hu:³ han⁵/ 'to understand'
(hot+ burn) (know+ see)
/ko:⁵ he:⁵/ 'afraid' /cep⁴ sep²/ 'pain'
(afraid+ untamed) (hurt+ smart as wound)
/li:k¹ la:j⁴/ 'letter' /li:⁵ na:m⁴/ 'good'
(letter+ writing) (good+ beautiful)
/kat³ khen²/ 'brilliant' /ha:j³ maŋ¹/ 'to wicked'
(clever+ skillful) (bad+ evil)
/tut³ can³/ 'to pull' /kjɔk⁴ wɛn³/ 'to jump'
(pull+ draw) (jump+ leap)
/ŋun⁴ kham⁴/ 'wealth'
(money+ gold)²⁹

b) Compound Word with the Opposite Meaning

The compound word with the opposite meaning are used together to generalize the meaning to thing. Both words weaken their original meanings and create a new meaning as follow the examples:

/bi:¹ naŋ³/ 'relative'
(elder sibling+ younger sibling)
/kwa:² ma:⁴/ 'to travel'
(to go+ to come)
/num² thaw¹/ 'age'

²⁹ Āggasena Lengtai, "Shan Phonology and Morphology", A Dissertation of Master of Arts in Linguistic Studies, (Graduate School: Mahidol University, 2009), p. 86.
(young+ old)
/lək³ jau²/
'size'
(small+ large)
/bɔː¹ meː¹/
'parents'
(mother+ mother)

2.3.4 Word-Classes

All words belong to categories called word classes (or parts of speech) according to the part of they play in a sentence. The main word classes in Shan and Standard Thai are listed below.

Samorn Getsom, had discuss a part of speech particularly in more modern classifications, which often make more precise distinctions than the traditional scheme does may also be called a word class, lexical class, or lexical category, although the term lexical category refers in some contexts to a particular type of syntactic category, and may thus exclude parts of speech that are considered to be functional, such as pronouns.30

The term form class is also used, although this has various conflicting definitions. Word classes may be classified as open or closed: open classes (like nouns, verbs and adjectives) acquire new members constantly, while closed classes (such as pronouns and conjunctions) acquire new members infrequently. A part of speech as follows:

2.3.4.1 Nouns

Forms which can be used as subject or object in a sentence, and occasionally also as classifiers including quantifiers are said to be nouns in this study.

a) Proper Nouns

Proper nouns are those forms which can be used as the names distinguishing some individual person, animal, place, day or month in Shan the

dialects. The following of some examples:

**Name of Persons:**

/səj¹ kham⁴/ 'male, female'  
/kham⁴ leŋ⁴/ 'male, female'  
/səj⁴ khoː⁴/ 'male'  
/jiŋ⁴ hom⁵/ 'female'  
/məj⁵ phɔŋ⁵/ 'female'

**Name of Animals:**

/khù:³ ki:³/ 'name of god'  
/sam⁵ li:¹/ 'name of cat'

**Name of Days :**

/waːn⁴ ʔaː¹ thit³/ 'Sunday'  
/waːn⁴ can⁵/ 'Monday'  
/waːn⁴ ʔaːŋ⁴ kaːn⁴/ 'Tuesday'  
/waːn⁴ but¹/ 'Wednesday'  
/waːn⁴ phat⁴/ 'Thursday'  
/waːn⁴ suk⁴/ 'Friday'  
/waːn⁴ saw⁵/ 'Saturday'  

**Name of Months:**

/la:n⁵ cɛŋ⁵/ 'January'  
/la:n⁵ kam⁵/ 'February'  
/la:n⁵ saːm⁵/ 'March'  
/la:n⁵ si:²/ 'April'  
/la:n⁵ haː¹/ 'May'  
/la:n⁵ hɔk⁴/ 'June'  
/la:n⁵ cet⁴/ 'July'  
/la:n⁵ bet²/ 'August'  
/la:n⁵ kaw¹/ 'September'  
/la:n⁵ sip⁴/ 'October'  
/la:n⁵ sip⁴ ʔet⁴/ 'November'  
/la:n⁵ sip⁴ sɔŋ⁵/ 'December'  

**a) Common Nouns:**

The common nouns are those forms which can be used as the names.

The following are examples of common nouns in standard Thai dialects.

/phɔː⁴/ 'father'  
/meː³/ 'mother'  
/khruː¹/ 'teacher'  
/maː⁵/ 'dog'  
/khon¹/ 'person'  
/thoː³/ 'cup'  
/kew³/ 'glass'

---

32 Ibid., p. 413.
The plurals of common nouns are usually formed with plural markers. In standard Thai dialects use of plural markers, such as /phok/3/, /mu:/2/ and /phuŋ/5/ they are sued with animate nouns only as follow the examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/phaː:/3/</td>
<td>/phok - phaː:/3/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'monks'</td>
<td>'monk'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/thaː:/3 haːn:/5/</td>
<td>/muː:/2 thɑː:/3 haːn:/5/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'soldier'</td>
<td>'soldiers'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kwaː:j:/4/</td>
<td>/fuŋ:/5 kwaː:j:/4/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'buffalo'</td>
<td>'buffalos'34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The /thaŋ/1 laːj:/5/, /thaŋ/1 mot:/2/ and /laːj:/5/ both are suffixed to animate or inanimate nouns in standard Thai dialects as follow the examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/khon:/1/</td>
<td>/khon/1 thaŋ/1 laːj:/5/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'person'</td>
<td>'persons'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/naŋ:/5 soː:/5/</td>
<td>/naŋ:/5 soː:/5 thaŋ/1 mot:/2/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'book'</td>
<td>'all the books'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/maː:/3/</td>
<td>/maː:/3 laːj:/5 toː:/5/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'horse'</td>
<td>'many horses'35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---


34 Ibid., p. 99.

2.3.4.2 Adjectives

The adjective forms in both the dialects are found to occur immediately after nouns, or between a noun and classifiers or between a noun and numeral followed by a classifier. The following are adjectives in standard Thai of dialects:

/diː/ 'good'  /choː/ 'bad'
/phon/ 'thin'  /ʔon/ 'fat'
/jaː/ 'big'  /suŋ/ 'tall'
/dam/ 'black'  /kɛː/ 'old'
/num/ 'young'  /ŋoː/ 'stupid'
/ɾən/ 'hot'  /jen/ 'cold'
/lek/ 'small'  /khom/ 'bitter'
/miː/ 'rich'  /phaːn/ 'poor'
/mak/ 'stupid'  /woj/ 'dirty'
/haː/ 'bright'  /maw/ 'new'

Daniel Peter Loss said Adjective-forming prefixes or “adjectivilizers” modify verbs and adjectives to produce adjectival words which are then used to modify. Examples, show the Thai morpheme /naː/ functioning as an adjectivilize.

/naː kin⁵/ 'edible/tasty looking'
/naː rak⁴/ 'cute'
/naː duː⁴/ 'attractive/beautiful'

In Shan instead of the /liː/ adjective, the morpheme /liː/ 'good' is used to accomplish the same function of creating adjectives from verbs. Shan examples in correspond directly to the Shan examples given in.

/liː kin⁵/ 'edible/tasty looking'
/liː hak⁴/ 'cute'
/liː toj⁴/ 'attractive/beautiful'

The numerals fall under the class of adjectives. The following in Shan start 'one to million.

\[
\begin{align*}
/\text{nuŋ}^1/ & \text{ 'one'} & /\text{səŋ}^5/ & \text{ 'two'} \\
/\text{saːm}^3/ & \text{ 'three'} & /\text{sɨː}^2/ & \text{ 'four'} \\
/\text{ha}^1/ & \text{ 'five'} & /\text{hok}^4/ & \text{ 'six'} \\
/\text{cet}^7/ & \text{ 'seven'} & /\text{pɛt}^2/ & \text{ 'eight'} \\
/\text{kaw}^1/ & \text{ 'nine'} & /\text{sip}^4/ & \text{ 'ten'} \\
/\text{saːw}^4/ & \text{ 'twenty'} & /\text{baːk}^2/ & \text{ 'hundred'} \\
/\text{heŋ}^5/ & \text{ 'thousand'} & /\text{mɯn}^2/ & \text{ 'ten-thousand'} \\
/\text{sɛn}^5/ & \text{ 'hundred-thousand'} & /\text{laːn}^3/ & \text{ 'million'}
\end{align*}
\]

2.3.4.3 Verbs

The verb forms in Shan and standard Thai dialects can be divided into two groups, main verbs and auxiliary verbs.

a) Main Verbs

Forms which can occur with a preceding /ʔam^2/ is to be taken as verbs in Shan dialects as following the examples:

\[
/\text{naŋ}^4 \text{kham}^4 + \text{ʔam}^2 + \text{haŋ}^1 \text{li}:^5/ \\
(\text{Nangkham + not + beautiful})
\]

'Nangkham is not beautiful'

\[
/\text{phu}:^1 \text{jin}^4 + \text{ca}:^4 \text{naj}^3 + \text{ʔam}^2 + \text{haŋ}^1 \text{li}:^5/ \\
(\text{woman + these + not + beautiful})
\]

'these women are not beautiful'

\[
/\text{sa}:^4 + \text{ʔam}^2 + \text{kin}^5 + \text{nam}^3/ \\
(\text{he + not + to drink + water})
\]

'He does not drink water'

---


b) Transitive Verbs

The following are example of transitive verbs in standard Thai dialects spoken language.

\[ /\text{sa}:j}^4 + \text{?am}^2 + \text{nən}^4 / \]
(he + not + sleep)
'He does not sleep'

\[ /\text{sa}:j}^4 + \text{?am}^2 + \text{cau}^1 + \text{khu}^4 / \]
(he + not + to be + teacher)
'He is not a teacher'

\[ b) \text{ Transitive Verbs} \]

The following are example of transitive verbs in standard Thai dialects spoken language.

\[ /\text{kin}^1 / \text{to eat} \quad /\text{khi}:\text{an}^5 / \text{to write} \]
\[ /\text{dum}^2 / \text{to drink} \quad /\text{kha}:\text{j}^5 / \text{to sell} \]
\[ /\text{ʔa:n}^2 / \text{to read} \quad /\text{la}:\text{j}^3 / \text{to wash} \]
\[ /\text{ʔa:n}^2 / \text{to send} \quad /\text{han}^5 / \text{to see} \]

\[ c) \text{ Intransitive Verbs} \]

The following are example of intransitive verbs in standard Thai dialects spoken language.

\[ /\text{jun}^1 / \text{to stand} \quad /\text{dən}^1 / \text{to walk} \]
\[ /\text{na}:\text{j}^3 / \text{to sit} \quad /\text{non}^1 / \text{to sleep} \]
\[ /\text{wiŋ}^3 / \text{to run} \quad /\text{khit}^4 / \text{to think} \]
\[ /\text{bin}^5 / \text{to fly} \]

\[ d) \text{ Descriptive Verbs} \]

As we have already noted descriptive main verbs are called adjectives when used within a noun phrase. The following are example of descriptive verbs in Shan dialects.

\[ /\text{li}:^5 / \text{'good} \quad /\text{ʔa}:^1 / \text{'stupid} \]
\[ /\text{ʔa:m}^4 / \text{'beautiful} \quad /\text{sun}^5 / \text{'tall} \]
\[ /\text{ja:w}^4 / \text{'long} \quad /\text{maj}^1 / \text{'hot} \]
\[ /\text{ʔon}^5 / \text{'thin}^{39} \]

---

e) Linking Verbs

The following are examples of linking verbs in Shan dialect spoken of the language. Such as: /ben⁵/ 'to be' and /cau¹/ 'to be' as follow.

Examples:

/sa:j⁴ pen⁵ khu⁴/  
(he + to be + teacher)  
'He is a teacher'

/sa:j⁴ + cau¹ + tam² not²/  
(he + to be + policemen)  
'He is a policeman'

/sa:j⁴ + ?am² + ben⁵ + khu⁴/  
(he + not + to be + teacher)  
'He is not a teacher'

2.3.4.4 Adverbs

Adverbs normally occur after verbs, or adjectives, or adverbs modified by them and usually placed at the end of a sentence or clause. If the verb is transitive and has a direct object, then the adverb is placed after the verb and its object. The following example of adverbs in standard Thai dialects:

/ca:n¹/ 'quite'  
/rew⁵/ 'quickly'  
/di¹/ 'well'  
/mak³/ 'very much'  
/ja:n² raj¹/ 'how'  
/baw¹/ 'low'  
/phruŋ³ ni³/ 'tomorrow'  
/ne³/ 'surely'  
/thi³ naj⁵/ 'where'  
/klaj¹/ 'far'

/baj²/ 'often'  
/cha³/ 'slowly'  
/dan⁵/ 'loudly'  
/ʔik²/ 'again'  
/ja:n² nan³/ 'like that'  
/tham¹ maj¹/ 'why'  
/sa:j⁵/ 'late'  
/tha:w³ laj⁵/ 'how much'  
/maː⁢ raj²/ 'when'  
/klaj³/ 'near'

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⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 137.
The prepositions are a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else. They are found to occur between noun and verb in order to join a noun to a verb. The preposition in Shan dialects can be formed with either simple or complex forms as follows:

**a) Simple forms**

- `/nau^4/ 'in'
- `/ti^1/ 'from'
- `/pha:j^2 na^1/ 'in front of'
- `/tau^1/ 'under'
- `/lan^5/ 'on the back side'
- `/cam^5/ 'near'
- `/com^4/ 'along with'
- `/ta^4 mot^4/ 'throughout'

**b) Complex forms**

- `/ta^4 nau^4/ 'inside'
- `/ta^4 nok^1/ 'outside'
- `/ta^4 lan^5/ 'back side'
- `/ta^4 sa:j^3/ 'by left side'
- `/ta^4 tau^1/ 'downstairs'`

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<sup>41</sup> Samom Ketsom, "A Synchronic-Comparative-Contrastive Study of Modern I-San (Northeastern Thai) and Standard Thai", *A Dissertation of Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistic Studies*, (Graduate School in Linguistics at Deccan College Postgraduate & Research Institute Poona University, 1983), p. 197.

Daniel Peter loss, said appositions can grammaticalize from nouns and verbs. Thai prepositions which grammaticalize from nouns often come from ‘relational nouns’ a noun whose meaning is “a location or direction potentially in relation to some other noun”. Prasithrathsint lists several prepositions in Thai which have grammaticalized from nouns, most of which still maintain the lexical noun usage. Many of these developments are also shared by Shan. Table 24 shows some similarities of Shan and Thai prepositions which have grammaticalized from nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shan</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/laŋ³/</td>
<td>/laŋ³/</td>
<td>back</td>
<td>Behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/na:¹/</td>
<td>/na:³/</td>
<td>face</td>
<td>Front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/nak³/</td>
<td>/nak³/</td>
<td>outer</td>
<td>Part outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kaːŋ³/</td>
<td>/klaːŋ³/</td>
<td>middle</td>
<td>amidst, in the middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/him⁴/</td>
<td>/rim¹/</td>
<td>edge</td>
<td>by, beside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/naː⁵/</td>
<td>/naː⁵/</td>
<td>north</td>
<td>above⁴⁴</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.3.4.6 Conjunction

Conjunctions are that join, two or more items (such as words, main clauses, or sentences) of equal syntactic importance. The following are example of word conjunction in Shan dialect spoken language.

/leː¹/ ‘and’  /san⁵ waː¹/ ‘if’  /phʊŋ⁴ tuk³/ ‘while’
/kon⁴ kaː¹/ ‘but’  /kɔb¹  bɔː¹/ ‘because’  /phʊŋ⁴ maː¹/ ‘when’
/naj⁵ leː¹/ ‘so’  /waːj⁴ seː⁵/ ‘after’  /maː¹ baf⁵/ ‘before’
/?am² nan⁵/ ‘or’  /jɔn³ bɔː¹/ ‘therefore’  /kon⁴ kaː¹/ ‘however’
/kon⁴ naː²/ ‘still’  /doː² thʊŋ⁵/ ‘until’  /ʔam² nan⁵/ ‘else’.⁴⁵

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⁴⁴ Ibid., p. 101.
2.3.4.7 Interjection

The Interjection or exclamation is a lexical category used to express an emotion or sentiment on the part of the speaker. Filled pauses such as How, Hey, Oh, help an uh, er, um, are also considered interjections. Interjections are typically placed at the beginning of a sentence or in a sentence by themselves.

Interjections are generally uninflected function words and have sometimes been seen as sentence-word, because they can replace or be replaced by a whole in sentence and sometimes, when an exclamation point is not needed, a comma can take the place.46

2.3.4.8 Particle

Mostly people will hear the word /siː/ when Thai people talk to people and wonder, actually /siː/ is a particle word that can use in some context. The following are example of word particle in standard Thai dialects spoken language such as: /maː ri:aw⁵ ri:aw⁵ siː/’come quickly, hurry up’ /taŋ⁵ caj⁵ ri:an¹ naŋ² siː/’please intend to study.’47

Shoichi Iwasaki and Preeya Ingkaphirom had talked about the particle of /maŋ³/ in question has two important restriction in use. First, nominal predicate and negative predicate normally cannot appear in this type of 'yes/no' question; one cannot ask questions such as 'Is he a student?' or 'Aren’t you going?' with this particle. Second, the /maŋ³/ question has an important pragmatic constraint. It is used to ask about information that belongs exclusively to the addressee, that within 'addressee's territory of information'.

Thus, the most common question asked with /maŋ³/ is about the addressee's personal concerns such as emotions, /diː caj⁵ maŋ⁵/ 'Are your grad?', a

sensations /cep² maj⁵/ ‘does it hurt?’ perceptions, /khun⁵ hen⁵ maj³ wa:³ paj³ na:³ ha:m³ li:aw⁵ khwa:⁵/ ‘didn’t you see that the sign prohibits a right turn?’ and desires /ja:k² ca:² khuj¹ to:² maj⁵/ ‘do you want to continue talking?’

2.3 Research Work Concerned

In the study of comparative Shan and standard Thai morphology, this research had collected the research works concerned which are useful for the study of followings:

Verboeven and Perfetti (2003) said The Study of Morphological Acquisition Especially in reading both in L1 and L2 has paid attention to the decomposition of complex words (words with prefixes or suffixes) into their constituent morphemes. Researchers basically retrieved learners’ morphological knowledge from the learners’ production/reaction towards text containing complex words. This implies the existence of morphological structures in the mental lexicon. Accordingly, a number of experiments have been conducted in order to clarify the characteristics of morphological knowledge stored in the mental lexicon. Similarly, Bliss (2006) tried to explain morphological acquisition using the ‘Failed Functional Features Hypothesis’. It is hypothesized that advanced L2 learners apply internal inflectional rules for complex word formation, comparable to that of the native speakers. In addition, learning experience from both the classroom and naturalistic environments plays an important role in the acquisition of English inflectional morphemes.

Aggasena Lengtai has written Shan Phonology and Morphology, in the following chapters, he discusses about the word classes and some noticeable characteristics of Shan such as Proper Couplets, Phonetic Couples and Idiomatic Constructions. His thesis research consists with phonology and morphology, in

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49 Sorabud Rungrojsuwan, Associate Professor, Morphological Processing Difficulty of Thai Learners of English, School of Liberal Arts, Mae Fah Luang University, Chiang Rai, Thailand, 2015, p. 3.
chapter 4 talk about morphology such as nominalization, compounding of superordinate-subordinate compound class term compound word class compound semantic compound, reduplication of related expressive and duplicated expressive and so on. These are the ways of word formation or the morphological system of the Shan that can be comparing with each Shan and Thai.\footnote{Aggasena Lengtai, “Shan Phonology and Morphology”, A Dissertation of Master of Arts in Linguistic Studies, (Graduate School: Mahidol University, 2009), p. 76.}

**Ven Pannasiri Saipon** has written *English to Shan Dictionary*. His book has talk about English word by explain the in Shan word clearly to understand and has a lot of word-formation and word-classis concerning with in topic of research, so this book can help researcher to write in this thesis.

**Suriya Ratanakul** has written *The Thai Language in Thailand*, though the sole national language of the country since the beginning of its history is not without variations. At least 4 main dialects can be mentioned. Central Thai is the dialect of the central plain of which standard Thai (an educated variety of the Bangkok tongue) is the prestigious representative. The Central Thai dialect has several subdivisions; to mention all of them would be too detailed for this non-technical.\footnote{Banchob Bandhumedha, *Kalemantai (Visiting a Thai Village)*, Bangkok, Language and Book Society, p. 364.}

**Pairote Bennui** in this article book *“Thai Words in English Dictionaries”*, certain Thai words or English words based on Thai socio-cultural elements are found in English dictionaries and Although the evidence on Thai words in English dictionaries is limited, some studies on a Thai variety of English on lexis based on other text types are found. Mathias (2001) explores lexical innovation of English in the Thai context from three popular online forums: Thai Visa Forum, Ajarn Forum and Thailand QA.com. That book gets to know the characteristics of Thai words in dictionaries.

**David Smath** has written *Thai an Essential Grammar*, that book would be the most useful dictionary for research that is *Thai-English Student's Dictionary* (1964)
compiled by Mary Haas. Each Thai script entry is followed by a phonemic transcription and English gloss. This book would be a particularly useful feature for my research is that for every noun the appropriate classifier is indicated.  

**Dr. Cushing** had provided a great benefit to the Shan language. He also wrote an English-Shan dictionary. 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. 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 (s) 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 consonant 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.

**Samom Ketsom** said the simple forms are those monosyllabic and polysyllabic lexemes which consist of only one morpheme and can occur either

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freely or combine with other form. The monosyllabic and polysyllabic only one morpheme of examples: monosyllabic forms such as /fəːðər/ 'father', /mʌðər/ 'mother' /mædʒ/ 'dog' /wɪŋ/ 'run' and polysyllabic forms such as /ˈwɒtʃ/ 'watch' /ˈkræb/ 'rabbit' /ˈθʌr/ 'solder'.

Aggasena Lengtai said the word-formation of new compound word. It's the morphological methods such as nominalization, compounding, reduplication and expressive. These methods are the Shan in forming of new compound word. Examples: with added to a verb and adjective to forms noun. There are /ˈtrædɪŋ/ 'trading' /ˈkænkin/ 'food' /ˈkænmæn/ 'politics'.

Martin Haspelmath had discussed that a long tradition of classifying words, for the purpose of grammatical description, into the ten-word classes (or parts of speech) noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction, numeral, article, interjection. While each of these terms is useful, and they are indispensable for practical purposes, their status in a fully explicit description of a language or in general grammatical theory remains disputed. Although most of the traditional word class distinctions can be made in most languages, the cross-linguistic applicability of these notions is often problematic. Here I focus primarily on the major word classes noun, verb, and adjective, and on ways of dealing with the cross-linguistic variability in their patterning.

Dr. Varshney had discussed the lexical morphemes are forms like boy, write, paper and pen. Grammatical morphemes are forms like some, with, a, an, the, to form. Lexical morphemes are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They have more or less independent


55 Aggasena Lengtai, "Shan Phonology and Morphology", A Dissertation of Master of Arts in Linguistic Studies, (Graduate School: Mahidol University, 2009), p. 79.

meaning, so that one or a series of lexical forms in isolation can be fairly meaningful. Pen suggests something quite definite to us, as do boy, paper and write. However, the distinction between lexical and grammatical morphemes is artificial and inadequate.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Preecha Khanetnok said morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a language. The word 'cats' for example, has two morphemes, the form cat is a morpheme, and also the form -s is a morpheme, the cat means "a kind of animal" and the -s means "having more than one." Morpheme is the way to forms word and make the word has meaningful.

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Chapter III

Research Methodology

This is a documentary research to describe the methods of research study in Shan and standard Thai. The researcher studies based on comparative study Shan and standard Thai morphology from the modern usage Shan, English, Thai Books such as; books, academic books, Shan Dictionary, Thai Dictionary, thesis, documentary, article, library, online research and the research will study from informants’ native speakers for 6 persons. The documentary Shan dialect data has use for interviewing qualitative methods linguistics.

The methodology is explained by data collection and data analysis procedures undertaken by this thesis. With consideration research method, it is predominately related to the linguistic data obtained by observation. The procedures used in gathering the data, in this study will be portrayed into five major parts as follows:

3.1 Research Design
3.2 Population
3.3 Research Tools
3.4 Collect of Data
3.5 Analysis of Data

3.1 Research Design

3.1.1 The current research is documentary research. This is the method of data collection which mainly has emphasized the result of documentary style by the modern usage in Shan, English and Thai books, such as book, academic books, Shan Dictionary, format (Shan & Thai, Shan & English, English & Shan), Thai Dictionary format (Thai to English, English to Thai), thesis, documentary, article, library, and online research. Every stage of data collection is performed systematically to make
things comfortable and useful to value the study. Therefore, research design is the most important part of the data collection methods that extremely benefit for the study and helpful to succeed in terms of data collection.

3.2 Population

3.2.1 The study refers to interview six people who were born at Tachileik in Shan state union of Myanmar. To study the part of speech and particle and finding key informants’ interview about the different words of Shan and standard Thai as concerned in morphology.

3.2.2 To give key-informants in interview, the researcher went back to Shan state, union of Myanmar for two weeks, the researcher take notebook and note our conversations. The informant’s main point to this thesis about apart of speech.

1) Who give the key-informants of data and information must have more knowledge and experience in text books.

2) Who give the key-informants of data and information and can speak, read, and write perfectly and know well about Shan language.

3) Key-informants explained about Shan and standard Thai for the difference or similarity pronounced by dividing the words concerned part of speech and particle as follows:

1) Noun
2) Pronoun
3) Adjectives
4) Verbs
5) Adverbs
6) Preposition
7) Conjunction
8) Interjection
9) Particles

3.2.3 The list of interviewer’s key informants:

1) Sex Factor
   Male 4 informants
Female 2 informants

2) Age Factor
50 years up, totally six informants.

3.3 Research Tools

3.3.1 The researcher will be preparing research works, books, documents, Dictionary format (Shan & Thai, Shan & English), Thai Dictionary format (Thai to English, English to Thai), thesis, documentary, article, library and online research about Shan and standard Thai morphology etc.

3.3.2 The usage of research to write Shan and standard Thai pronounced by using I.P.A (International Phonetic Association) such as; consonants, vowels and tones types:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>IPA</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
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<tr>
<td>f</td>
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### Vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Shan</th>
<th>Thai</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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</table>

#### Short Vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Shan</th>
<th>Thai</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>a</td>
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<td>u</td>
<td>eu</td>
<td>eu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Long Vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Shan</th>
<th>Thai</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a:</td>
<td>aa</td>
<td>ar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e:</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ea</td>
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<tr>
<td>e:</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ae</td>
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<tr>
<td>i:</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ee</td>
</tr>
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<td>o:</td>
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<td>oe</td>
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<td>o:</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>or</td>
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<td>u:</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>oo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Long vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long vowels</th>
<th>Long vowels</th>
<th>Long vowels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ui</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>eu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>øi</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>er</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Diphthongs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diphthongs</th>
<th>Diphthongs</th>
<th>Diphthongs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i:a</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i:a</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>oer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u:a</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ai; aj</td>
<td>ai</td>
<td>ai</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Tone

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tone</th>
<th>Shan</th>
<th>Thai</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tone 1</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone 2</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone 3</td>
<td>Low falling</td>
<td>Falling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone 4</td>
<td>Falling</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone 5</td>
<td>Rising</td>
<td>Rising</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.3 Analyzing and classifying the morphological words. According to the comparative Shan and standard Thai as the following 3 types:

1) To analyze and classify morpheme of monomorphemic and polymorphemic in combination of morphemes to form words.

2) To analyze and classify the word-formation on structure of new compound word.

3) To analyze and classify word-classes of the Shan dialect spoken such as; parts of speech, particles.

### 3.4 Collection of Data

The comparative study of Shan and standard Thai was collected by the researcher from the modern usage in Shan, English and Thai such as books, academic books, dictionary format (Shan & Thai, Shan & English, English & Shan), Thai Dictionary format (Thai to English, English to Thai), thesis, documentary, articles, library, online
and interview. The total data had to be written down to find out the original language and pronunciation as the following transliteration which is concentrated on Shan, and standard Thai.

Data and related information were collected from the interview and used sound recorded, in-depth interviews were carried out in a relaxed manner, in a private setting. The interviewer used open-ended questions for a period of about 20 minutes. The participants were encouraged to discuss the open-ended questions privately with the researcher. The general theme meant each participant was taken through an identical set of themes that were asked in the same way.

Then, all items were classified in each type of Shan and standard Thai in the appendix. After that, amount of Shan and standard Thai samplings spoken in Shan language expected a part of speech and particle to analyze figure out in conditional potency of usage. However, the transliterations in those words world be indicated as the possible coinage from compound word and discussed the result in chapter 4.

3.5 Analysis of Data

Data analysis of the research study was shown and discussed with illustrations each type and word as follows:

3.5.1 The morphology was classified in types of morphemes, word-formation, word-classes. Each type of Shan and standard Thai was analyzed based on the guideline of review of literature.

3.5.2 The data were summarized and discussed the results and gave recommendations in the chapter 5.
Chapter IV

Research Results

This chapter deals with the comparative Shan and standard Thai morphology system. The focus is on morpheme, word formation and the word-classes. As a monosyllabic basic word are in the form of one word one syllable. Therefore, new words are formed by compounding word to word without changing their original forms.

Each category consists of words behaving in a manner which distinguishes them from the word belonging to the morphology concerned such as morpheme of monomorphemic, polymorphemic, word-formation of new compound word and word classes of a part of speech etc. This chapter is focused on the comparative study of Shan and standard Thai morphological as concerned.

To analyze and compare each kind of morphemes forms in Shan and standard Thai.

To analyze and compare the word-formation of compound word in Shan and standard Thai.

To analyze and compare the word-classes of parts of speech in Shan and standard Thai.

4.1 Kind of Morpheme Forms in Shan and Standard Thai

A morphology form of Shan and standard Thai, how they are formed? and their relationship to other words in the same language? The combine in a systematic way to constitute what are commonly known as words of monomorphemic and polymorphemic forms of morphemes in both the dialects may fall under the following types:

4.1.1 Monomorphemic Forms

The comparative study of monomorphemic forms in Shan and standard Thai consist of only one morpheme in both dialects:
4.1.1.1 Monosyllabic Forms

Some monomorphemic words of Shan and standard Thai are not different. There are not change of any words and meaning as the consisted of one morpheme in both dialect as the following examples:


The word of Shan and standard Thai is similar, and just change a little bit tone in both dialects as follow the examples:

Shan = /ba:1/ 'father' /me:1/ 'mother' /li:5/ 'to be good' /khaw1/ 'rice' /nɔn4/ 'to sleep' /kin5/ 'to eat' /koy1/ 'banana'.
ST = /phɔ:3/ 'father' /me:3/ 'mother' /di:5/ 'to be good' /kha:w3/ 'rice' /nɔn1/ 'to sleep' /kin1/ 'to eat' /kroj1/ 'banana'.

The word of consonant and tone are different, but the meaning has the same in both dialects of one morpheme as the following.
Examples:

Shan = /han4/ 'house' /phan5/ 'table' /sɔ̂t3/ 'to drink' /lɔt1/ 'to say'
ST = /ba:n3/ 'house' /do:3/ 'table' /lдум2/ 'to drink' /phut3/ 'to say'

4.1.1.2 Polysyllabic Forms

The simple forms are consisted of only one morpheme and combined with other forms. The following some examples of simple forms of polysyllabic in Shan and standard Thai.


The polysyllabic forms /luk1 suk4/ the meaning soldier, some another Shan has used the word of /suk4 ha:n5/ or /kon4 suk4/. Each past of Shan used the name of soldier belongs to in different place.
4.1.2 Polymorphemic Forms

The comparison of polymorphemic forms in Shan and standard Thai are more than one morpheme. There are five types of complex forms added to noun, adjective and verbs.

4.1.2.1 Composite Forms

The composite forms are those forms which consist of more than one simple form. The important types of compounding in composite forms are as follows in both dialects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun + Noun</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shan</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/me:(^1) + nam:(^3)/ (mother + water)</td>
<td>/me:(^1) nam:(^3)/ 'river'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/faj(^4) + fa:(^3)/ (fire + sky)</td>
<td>/faj(^4) fa:(^3)/ 'electricity'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/me:(^3) + nam:(^3)/ (mother + water)</td>
<td>/me:(^3) nam:(^3)/ 'river'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/phaj(^1) + fa:(^3)/ (fire + sky)</td>
<td>/phaj(^1) fa:(^3)/ 'electricity'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Noun added noun to be noun in both dialects are well known the words of /me:\(^1\) nam:\(^3\)/ 'river' and /phaj\(^1\) fa:\(^3\)/ 'electricity'. As we see the composite forms are very similarly in Shan and standard Thai.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun + Verb</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shan</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/hoŋ(^4) + hen(^4)/ (hall + learn)</td>
<td>/hoŋ(^4) hen(^4)/ 'school'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ma:k(^2) + ka:(^2)/ (fruit + go)</td>
<td>/ma:k(^2) ka:(^2)/ 'guava'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/roŋ(^1) + len(^1)/ (hall + learn)</td>
<td>/roŋ(^1) len(^1)/ 'school'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ma:(^3) + naŋ(^3)/ (horse + sit)</td>
<td>/ma:(^3) naŋ(^3)/ 'stool'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun + Adjective</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shan</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/caj(^5) + jen(^5)/ (mind + cool)</td>
<td>/caj(^5) jen(^5)/ 'patient'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/cau(^5) + li:(^5)/ (mind + good)</td>
<td>/cau(^5) li:(^5)/ 'kind-hearted'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/khu:(^4) + jau(^2)/ (teacher + big)</td>
<td>/khu:(^1) jau(^2)/ 'headmaster'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/caj(^1) + jen(^1)/ (mind + cool)</td>
<td>/caj(^1) jen(^1)/ 'patient'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/caj(^1) + di:(^1)/ (mind + good)</td>
<td>/caj(^1) di:(^1)/ 'kind-hearted'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/khru:(^1) + jaj(^2)/ (teacher + big)</td>
<td>/khru:(^1) jaj(^2)/ 'headmaster'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb + Noun</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shan</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/phat(^3) + lom(^4)/ (to fat + wind)</td>
<td>/phat(^3) lom(^4)/ 'fan'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The words of noun that added verb, adjective, to be noun and the words of verb added noun, verb the words are change some a little bit vowel and tone from modern usage in both dialect of Shan and standard Thai.

### 4.1.2.2 Prefix-Derived Forms

Those prefix-derived forms are to which some morphemes a prefixed to form complex forms. The following with /nak4/ /ka:n5/ (Shan) /nak4/ /ka:n5/ (ST) are the morphemes to be prefixed to form complex forms in both dialects:

- **Shan**
  - /lɔː/ (accrue)
  - /hɔːŋ/ (home)
  - /hɔːŋ/ (rajah)
  - /kin/ (to eat)
  - /tɛm/ (to write)
- **ST**
  - /kot2 ma:ŋ/ (law)
  - /phaː/ saː sat/ (linguistics)
  - /baːn/ (home)
  - /dɔn/ (to walk)
  - /phut/ (to speak)

Many words of sound the same, but some meaning is different. Shan sometimes can have initial cluster, like /nak4/ it mean heavy, /nak4/ in Thai mean so much or very.
4.1.2.3 Suffix-Derived Forms

The suffix-derived forms are those forms to which some morphemes are suffixed to form complex forms. The following /kɔn¹, /kum⁵/ (Shan) /kɔn⁴/, /sa:t²/ (ST) are the morphemes to be suffixed in both dialects:

Shan  /heŋ⁴/ (strength)   /heŋ⁴-kɔn¹/ 'strongly'
      /ŋun⁴/ (money)       /ŋun⁴-kɔn¹/ 'investiture'
      /ba:ŋ⁵/ (plebiscite) /ba:ŋ⁵-kum⁵/ 'meeting'
      /phu:¹ ?up²/ (talker) /phu:¹ ?up²- kum⁵/ 'negotiator'
ST   /phi:³ thi:¹/ (rite)  /phi:³ thi:¹-kɔn⁴/ 'Master of ceremonies'
      /ka:¹ si:⁵/ (agriculture) /ka:¹ si:⁵-kɔn⁴/ 'agriculturist'
      /pha:¹ sa:⁵/ (language)  /pha:¹ sa:⁵-sat²/ 'linguistics'
      /saŋ⁵ khom⁴/ (society)  /saŋ⁵ khom⁴-sa:t²/ 'sociology'

The suffix-derived forms of these Shan and standard Thai are almost the same, no big differences in forming the words. Actually, there both languages are highly isolating which means, and the words themselves do not change, they are only added up one after another to form meanings.

4.1.2.4 Reduplicated Forms

The reduplication is expended by simply repeating or adding some other compound forms having the same syllable as the first part of the first compound forms for the sake of repeating. The normal patterns of reduplicated forms in both of dialects:

Shan  /luk¹+luk¹/ (child+ child) /luk¹ luk¹/ 'children'
      /la:n⁵+ la:n⁵/ (nephew+ nephew) /la:n⁵ la:n⁵/ 'nephews'
      /bi:¹- bi:¹ /ŋɔŋ³-ŋɔŋ³/ 'brothers and sisters'
          (bi:¹+ elder brother or sister)
          (ŋɔŋ³+ younger brother or sister)
      /ma:⁵-ma:⁵ + mɛw⁴-mɛw⁴/ 'dog and cat'
          (ma:⁵ + dog)
          (mɛw⁴ + cat)
ST   /dek²+ dek²/ (child+ child) /dek² dek²/ 'children'
In spoken standard Thai, both derivational and inflectional functions are found in Thai reduplication. For derivation, it is used to change word class from (1) noun to verb (2) noun to adverb (3) adjective to adverb and (4) verb to adverb. In the last case, the changed form has a negative connotation added to it. Such as some examples in noun to noun

/maː⁵-maː⁵ /mɛw¹-mɛw¹/ 'dog and cat'

( maː⁵ + dog)

(mew¹+ cat)

4.1.2.5 Rhyming Forms

The rhyming forms have two major parts or halves, each half consists of at least two components the last or final component of the first half rhymes with the first component of the second half. The rhyming parts have the same vowels, tones may or may not be the same, but their initial consonants are always different. Here some example of rhyming forms may be used verbs or adverbs and adjectives in both dialects:

**Shan**

/mok²-maːk² /haːk¹ -maj³/ 'fruit'

/mok²/ flower

/maːk²/fruit

/haːk¹/ root

/maj³/ wood

**ST**

/ʃaːk³-diː¹ /miː¹-con¹/ 'to be poor'

/ʃaːk¹/ to be difficult

/diː¹/ good

/miː¹/ there is

/con¹/ to be poor
To determine the words of rhythming form in Shan /mɔk\(^2\)-ma:k\(^2\) /ha:k\(^3\)-maj\(^4\) / ‘mean fruit and standard Thai /ja:k\(^3\)-diː\(^1\) /miː\(^4\)-con\(^1\) / ‘mean to be poor’ are differences words, tone and meaning. Rhythming form in both dialects are almost different each other.

4.2 The Word-Formation of Compound Word in Shan and Standard Thai

Word formation is the creation of a new compound word of Shan and standard Thai. Word formation is sometimes contrasted with semantic change, which is a change in a single word’s meaning. The boundary between word formation and semantic change can be difficult to define: a new use of an old word can be seen as a new word derived from an old one and identical to form of compound word in both dialects as following the step.

4.2.1 Nominalization of Compound

The compound word of Shan begins with /kon\(^4\)/ means human and standard Thai begin with /khon\(^1\)/ to combine two or more existing words added to noun, verb and adjective indicating human in both dialects.

Here some examples of Shan the superordinate words /kon\(^4\)/ denotes to a man and it is used as a superordinate word added to a noun, verb and adjective indicating human each: /kon\(^4\) than\(^2\)/ (than\(^2\)+ forest) ‘barbarian’ /kon\(^4\) cau\(^3\)/ (cau\(^3\)+ to use) ‘servant’ /kon\(^4\) thɔːn\(^2\)/ (thɔːn\(^2\)+ to listen) ‘audience’ /kon\(^4\) jɔŋ\(^2\)/ (jɔŋ\(^2\)+ mad) ‘mad man’ /kon\(^4\) num\(^2\)/ (num\(^2\)+ young) ‘young man’ /kon\(^4\) ben\(^7\)/ (ben\(^3\)+ be) ‘patient’ /kon\(^4\) məŋ\(^4\)/ (məŋ\(^4\)+ city) ‘citizen’ /kon\(^4\) nɔk\(^1\)/ (nɔk\(^1\)+ out) ‘outsider’.

The word: /kon\(^4\) than\(^2\)/ has used different from Wan Pung village said by Lung Mawk Ngeois\(^1\) /kon\(^4\) paː\(^2\)/, /kon\(^4\) laj\(^3\)/, /kon\(^4\) hoj\(^1\) kon\(^4\) laj\(^3\)/ all of the word the same meaning ‘barbarian’.

In standard Thai the superordinate words /khon\(^1\)/ denotes to a man and it is used as a superordinate word added to a noun, verb and adjective indicating

\(^1\) Interview with Lung Mawk Ngeois, Warn Pung village, Tachileik township, Shan state, on July 13, 2018.
human each: /kon¹ paː²/ (paː²+ forest) ‘barbarian’ /kon¹ chaj³/ (chaj³+ to use) ‘servant’ /kon¹ phaj⁴/ (phaj⁴+ to listen) ‘audience’ /kon¹ baː³/ (baː³+ mad) ‘mad man’ /kon¹ num²/ (num²+young) ‘young man’ /kon¹ puːaj²/ (puːaj²+ to be sick) ‘patient’ /kon¹ maŋ¹/ (maŋ¹+ city) ‘citizen’ /kon¹ nɔk⁴/ (nɔk⁴+ out) ‘outsider’

Some superordinate compound word of Shan and standard Thai has the similar and change consonant and tone in both dialects as the following.

Examples:

Shan = /kon⁴/ ‘human’
/kon⁴ baː²/ (baː²+ forest) ‘barbarian’

ST = /khon¹/ ‘human’
/khon¹ paː²/ (paː²+ forest) ‘barbarian’

The compound word of Shan begins with /maːk²/ means fruit and standard Thai begin with /maː³/ to combine two or more existing words added to noun indicating fruit in both dialects:

The examples of Shan the superordinate words /maːk²/ denotes to a fruit and it is used as a superordinate word added to a noun, indicating fruit each: /maːk² ʔun⁵/ (ʔun⁵+ use for name of person) ‘coconut’ /maːk² phaŋ⁴/ (phaŋ⁴+ hay) ‘star fruit’ /maːk² moŋ¹/ (moŋ¹+ caterpillar) ‘mango’ /maːk² ʔun¹/ ‘lemon’ /maːk² kɛŋ⁴/ ‘tamarind’ /maːk² kɔk²/ ‘hog plum’.

The examples of standard Thai the superordinate words /maː³/ denotes to a fruit and it is used as a superordinate word added to a noun, verb and adjective indicating fruit each: /maː³ phraːw³/ (phraːw³+ to wait) ‘coconut’ /maː³ phaŋ¹/ (phaŋ¹+ hay) ‘star fruit’ /maː³ moŋ³/ (moŋ³+ purple) ‘mango’ /maː³ naːw¹/ ‘lemon’ /maː³ kʰaːm⁵/ ‘tamarind’ /maː³ kɔk³/ ‘hog plum’.

The compound word in Shan and standard Thai has change a little bit tone in both dialects as follow the examples:

Shan = /maːk²/ ‘fruit’
/maːk² phaŋ¹/ (phaŋ¹+ hay) ‘star fruit’
/maːk² moŋ¹/ (moŋ¹+ caterpillar) ‘mango’
The compound word of Shan begins with /ton1/ means tree and stand Thai begin with /ton3/ to combine two or more existing words added to noun indicating tree in both dialects:

Here some examples of Shan the superordinate words /ton1/ denotes to a tree and it is used as a superordinate word added to a noun, indicating tree each: /ton1 ma:k2 ʔun5/ (ma:k2 ʔun5 + coconut) ‘coconut tree’ /ton1 khaw1/ (khaw1+ rice) ‘rice plant’ /ton1 ʔɔj1/ (ʔɔj1+ sugar) ‘sugar cane’ /ton1 koj1/ (koj1+ banana) ‘banana tree’ /ton1 maj3/ (maj3+ log) ‘tree’ /ton1 maj3 sak4/ (maj3 sak4+ teak) ‘teak tree’ /ton1 ma:k2 sak4/ (ma:k2 sak4+ orange) ‘orange tree’.


The compound word in Shan and standard Thai has change the tone in both dialects as the following of some examples:

Shan = /ton1/ ‘tree’
   /ton1 khaw1/ (khaw1+ rice) ‘rice
   /ton1 koj1/ (koj1+ banana) ‘banana

ST = /ton3/ ‘rice’
   /ton3 kha:w3/ (kha:w3+ rice) ‘rice plant’
   /ton3 koj3/ (koj3+ banana) ‘banana tree’

Tones are the biggest differences among these two languages, but they also vary a lot between dialects of standard Thai. Both languages have tones, just
like Shan /ton¹/ and standard Thai /ton³/. The tones often do not correspond to each other, if Shan has middle tones standard Thai have falling tones.

The compound word of Shan begins with /caw¹/ means owner and standard Thai begin with /cha:w¹/ means person to combine two or more existing words added to noun indicating owner and people in both dialects:

The compound word in Shan and standard Thai has changed consonant and tone in both dialects as the following.

Examples:

Shan = /caw¹/ 'owner'

/caw¹ naː⁴/ (naː⁴+ farm) 'farmer'
/caw¹ haː⁴/ (haː⁴+ boat) 'mariner'

ST = /cha:w¹/ 'person'

/cha:w¹ naː¹/ (naː¹+ farm) 'farmer'
/cha:w¹ raː¹/ (raː¹+ boat) 'mariner'

4.2.2 The Class Term Compound

The class term compound words of Shan begin with /ti:¹/ means place and standard Thai begin with /thi:³/ means place to combine two or more existing words added to verb, adjective, adverb and preposition indicating place in both dialects:

Here some examples of Shan the compound words by classifiers as /ti:¹/ denotes to place and it is used as a class term to a word indicating place. Such as

/ti:¹ lin⁵/ (lin⁵+earth) 'land' /ti:¹ tem²/ (tem²+ short) 'lowland' /ti:¹ nan⁴/ (nan⁴+ to sleep) 'bed' /ti:¹ kaw²/ (kaw²+ old) 'original place' /ti:¹ cut² ?on²⁷/ (cut² ?on²⁷+ weak-point) 'weak-point' /ti:¹ naj¹/ (naj¹+ here) 'here' /ti:¹ nan¹/ (nan¹+ there) 'there' /ti:¹ lau⁵/ (lau⁵+ where) 'where' /ti:¹ te:³/ (te:³+ real) 'actually' /ti:¹ tau¹/ (tau¹+ under) 'beneath' /ti:¹ naaj¹/ (naaj¹+ to sit) 'sitting place' /ti:¹ buŋ¹/ (buŋ¹+ refuge) 'place of refuge' /ti:¹ jip⁴/ (jip⁴+ hold) 'handle' /ti:¹ ka:n⁵/ (ka:n⁵+ work) 'work place'.

The examples of standard Thai compound words by classifiers as /thi:³/ denotes to place and it is used as a class term to a word indicating place. Such as

/thi:³ tin¹/ (tin¹+ earth) 'land' /thi:³ tam²/ (tam²+ low) 'lowland' /thi:³ nan¹/ (nan¹+ to
The class term compound in Shan and standard has the different consonants and tone in both dialects as the following.

Examples:

Shan = /ti:\1/ 'place'
   /ti:\1 lin\5/ (lin\5 + earth) 'land'
   /ti:\1 non\4/ (non\4 + to sleep) 'bed'

ST = /thi:\3/ 'place'
   /thi:\3 tin\1/ (tin\1 + earth) 'land'
   /thi:\3 non\1/ (non\1 + to sleep) 'bed'

4.2.3 The Word Class Compound

The word class compound of Shan and standard Thai has combination with noun, verb, adjective and preposition. Based on disyllabic compound and trisyllabic compound in both dialects. Below are the examples of disyllabic and trisyllabic compound words.

The word noun to added with noun and be noun word in Shan and standard Thai disyllabic as follows:

\[ \text{Noun + Noun} \rightarrow \text{Noun} \]

Shan = /ten\4 khaj\5/ (ten\4 + candle, khaj\5 + fat) 'candle'
   /nam\3 nom\4/ (nam\3 + water, nom\4 + breast) 'milk'
   /bo:\1 me:\1/ (bo:\1 + father, me:\1 + mother) 'parents'
   /hon\4 maj\3/ (hon\4 + house, maj\3 + wood) 'wooden house'
   /kon\4 than\2/ (kon\4 + man, than\2 + forest) 'barbarian'
   /wa:n\1 maŋ\4/ (wa:n\1 + village, maŋ\4 + country) 'country'
   /maŋ\4 khe:\2/ (maŋ\4 + country, khe:\2 + Chinese) 'China'
ST = /thi:an⁴ khaj⁵/ (thi:an¹ + candle, khaj⁵ + fat) 'candle'
/nam³ nom¹/ (nam³ + water, nom¹ + breast) 'milk'
/phɔ:⁴ me:³/ (phɔ:³ + father, me:³ + mother) 'parents'
/ba:n³ maj⁵/ (ba:n³ + house, maj⁵ + wood) 'wooden house'
/khon¹ pa:²/ (khon¹ + man, pa:² + forest) 'barbarian'
/ba:n³ maj³⁴/ (ba:n³ + house, maj³⁴ + country) 'country'
/məŋ¹ cin¹/ (məŋ¹ + country, cin¹ + Chinese) 'China'

Noun + Verb    Noun
Shan = /hoŋ⁴ hen⁴/ (hoŋ⁴ + hall, hen⁴ + to learn) 'school'
/luk⁴ non⁴/ (luk⁴ + room, non⁴ + to sleep) 'bedroom'
/kon⁴ len¹/ (kon⁴ + man, len¹ + to run) 'runner'

Noun + Adjective    Noun
Shan = /lin⁵ new⁵/ (lin⁵ + clay, new⁵ + sticky) 'clay'
/luk¹ ?on²/ (luk¹ + child, ?on² + small) 'children'
/kon⁴ thaw¹/ (kon⁴ + man, thaw¹ + old) 'old man'

Noun + Preposition    Noun
Shan = /wa:n¹ nok¹/ (wa:n¹ + village, nok¹ + outside) 'countryside'
/kon⁴ nau:⁴/ (kon⁴ + man, nau:⁴ + inside) 'insider'
/bɔt⁴ hɔŋ²/ (bɔt⁴ + part, hɔŋ² + north) 'northern'

ST = /thi:an¹ khaj⁵/ (thi:an¹ + candle, khaj⁵ + fat) 'candle'
/nam³ nom¹/ (nam³ + water, nom¹ + breast) 'milk'
/phɔ:⁴ me:³/ (phɔ:³ + father, me:³ + mother) 'parents'
/ba:n³ maj⁵/ (ba:n³ + house, maj⁵ + wood) 'wooden house'
/khon¹ pa:²/ (khon¹ + man, pa:² + forest) 'barbarian'
/ba:n³ maj³⁴/ (ba:n³ + house, maj³⁴ + country) 'country'
/məŋ¹ cin¹/ (məŋ¹ + country, cin¹ + Chinese) 'China'

Noun + Verb    Noun
Shan = /hoŋ⁴ hen⁴/ (hoŋ⁴ + hall, hen⁴ + to learn) 'school'
/luk⁴ non⁴/ (luk⁴ + room, non⁴ + to sleep) 'bedroom'
/kon⁴ len¹/ (kon⁴ + man, len¹ + to run) 'runner'

Noun + Adjective    Noun
Shan = /lin⁵ new⁵/ (lin⁵ + clay, new⁵ + sticky) 'clay'
/luk¹ ?on²/ (luk¹ + child, ?on² + small) 'children'
/kon⁴ thaw¹/ (kon⁴ + man, thaw¹ + old) 'old man'

Noun + Preposition    Noun
Shan = /wa:n¹ nok¹/ (wa:n¹ + village, nok¹ + outside) 'countryside'
/kon⁴ nau:⁴/ (kon⁴ + man, nau:⁴ + inside) 'insider'
/bɔt⁴ hɔŋ²/ (bɔt⁴ + part, hɔŋ² + north) 'northern'
The word compound of Shan and standard Thai has combination with noun, verb, and adjective. Based on trisyllabic of compound more than three syllables in both dialects:

**Noun + Noun ➔ Noun**

**Shan**

\[
/\text{nam}^3 \text{ nom}^4 \text{ wo}^4/ \text{ (nam}^3+\text{water}, \text{ nom}^4+\text{breast}, \text{ wo}^4+\text{cow})
\]

'cow milk'

\[
/\text{sa}^3 \text{j}^4 \text{ kho}^4 \text{ kham}^4/ \text{ (sa}^3+\text{string}, \text{ kho}^4+\text{neck}, \text{ kham}^4+\text{gold})
\]

'gold necklace'

\[
/\text{mok}^2 \text{ mo}^4 \text{ nam}^3/ \text{ (mok}^2+\text{flower}, \text{ mo}^4+\text{pot}, \text{ nam}^3+\text{water})
\]

'flower vase'

**ST**

\[
/\text{nam}^3 \text{ nom}^1 \text{ wu}^4/ \text{ (nam}^3+\text{water}, \text{ nom}^1+\text{breast}, \text{ wu}^4+\text{cow})
\]

'cow milk'

\[
/\text{dok}^2 \text{ maj}^3 \text{ nam}^3/ \text{ (dok}^2+\text{bloom}, \text{ maj}^3+\text{wood}, \text{ nam}^3+\text{water})
\]

'water fireworks'

\[
/\text{pla}^4 \text{ pa}^2 \text{ k}^2 \text{ dab}^2/ \text{ (pla}^4+\text{fish}, \text{ pa}^2+\text{mouth}, \text{ dab}^2+\text{blade})
\]

'dorado'

**Noun + Noun ➔ Verb**

**Shan**

\[
/\text{na}^3 \text{ mu}^5 \text{ sa}^4/ \text{ (na}^3+\text{meat}, \text{ mu}^5+\text{pig}, \text{ sa}^4+\text{salad})
\]

'minced pork salad'

\[
/\text{kon}^4 \text{ na}^4 \text{ ki}^5/ \text{ (kon}^4+\text{man}, \text{ na}^4+\text{face}, \text{ ki}^5+\text{blossom})
\]

'joyful man'

**ST**

\[
/\text{pla}^4 \text{ nam}^3 \text{ lu}^4/ \text{ (pla}^4+\text{fish}, \text{ nam}^3+\text{water, lu}^4+\text{deep})
\]

'ground fish'

\[
/\text{dok}^2 \text{ maj}^3 \text{ thal}^5 \text{ le}^4/ \text{ (dok}^2+\text{bloom}, \text{ maj}^3+\text{wood, thal}^5+\text{sea})
\]

'sea anemone'

**Noun + Noun ➔ Adjective**

**Shan**

\[
/\text{nam}^3 \text{ nej}^4 \text{ khom}^5/ \text{ (nam}^3+\text{water, nej}^4+\text{tea, khom}^5+\text{bitter})
\]

'plain tea'

\[
/\text{kon}^4 \text{ caj}^5 \text{ li}^5/ \text{ (kon}^4+\text{man, caj}^5+\text{mind, li}^5+\text{good})
\]

'kind person'
ST = /nam^3 sa:^1 khom^5/ (nam^3+water, sa:^1+tea, khom^5+bitter)
‘plain tea’
/khon^1 caj^5 di:^1/ (khon^1+man, caj^5+mind, di:^1+good)
‘kind person’

Noun + Verb ———> Noun

Shan = /nam^3 tok^4 ta:t^2/ (nam^3+water, tok^4+fall, ta:t^2+cascade)
‘water fall’
/hən^4 mun^4 kha:^/ (hən^4+house, mun^4+cover, kha:^4+salt)
‘thatched house’
/khaj^2 ce:^1 kə:^5/ (khaj^2+egg, ce:^1+soak, kə:^5+salt)
‘salted egg’
/mɔ:^1 hun^5 kha:w^3/ (mɔ:^1+pot, hun^5+cook, kha:w^3+rice)
‘rice cooker’
/khon^1 khab^2 rot^3/ (khon^1+man, khab^2+drive, rot^3+car)
‘driver’

4.2.4 The Semantic Compound

Semantic compound words are created to be used for literary stylictics or aesthetic function. The semantic compound words of Shan and standard Thai which their meaning is the same or related consisting to two words with the same word class in Shan such as: /cep^4 sep^2/ (cep^4+ hurt, sep^2+ wound) ‘pain’ /lik^1 la:j^4/ (lik^1+letter, la:j^4+method) ‘letter’ /li:^5 ɲa:m^4/ (li:^5+good, ɲa:m^4+beautiful) ‘good’ /kat^3 khen^2/ (kat^3+clever, khen^2+skillful) ‘brilliant’ /ha:j^3 mak^1/ (ha:j^3+bad, mak^1+evil) ‘to wicked’ /tut^3 can^5/ (tut^3+pull, can^5+draw) ‘to pull’ /kjɔk^4 wen^5/ (kjɔk^4+jump, wen^5+leap) ‘to jump’ /ɲun^4 kham^1/ (ɲun^4+money, kham^1+gold) ‘wealth’ /man^1 kum^4/ (man^1+intend to, kum^4+stabilize) ‘firm’ /khaj^1 na:w^5/ (khaj^1+ill, na:w^5+ill)
Here the semantic compound word of standard Thai which their meaning is the same or related consisting to two words with the same word class such as: 

/ceb^2 pot^2/ (ceb^2+hurt, pot^2+pain) 'pain' /to:\^5 ?ak^2 son^5/ (to:\^5+body, ?ak^2 son^5+letter) 'letter' /khwa:m^1 di:\^1/ (khwa:m^1+case, di:\^1+good) 'good' /suk^2 swa:ng^2/ (suk^2+ fresh, swa:ng^2+clear) 'brilliant' /cho:\^3 ra:j^3/ (cho:\^3+era, ra:j^3+bad) 'to wicked' /ka:n^5 du:n^1/ (ka:n^5+work, du:n^1+ pull) 'to pull' /kra:^2 dod^2/ (kra:^2+spot, dod^2+jump) 'to jump' /?yun^1 thoa^4/ (?yu:n^1+ money, thoa^4+ gold) 'wealth' /nak^2 nen^3/ (nak^2+ heavy, nen^3+ surely) 'firm' /pot^2 khaj^3/ (pot^2+ pain, khaj^3+ ill) 'ill' /jaj^2 to:\^1/ (jaj^2+ large to:\^1+ be big) 'big' /ma:^2 nu:j^2/ (ma:^2+ be tired of, nu:j^2+ bore) 'tired of' /ra:^1 kho:j^1/ (ra:^1+ wait, kho:j^1+ to wait for) 'to wait' /khwom^1 wa:n^5/ (khwom^1+ word, wa:n^5+ to hope) 'to hope' /khaw^3 caj^5/ (khaw^3+ to enter, caj^5+ mind) 'to understand' /krej^1 kro:^1/ (krej^1+ fear, kro:^1+ afraid) 'afraid'.

The semantic compound of Shan and standard Thai which their meaning is the same but, some word of vowed and tone has change as consisting to two words with the same word class in both dialects as the following some examples:

Shan = /cep^4 sep^2/ (cep^4+hurt, sep^2+wound) 'pain'

/ ?yun^1 kham^4/ (yu:n^1+ money, kham^4+gold) 'wealth'

/khaj^1 na:w^5/ (khaj^1+ ill, na:w^5+ ill) 'ill'

ST = /ceb^2 pot^2/ (ceb^2+hurt, pot^2+pain) 'pain'

/ ?yun^1 thoa^4/ (yu:n^1+ money, thoa^4+ gold) 'wealth'

/pot^2 khaj^3/ (pot^2+ pain, khaj^3+ ill) 'ill'

The semantic compound words with the opposite meaning is used together to generalize the meaning to thing. Both words weaken their original meanings and create a new meaning in both dialects.

Examples:
4.3 The Word-Classes of Shan and Standard Thai

The researcher has research from the books, academic books, dictionary format, thesis, documentary, articles, and the words interview Shan people in Tachileik Shan state Myanmar. To compare the word-classes of Shan and standard Thai as a part of speech that are considered to be functional, such as; noun, adjectives, verbs, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection and particle in both dialects. As follow the step in both dialects:

4.3.1 Nouns

There are common nouns and proper nouns. A common noun refers to a person, place. A proper noun is the name of a particular person, place, or thing; it usually begins with a capital letter in both dialects.

4.3.1.1 Proper Noun

A proper noun is the name of a particular person, place, organization, or thing. Proper nouns begin with a capital letter. The words of proper noun that Shan and standard Thai has used every day in both of dialect.

a) The Name of Person

Shan  /sa:1 thi:4 seŋ5/  'male'  /na:ŋ4 hom5/ 'female'
 /luŋ1 soŋ1/  'male'  /ba:1 kham4/ 'female'
ST  /sa:5 məŋ5/  'male'  /ma:1 ri:1/ 'female'
 /cha:5 thon1/  'male'  /chaj1 ja:1 phon1/ 'male'

b) The Name of Places

Shan  /paŋ5 loŋ5/  'Panglong'  /ta:5 chi:1 lek4/ 'Tachileik'
 /keŋ4 tun5/  'Kengtung'  /koŋ3 kha:j5/ 'Kutkhai'
ST  /kruŋ1 thep3/  'Bangkok'  /chen1 maj2/ 'Chiang Mai'
4.3.1.2 Abstract Noun

Abstract nouns are a type of noun that can’t see or touch. A noun is a person, place or thing. However, in many cases, that ‘thing’ may be an intangible concept, or an abstract form of noun. abstract refers to something that exists apart from concrete existence. An abstract noun may include an aspect, concept, idea, experience, state of being, trait, quality, feeling as following in Shan and standard Thai of dialects:

Shan = /ləŋ¹ com⁴ sau⁴/ ‘happiness’ /lən⁵ kheŋ⁵/ ‘hardness’ /cəŋ² ləŋ² li⁵/ ‘sorrow’ /ləŋ¹ ən⁴ mon⁴/ ‘softness’ /ləŋ¹ nə⁵ lə⁵/ ‘kindness’ /ləŋ¹ khən³/ ‘laziness’ /ləŋ¹ hak³/ ‘love’ /dəː⁴ saː⁴/ ‘anger’ /ləŋ¹ mon⁴ saː⁴/ ‘pleasure’ /ləŋ³ phaː⁴/ ‘greed’ /ləŋ¹ maj⁴/ ‘heat’ /ləŋ¹ ben⁴ əŋ⁴ ko³/ ‘friendship’ /səŋ⁵ ləŋ⁴/ ‘light’ /bən⁵ lək¹ ən⁴/ ‘childhood’ /ləŋ⁴ jəː⁵/ ‘length’ /bən⁵ ko³ saŋ⁴/ ‘manhood’ /dəŋ⁴ suŋ⁵/ ‘height’.

ST = /kʰwaːm¹ suk²/ ‘happiness’ /kʰwaːm¹ kheŋ⁵/ ‘hardness’ /səw³ cəŋ⁴/ ‘sorrow’ /kʰwaːm¹ ən² num³/ ‘softness’ /kʰwaːm¹ medːa¹/ ‘kindness’ /kʰwaːm¹ kiːːr² kʰraːn³/ ‘laziness’ /kʰwaːm¹ rəŋ⁴/ ‘love’ /kroː⁵/ ‘anger’ /kʰwaːm¹ piː² diː² tiː¹/ ‘pleasure’ /kʰwaːm¹ ləŋ⁴/ ‘greed’ /kʰwaːm¹ ran³/ ‘heat’ /kʰwaːm¹ swaŋ⁴/ ‘light’ /wəj¹ əːŋ²/ ‘childhood’ /kʰwaːm¹ jəː⁵/ ‘length’ /kʰwaːm¹ pen⁵ chaj¹/ ‘manhood’ /kʰwaːm¹ suŋ⁵/ ‘height’.

4.3.1.3 Collective Noun

Collective nouns are names for a collection or a number of people or things in Shan and standard Thai. Words like group, herd, and array are collective noun examples. Here, we’ll take a closer look at collective nouns, and provide even more examples:

Shan = /kum⁴/ ‘group’ /nə¹ hən⁴/ ‘family’ /muk³ kon⁴/ ‘crowd’ /ləŋ¹ hən⁴/ ‘class’ /səuk⁴/ ‘army’ /kum⁴/ ‘team’ /dəŋ³ nam³/ ‘navy’ /kum⁴/ ‘pair’.

ST = /krum²/ ‘group’ /khrəj³ khrəː¹/ ‘family’ /phung⁵ chon¹/ ‘crowd’ /ləŋ³ riːən¹/ ‘class’ /kəŋ⁵ thap⁴/ ‘army’ /krum²/ ‘team’ /kəŋ⁵ thap⁴ ra⁴/ ‘navy’ /khuː³/ ‘pair’.

4.3.1.4 Material Noun

Material noun is the name given to the material, substance or things made up of alloy. It refers to the type of substance instead of individual particles of
the substance. Material nouns are not countable means we cannot count them because they are in the forms of liquid, semi-liquid or solid. This noun is especially called as material noun because nouns in this class are almost materials in Shan and standard Thai as the followings:

Shan = /nam⁳/ 'water' /lom⁴/ 'air' /lin⁵/ 'earth' /ʔun⁵/ 'muď' /sa:j⁴/ 'sand' /maj⁴/ 'wood' /lin⁵ thun⁴/ 'chalk' /kuŋ⁵/ 'cotton' /phen⁷/ kho:⁴/ 'cloth' /naŋ⁵/ 'leather' /ceː¹ jaːŋ⁵/ 'plastic' /heː¹/ 'metal' /kham⁴/ 'gold' /ŋun⁴/ 'silver' /khaw¹ sa:n⁵/ 'rice' /men²/ 'wheat' /khaw¹ nom⁵ baŋ⁴/ 'bread' /ka:⁵ wa:n⁵/ 'sugar' /ka:⁵/ 'salt' /na:³/ 'meat' /phak⁴ leŋ⁵/ 'beef' /phak⁴ phak²/ 'pork' /na:³ beː⁵/ 'mutton' /phak⁴/ 'curry' /nam⁵ man⁴/ 'oil' /nam³ nom⁴/ 'milk' /nam³ neŋ¹/ 'tea' /kaː² phiː²/ 'coffee'.

ST = /nam⁳/ 'water' /lom¹/ 'air' /phun³ din⁵/ 'earth' /khoː¹ lon¹/ 'muď' /sa:j¹/ 'sand' /maj³/ 'wood' /chok⁴/ 'chalk' /phaːj³/ 'cotton' /phaː³/ 'cloth' /naŋ⁷/ 'leather' /loː¹ haː²/ 'metal' /thøːj¹/ 'gold' /ŋun¹/ 'silver' /khaw³ /rice' /khaw³ saː³ liː¹/ 'wheat' /khnom⁵ baŋ¹/ 'bread' /nam³ tan⁵/ 'sugar' /klaː⁵/ 'salt' /naː³/ 'meat' /naː³ woː¹/ 'beef' /naː³ muː¹/ 'pork' /kəŋ⁵ phet²/ 'curry' /nam³ man¹/ 'oil' /nam³ nom¹/ 'milk' /nam³ chaː¹/ 'tea' /kaː¹ phiː¹/ 'coffee'.

4.3.1.5 Common Noun

A common noun is a more generalized version of a proper noun, which names a specific living or non-living thing, place, or idea. Proper nouns include the names of the months, the days of the week, organizations, people and their titles, places, books, plays, movies, newspapers, and more. The common nouns are those forms which can used as the names of Shan and standard Thai as follow the examples:

Shan = /khuː⁴/ 'teacher /maː⁵/ 'dog' /kon⁴/ 'person' /kək⁴/ 'cup' /kwə³/ 'glass' /kon⁴/ 'human' /luk⁴ ?ɔn²/ 'child' /lok¹/ 'world'.

ST = /khuː¹/ 'teacher' /maː⁵/ 'dog' /khon¹/ 'person' /thøj³/ 'cup' /kwə³/ 'glass' /khon⁴/ 'human' /tek²/ 'child' /lok³/ 'world'.

The plurals of common nouns are usually forming with plural markers. The noun by itself does not include any notion of plurals as the following examples:
The name of day in Shan and standard Thai has used every day in Shan state and compare each both of dialect as follows:


ST = /naŋ^5 sa:n^5/ 'books' /phok^3 phra:^3/ 'monks' /mu:2 tha:3 ha:n^5/ 'soldiers' /phok^3 khru:^1/ 'teachers' /phuj^5 khaj^1/ 'buffalos'.

The name of months in Shan and standard Thai has use every day in Shan state and compare each both of dialect as follows:

Shan = /lən^5 ceŋ:^5/ 'January' /lən^5 kan:^5/ 'February' /lən^5 sa:m^5/ 'March' /lən^5 si:2/ 'April' /lən^5 ha:1/ 'May' /lən^5 hok^4/ 'June' /lən^5 cet^4/ 'July' /lən^5 bɛt^2/ 'August' /lən^5 kaw^1/ 'September' /lən^5 sip^4/ 'October' /lən^5 sip^4 pe:^4/ 'November' /lən^5 sip^4 səŋ^5/ 'December'.

ST = /mok^1 kra:^1 khom^1/ 'January' /kum^1 pha:^1 phan^1/ 'February' /mi:1 na:1 khom^1/ 'March' /me:^1 sa:^5 jon^1/ 'April' /phru:^3 sa:^5 pha:^1 khom^1/ 'May' /mi:^3 thu:^5 na:1 jon^1/ 'June' / kra:3 kha:^1 khom^1/ 'July' /səŋ^5 ha:5 khom^1/ 'August' /kan^1 ja:^1 jon^1/ 'September' /tu:^1 la:^1 khom^1/ 'October' /phru:^3 sa:^5 ci:2 ka:^1 jon^1/ 'November' /than^1 wa:^1 khom^1/ 'December'.

4.3.2 Pronouns

The personal pronouns in Shan and standard Thai the dialects may be classified into the first person, second person, and third person as follow some examples of the forms are used as personal pronouns in different persons.
4.3.2.1 First Person

Shan = /kaw/ 'I' used by males and females when speaking to intimate equals and inferior, also used among school boys and girls.

ST = /chan/ 'I' used by males and females when speaking to intimate equals and inferior, also used among school boys and girls.

Shan = /kha:/ 'I' is impolite term used by both males and females, particularly among intimate or close friends.

ST = /kha:/ 'I' is impolite term used by females, particularly among intimate or close friends.

Shan = /kha:saj/ 'I' is a polite term used by males speaking to an equal or superiors except a member of a royal family.

ST = /phom/ 'I' is a polite term used by males speaking to an equal or superiors except a member of a royal family.

Shan = /kha: jiŋ/ 'I' used by females in addressing the granddaughter or grandson of the king.

ST = /mɔm chan/ 'I' used by females in addressing the granddaughter or grandson of the king.

Shan = /haw/ 'I' sued by males or females when speaking to intimate friends.

ST = /raw/ 'I' sued by males or females when speaking to intimate friends.

4.3.2.2 Second Person

They are many words used as the second personal pronouns in Shan and standard Thai of dialects.

The following some examples of forms are used as the second personal pronouns.

Shan = /mau/ 'you' generally polite term used by males and females while speaking to equals and inferiors, and used as a title name like Mr. or Mrs.
ST = /khun⁵/ 'you' generally polite term used by males and females while speaking to equals and inferiors, and used as a title name like Mr. or Mrs.

Shan = /caw¹/ 'you' used by both males and females. When the person addressed is a monk we use /caw¹/.

ST = /than³/ 'you' used by both males and females. When the person addressed is a monk we use /than³/.

Shan = /tak³ ka:²/ 'you' used by males or females a respectful term used by layman when speaking to monks.

ST = /jom¹/ 'you' used by males or females a respectful term used by layman when speaking to monks.

Shan = /su:⁵/ 'you' used by females when speaking to males and males speaking to females.

ST = /tha:¹/ 'you' used by females when speaking to inferiors and equals, by males speaking to inferiors, especially by teacher theirs.

Shan = /bo:¹ ?ak²/ 'you' used by the monk only when speaking to the male Buddhist Layman. /bo:¹ ?ak²/ 'you' used by the monk only when speaking to the female Buddhist layman.

ST = /jom¹/ 'you' used by the monk only when speaking to male and female Buddhist layman.

4.3.2.2 Third Person

The third person is used to refer to persons or things other than the speaker and addressee. The speaker and the hearer are necessarily present in the situation’ whereas other persons and things referred to may or may not be present. As follow the examples which are used as the third personal pronouns.

Shan = /su:⁵/ 'he, she ' sued by both males and females while referring to superiors such as parents, elder, kings, monks, high officials and others to whom one wishes to show special respect.
ST = /tha:n⁵/ 'he, she' sued by both males and females while referring to superiors such as; parents, elder, kings, monks, high officials and others to whom one wishes to show special respect.

Shan = /kha:w⁵/ 'he, she' used by both males and females while referring to male and female inferiors and friends or any other younger male or female in general.

ST = /kha:w⁵/ 'he, she' used by both males and females while referring to male and female inferiors and friends or any other younger male or female in general.

Shan = /ma:n⁴/ 'it' refers to animals and in-animate objects.

ST = /ma:n¹/ 'it' refers to animals and in-animate objects.

4.3.3 Adjectives

The adjective forms in Shan dialects are found to occur immediately after nouns, or between a nouns and classifier or between a nouns and numeral as follow example in Shan dialect such as /liː⁵/ 'good' /haːj³/ 'bad' /jɔm⁵/ 'thin' /biː⁴/ 'fat' /jau²/ 'big' /suŋ⁵/ 'tall' /lam⁵/ 'black' /hau⁵/ 'old' /num²/ 'young' /ŋaː¹/ 'stupid' /maj¹/ 'hot' /kət⁴/ 'cold' /leːk³/ 'small' /khoːm⁵/ 'bitter'.

The adjective forms in standard Thai dialects are found to occur immediately after nouns, or between a nouns and classifier or between a nouns and numeral as follow example in standard Thai dialect such as: /dīː¹/ 'good' /chɔː³/ 'bad' /phɔm⁵/ 'thin' /ʔoːn³/ 'fat' /jæj²/ 'big' /suŋ⁵/ 'tall' /dam¹/ 'black' /kɛː²/ 'old' /num²/ 'young' /ŋɔː³/ 'stupid' /rɔn³/ 'hot' /jɛn⁵/ 'cold' /leːk³/ 'small' /khoːm⁵/ 'bitter'.

To analyze the sentence in both dialects:
Examples:

Shan = /luk¹ kon⁴ liː⁵/ (luk¹+child, kon⁴+ human, liː⁵+ good) 'good boy'

ST = /deːk² khon¹ diː⁵/ (deːk²+ child, khon¹+ man, diː⁵ good) 'good boy'

Shan = /kruː⁴ suŋ⁵ saːm⁵ khon⁴/ (kruː⁴+teacher, suŋ⁵+tall, saːm⁵+three, khon⁴+human) 'three tall persons'.
The numerals fall under the class of adjectives or attributives, since they modify nouns or pronouns and may be divided into cardinals and ordinals. The cardinal numerals normally occur after nouns or pronouns follow the numeral morphemes of Shan in Tachileik and standard Thai dialect are expressed by both languages as follows:

Shan = /nuŋ¹/ 'one' /saŋ⁵/ 'two' /sa:m⁵/ 'three' /siː²/ 'four' /haː¹/ 'five' /hok⁴/ 'six' /cet³/ 'seven' /pet²/ 'eight' /kaw¹/ 'nine' /sip³/ 'ten' /sip⁴ /'eleven' /sa:w⁶/ 'twenty' /sa:w⁴ /'thirty' /sa:m⁵ /'thirty-one' /siː² sip⁴ /'forty' /siː² sip⁴ /'forty-one' /haː¹ sip³ /'fifty' /haː¹ sip⁴ /'fifty-one' /hok⁴ sip³ /'sixty' /hok⁴ sip⁴ /'sixty-one' /cet³ sip⁴ /'seventy' /cet³ sip⁴ /'seventy-one' /pet² sip³ /'eighty' /pet² sip⁴ /'eighty-one' /kaw¹ sip³ /'ninety' /kaw¹ sip³ /'ninety-one' /pак² /'hundred' /pак² nuŋ¹ /'one hundred' /hен³ /'thousand' /nuŋ¹ /'one thousand' /muŋ² /'ten-thousand' /sa:n⁵ /'hundred-thousand' /lan³ /'million' /nuŋ¹ lan³ /'one million'.

ST = /nuŋ² /'one' /saŋ⁵ /'two' /sa:m⁵ /'three' /siː² /'four' /haː¹ /'five' /hok² /'six' /cet² /'seven' /pet² /'eight' /kaw² /'nine' /sip² /'ten' /sip² /'eleven' /jiː³ sip² /'twenty' /jiː³ /'thirty' /sa:m⁵ /'thirty-one' /siː² sip² /'forty' /siː² sip² /'forty-one' /haː³ sip² /'fifty' /haː³ sip² /'fifty-one' /hok² sip² /'sixty' /hok² sip² /'sixty-one' /cet² sip² /'seventy' /cet² sip² /'seventy-one' /pet² sip³ /'eighty' /pet² sip⁴ /'eighty-one' /kaw³ sip³ /'hundreds' /kaw³ /'thousand' /muŋ² /'hundreds' /muŋ² /'one thousand' /muŋ² /'ten-thousand' /sa:n⁵ /'hundred-thousand' /lan³ /'million' /nuŋ² lan³ /'one million'.

All of above the different numerals in Shan /sa:w⁶/ 'twenty' /бак² /'hundreds' /hен³ /'thousand' and standard Thai /jiː³ sip² /'twenty' /рαj³ nuŋ² /'one hundred' /пαн¹ /'thousand' are very different in both dialects.

The ordinal numerals in both the dialects are formed by prefixing the morpheme /θiː³(ʃ)/ 'at, place' to cardinals from one onward, as follows:

Shan = /θiː³ nuŋ¹ /'first' /θiː³ saŋ⁵ /'second' /θiː³ sa:m⁵ /'third' /θiː³ /'fourth' /θiː³ haː¹ /'fifth' /θiː³ hok⁴ /'sixth' /θiː³ cet³ /'seventh' /θiː³ pet² /'eighth' /θiː³ kaw¹ /'ninth' /θiː³...
4.3.4 Verbs

The verbs forms in both the dialects can be divided into two groups main verbs and auxiliary verbs.

4.3.4.1 Main Verbs

The main verb forms which can occur with a preceding Lung Sarm about /ʔam/ (Shan) and to compare with /maj/ (ST) mean 'not' are to be taken as verbs in both the dialects. The following some examples:

Shan = /sa:j4 kham4 ʔam2 haːŋ1 liː/ 'Sai kham is not beautiful'
ST = /sa:j4 kham4 maj3 soj5/ 'Sai kham is not beautiful'

Shan = /khaw5 ʔam2 caj1 kruː4/ 'he is not a teacher'
ST = /khaw5 maj3 chaj3 kruː1/ 'he is not a teacher'

Shan = /boː1 kaw5 ʔam2 caj1 kruː4/ 'My father is not a teacher'
ST = /phɔː1 phom5 maj3 chaj3 kruː1/ 'My father is not a teacher'

There are main verbs that have use in Shan state and compare with standard Thai as follows:

Shan = /kin5/ 'to eat' /tem1/ 'to write' /sot3/ 'to drink' /khaːj5/ 'sell' /ʔam2/ 'to read' /laːŋ3/ 'to wash' /soj2/ 'to send' /cuk4/ 'to stand' /baj5/ 'to walk' /naj4/ 'to sit' /nɔn4/ 'to sleep' /lɛn1/ 'to run' /wɔn3/ 'to think' /min5/ 'to fly'.

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2 Interview with Lung Sarm, Warn Makkar Hokham, Tachileik township, Shan state, on July 13, 2018.
ST = /kin^1/ 'to eat' /khi:an^2/ 'to write' /du:m^2/ 'to drink' /kha:j^3/ 'to sell' /fa:n^2/ 'to read' /la:ŋ^3/ 'to wash' /soŋ^2/ 'to send' /ju:n^1/ 'to stand' /dən^1/ 'to walk' /naŋ^3/ 'to sit' /non^1/ 'to sleep' /wiŋ^3/ 'to run' /khit^4/ 'to think' /bin^5/ 'to fly'.

Said by Aawk Pu. According to verb /kin^5/ (to eat) in both dialects are the same word and same meaning. If we some other means such as in Shan /su:n^4/ 'breakfast', /su:n^4/ 'lunch' uses for monk, in Thai /san^5/ 'breakfast', /san^5/ 'lunch', both are using different words.

4.3.4.2 Auxiliary Verbs

The verbs which have hardly any independent function of their own, but merely help the main verb to form the explicit tenses in a sentence or clause are treated as auxiliary verbs, in this study. The following are auxiliary verbs in both the dialects of some examples:

Shan = /te:5/ 'will, shall' /ʔa:p1/ 'may, might' /tuuk3/ 'be doing' /tuuk3 te:5/ 'be about' /la:j1/ 'can, could' /cam3/ 'nearly' /cəŋ2 ha:5/ 'just' /kha:j1/ 'want' /thuk2 li:5/ 'should' /ja:m1/ 'used to' /tuun4/ 'must'.

ST = /ca:2/ 'will, shall' /khon1/ 'may, might' /la:j1/ 'be doing' /la:j1 ca:2/ 'be about' /daj3/ 'can, could' /kəp2/ 'is nearly' /phunj1/ 'just' /ja:k2/ 'want' /khon1/ 'should' /kha:j1/ 'used to' /təŋ3/ 'must'.

4.3.5 Adverbs

The adverbs normally occur after verbs, adjectives, or adverbs are usually placed at the end of a sentence or clause. If the verb is transitive and has direct object, then the adverb is placed after the verb and its object. The adverbs of Shan to compare with standard Thai as follows:


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3 Interview with Aawk Pu, Warn Me Karw, Tachileik township, Shan state, on July 22, 2018.
The preposition is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else. The prepositions in both the dialects can be formed with either simple or complex formed, as follows:

**Shan**

/maŋ 4 saŋ 3 liŋ 5 taŋ 2 jaŋ 2/ 'He is quite good'

**ST**

/khaw 5 di: 3 can 1/ 'He is quite good'

/kaŋ 5 kwaŋ 2 taŋ 2 seŋ 2'/ 'I often go'

**ST**

/phom 5 paj 5 boŋ 2/ 'I often go'

/suŋ 5 paj 5 waj 4'/ 'you walk quickly'

**ST**

/khun 5 dən 1 lew 5/ 'you walk quickly'

### 4.3.6 Preposition

The preposition is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else. The prepositions in both the dialects can be formed with either simple or complex formed, as follows:

**Shan**


**ST**


The prepositions in both dialects can be formed with complex formed, as follow the examples:
Shan  = /tan^4 nau^4/ 'inside' /tan^4 na:^1/ 'in front of' /tan^4 no:k^1/ 'outside' /tan^4 na:^5/ 'upstairs' /tan^4 lan^5/ 'back side' /tan^4 kha:^5/ 'by right side' /tan^4 sa:j^3/ 'by left side' /tan^4 tau^1/ 'downstairs'


The following of the sentence in Shan and standard Thai the dialects of some examples:

Shan  = /man^1 sa:j^4 na: ^1 tan^2/ 'He sits on the table'
ST  = /khaw^5 na:j^3 bun^1 to:^3/ 'He sits on the table'

Shan  = /kaw^5 no:n^4 nau^4 kha:n^3 no:n^4/ 'I sleep in bedroom'
ST  = /phom^5 no:n^1 naj^1 ho:n^3 no:n^1/ 'I sleep in bedroom'

4.3.7 Conjunction

A conjunction is the glue that holds words, phrases and clauses (both dependent and independent) together. There are three different kinds of conjunctions-coordinating, subordinating, and correlative-each serving its own, distinct purpose, but all working to bring words together. The conjunction is a part of speech which is more commonly used at Tachileik as following in both dialects:


The following of the sentence in Shan and standard Thai the dialects of some examples:

Shan  = /kaw^5 ban^5 khaw^5 ba:p^3 le:^1 kam^5 cem^4/ 'I gave them book and pen'.
ST = /phom⁵ haj⁵ khaw⁵ naŋ⁵ sa:⁵ le:³ pa:k² ka:¹/ 'I gave them book and pen'.

4.3.8 Interjection

The interjection is a part of speech which is more commonly used in Tachileik and the interjection in both dialects as follows:

Shan = /maj² suŋ⁵ / 'Hi', /ra:w³ haŋ¹ li:⁵ na:²/ 'Wow, so beautiful!' /haŋ³ kuit⁴ / 'Hey, stop!' /ho:⁴ pla:⁴ ben⁵ caw¹/ 'Oh, My god!' /ho:⁴ laj¹/ 'Oh yes!' /ho:⁴ ?am²/ 'Oh, no!' /caŋ¹ ?it⁴ nuŋ¹/ 'Help, Accident!

ST = /sa:² wat² ti:¹/ 'Hi', /wa:w⁴ soj⁵ ma:k³/ 'Wow, so beautiful!' /he:³ jut²/ 'Hey, stop!' /ho:⁴ pra:³ caw³/ 'Oh, My god!' /ho:⁴ chaj³/ 'Oh yes!' /ho:⁴ maj³/ 'Oh, no!' /chuŋ³ toj³/ 'Help, Accident!

The following of the sentence in Shan and standard Thai the dialects of some examples:

Shan = /maj² suŋ⁵ ju:² li:⁵ ha:³/ 'Hello! How are you?
ST = /sa:² wat² ti:¹ pen⁵ jaŋ¹ naŋ¹ pa:ŋ³/ 'Hello! How are you?

Shan = /ho:⁴ khaw⁵ mi:⁴ ti:¹ naŋ¹ /' Oh! They are here'
ST = /ho:⁴ phok³ khaw⁵ ju:² thi:³ ni:³/ 'Oh! They are here'

4.3.9 Particles

The particle word of Shan /na:¹/ and the standard Thai /si:¹/ are placed at the end of a clause to show that it is a command entreaty, roughly equivalent to do or let us, as /na:¹/ and /si:¹/. Mostly in Shan /na:¹/ and standard Thai /si:¹/ are will be hear when people talk to people and wonder want it means. Actually /na:⁵/(Shan) and /si:¹/(ST) are the particle word that can use in some context in both dialects.

Examples:

Shan = /ma:⁴ waj⁴ waj⁴ na:¹/ 'come quickly'
/khat⁴ cau⁵ hen⁴ na:¹/ 'please intend to study'
ST = /ma:¹ ri:aw⁴ ri:aw⁵ si:¹/ 'come quickly'
/taj³ caj⁵ ri:an¹ noj² si:¹/ 'please intend to study'
Some particle words that Shan people in Tachileik describe by jao Sara Pannya¹ /leːː/ /naːː/ and /laːː/ are using different words, but the meaning is the same. As researcher studied from the books, and documents for the well-known Shan particle word /leːː/ the more they are using such as; /kaːː 1eːː/ 'to go', /kin 1eːː/ 'to eat', /mon 4 1eːː/ 'to sleep', /maːː 4 1eːː/ 'to come' etc.

In conclusion, the researcher can say that knowledge we can get from the comparative of Shan and standard Thai morphology. This research was conducted in a sample of the morphological structural model effectively and efficiently.

¹ Interview with Jao Sara JinaPannya, Warn San Sai village, Tachileik township, Shan state, on July 13, 2018.
Chapter V

Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestion

This research is aimed to study the comparative of Shan and standard Thai morphology. To research and analysis, the monomorphemic and polymorphemic words of morpheme, word-formation of study the new compound word and word-classes as parts of speech. The research refers to develop the knowledge of Shan in Shan state union of Myanmar.

This chapter presents the conclusion, discussion and the suggestion for further studies. The main points of this chapter can be divides into three categories as the following:

5.1 Conclusion
5.2 Discussion
5.3 Suggestion

5.1 Conclusion

As mentioned above, the key objective of the study is to discover the comparative Shan and standard Thai morphology. The researcher had collected books, Shan book, Thai book, Thesis, documents, online research and interview Shan people at Tachileik in Shan state. The study shows, there are word formation methods done with nominalization, compounding, reduplication and expressive. There methods are the characteristics of the Shan in forming new word. Besides the small difference of monomorphemic and polymorphemic, compound word, and apart of speech. Shan have more similar words and different words from standard Thai. Especially the words related to a part of speech and words.

In comparison with the previous studies, the researcher hopes to fine some initial consonants and tones which define the characteristics of Shan and
standard Thai as mentioned in Hypothesis. By viewing the whole research, it found that there are a few minor differences.

5.1.1 The study of monomorphemic and polymorphemic forms in comparative of Shan and standard Thai. The monomorphemic has two types 1) monosyllabic forms, /bɔ:i(S)/ /pɔ:3(ST) 'father', 2) polysyllabic forms /luk4 suk4/(S) /tha:3 ha:n4/(ST) 'soldier' and the polymorphemic forms such as:

1) Composite form is more than one simple form /me:1 nam3(S) /me:3 nam3/(ST) 'river', /faj3 fa:3/(S) /faj1 fa:3/(ST) 'electricity'.

2) Prefix-derived form is placed before the stem of a word and Adding it to the beginning of one changes the meaning. For example, in Shan: /nak4/ 'heavy' /nak4-la:5/ 'outweigh' /kan5/ 'work' /kan5-han4/ 'homework' /kha:n5/ 'rajah' /kha:n5-ho:5/ khan4/ 'emperor' and in standard Thai: /nak4-kot2 ma:j5/ 'lawyer' /ka:n5-pa:n3/ 'homework'.

3) Suffix-derived forms is the inserted before the adjective or adverb, which is the follow by /heŋ4-kon1/(S) 'strongly', /phi:3-thi:1-kon1/(ST) 'master of ceremonies'.

4) Reduplicated forms are frequently based on compound forms having the same syllable such as both dialects of examples: /luk1/ 'child', /luk1-luk1/ 'children', /ma:5-ma:5-mew4/me:w4/(S) 'dog and cat', and /dek2/ 'child', /dek2-dek2/ 'children', /phi:3 phi:3-noŋ3 noŋ3/ 'brothers and sisters'.

5.1.2 The study of new compound word in comparative of Shan and standard Thai such as superordinate-subordinate compound /kon4/(S) and /khon1/(ST), class term compound, word class compound and semantic compound as following the types:

1) Superordinate-subordinate compound are some superordinate words added to subordinate words such as a noun, a verb or an adjective, indicating the same type of things. Here are some examples of the superordinate words: /kon4/ (Shan) and /khon1/(ST) denotes to a man or his profession, ‘denotes to a man or his profession’, /ma:k2/ ‘denotes to fruit or rounded object’, /ton3/ ‘denotes to tree or plant’, /caw1/(Shan) and /cha:w1/(ST) ‘denotes to owner or career’.
2) The class term compound is denoting to place or spot /ʔan/\(^5\)(Shan) and /ʔan/\(^1\)(ST) ‘denotes to things, such as: /ti:\(^1\)/(S), /ti:\(^1\) nan/\(^1\) ‘sitting place’, /ti:\(^1\) jip/\(^4\) ‘handle’ and /θi:\(^3\)/(ST) /θi:\(^3\) ju\(^2\) ‘mansion’, /θi:\(^3\) tin/\(^5\) ‘land’.

3) The word class compound is a combination of the same or different word class, such as, noun, verb, adjective and preposition. There are has two types of word class compound 1) Disyllabic compound 2) Trisyllabic compound.

4) The semantic compound words are created to be used for literary stylistics or aesthetic function. Such as /lu:\(^3\) \(\text{lew}\)^\(^5\)(S) /\(\text{tham}\)^\(^1\) thek\(^2\)(ST) ‘to break’, /\(\text{man}\)^\(^1\) kum\(^4\)(S) /nak\(^2\) nen\(^3\)(ST) ‘firm’, /\(\text{khaj}\)^\(^1\) na:w\(^5\)(S) /\(\text{pot}\)^\(^2\) khaj\(^3\)(ST) ‘ill’, /\(\text{jau}\)^\(^2\) lon\(^5\)(S) /\(\text{ja}\)^\(^2\) to:\(^1\)(ST) ‘big’.

5.1.3 The study of a part of speech and particles in comparative of Shan and Thai such as: noun, pronoun, adjective, numeral, verb, adverbs, prepositions, conjunction, interjection and particle in comparative of Shan and standard Thai. The following of examples:

1) Noun - name of person /sa\(^1\)j/\(^1\) kham\(^4\)(S) /som/\(^5\) wan\(^4\)(ST) ‘male, female’, /sa\(^1\)j/\(^1\) kha:\(^1\)(S) /\(\text{cha}\)^\(^5\)(ST) ‘male’, name of animals /\(\text{ra}\)^\(^1\)j/\(^1\) se:w\(^4\)l/ ‘name of dog’ (S), /sam\(^5\) li:\(^1\) ‘name of cat’ (ST), and the of days, months, places.

2) Pronoun - The personal pronouns in Shan and standard Thai the dialects may be classified into the first person, second person, and third person as follow the first person in Shan /kaw/\(^5\), /\(\text{kha}\)^\(^1\)/, /\(\text{kha}\)^\(^1\) sa:j\(^4\)l/ ‘I’ and in standard Thai /\(\text{chan}\)^\(^5\), /\(\text{kha}\)^\(^3\)/, /\(\text{phom}\)^\(^3\)/, /\(\text{mom}\)^\(^2\) chan\(^5\), /\(\text{raw}\)^\(^1\) ‘I’.

The second person are many words used as the second personal pronouns in Shan and standard Thai of dialects. The following some examples of the forms are used as the second personal pronouns. Such as in Shan /\(\text{ma}\)^\(^4\)/, /\(\text{kha}\)^\(^1\)/, /\(\text{ka}\)^\(^1\) sa:j\(^4\)l/, /\(\text{ja}\)^\(^1\) jin\(^4\)l/, /\(\text{haw}\)^\(^4\)l/ ‘you’ and in standard Thai /\(\text{chan}\)^\(^5\), /\(\text{kha}\)^\(^3\)/, /\(\text{phom}\)^\(^3\)/, /\(\text{mom}\)^\(^2\) chan\(^5\), /\(\text{raw}\)^\(^1\) ‘you’.

The third person is used to refer to persons or things other than the speaker and addressee. The speaker and the hearer are necessarily present in the situation’ whereas other persons and things referred to may or may not be present. As follow the examples which are used as the third personal pronouns. Such as in
3) The adjective forms in Shan dialects are found to occur immediately after nouns, or between a noun and classifier or between a noun and numeral as follows, example in Shan dialect such as: /li:5/ 'good' /ha:j3/ 'bad' /jɔ̄m5/ 'thin' /bi:4/ 'fat' /jau2/ 'big' /suŋ5/ 'tall' /θam5/ 'black' /θaw1/ 'old' /num2/ 'young' /ŋə1/ 'stupid' /maj1/ 'hot' /kat4/ 'cool' /lek3/ 'small' /khom5/ 'bitter'.

The adjective forms in standard Thai dialects are found to occur immediately after nouns, or between a noun and classifier or between a noun and numeral as follows, the example in standard Thai dialect such as; /di:1/ 'good' /cho:3/ 'bad' /φοm5/ 'thin' /φοn3/ 'fat' /φaj2/ 'big' /suŋ5/ 'tall' /θam1/ 'black' /κε:2/ 'old' /num2/ 'young' /ŋο:1/ 'stupid' /θοn3/ 'hot' /θεn1/ 'cool' /lek3/ 'small' /khom5/ 'bitter'.

4) Verbs form in both dialects are found the main verb and auxiliary verbs. The main verb forms which can occur with the preceding Lung Sarm about /ʔam2/ (Shan) and to compare with /maj3/ (ST) mean 'not' are to be taken as verbs in both the dialects. Such as: in Shan /saj4 kham4 ʔam2 ha:n1 li:5/ 'Sai kham is not beautiful' and in standard Thai /saj4 kham4 maj3 soj5/ 'Sai kham is not beautiful'.

The auxiliary verbs which have hardly any independent function of their own, but merely help the main verb to form the explicit tens in a sentence or clause are treated as auxiliary verbs, in this study. The following are auxiliary verbs as follows, in Shan /te:5/ 'will, shall' /ʔa:p1/ 'may, might' /tuk3/ 'be doing' /tuk3 te:5/ 'be about' /laj1/ 'can, could' /cam5/ 'nearly' /κοŋ2 ha:5/ 'just' /khaj4/ 'want' /thuk2 li:5/ 'should' /ja:m1/ 'used to' /tun4/ 'must'.

The auxiliary verbs in standard Thai /ca:2/ 'will, shall' /κοn1/ 'may, might' /καm1 laj1/ 'be doing' /καm1 laj1 ca:2/ 'be about' /daj3/ 'can, could' /καp2/ 'is nearly' /φuŋ3/ 'just' /ja:k2/ 'want' /κοn1/ 'should' /khaj1/ 'used to' /κοn3/ 'must'.

5) The adverbs normally occur after verbs, adjectives, or adverbs are usually placed at the end of a sentence or clause. Such as in Shan /tan2 ja:2/ 'quite' /καm4 kαm4/ 'often' /waj4/ 'quickly' /laj4 laj4/ 'slowly' /lι:5/ 'well' /laj5 na:2/ 'loudly'
The adverbs normally occur after verbs, adjectives, or adverbs are usually placed at the end of a sentence or clause. Such as: in standard Thai /caŋ1/ 'quite' /boŋ2/ 'often' /rew5/ 'quickly' /cha:3/ 'slowly' /di:1/ 'well' /dan1/ 'loudly' /ma:k3/ 'very much' /tik2/ 'again' /jaːŋ2 raj1/ 'how' /jaːŋ2 nan3/ 'like that' /baw1/ 'low' /tham1 maj1/ 'why' /saj5/ 'late' /ne:3/ 'surely' /thaw:w3 laj5/ 'how much' /thi:3 naj5/ 'where' /ma:3 raj2/ 'when' /klaj1/ 'far' /klaj3/ 'near'.

6) Preposition has found to occur between noun and verb in order to join a noun to verb such as: in simple form /naɯ4(S) /naj1/(ST) 'in', /tanaj1 naːŋ3/ /bun1/(S) 'on' and in complex form /tanj4 -nauu4(S) /khaːŋ3-naj1/(ST) 'inside', /tanj4 -nok1/(S) /khaːŋ3-nok3/(ST) 'outside'.

7) The comparative study both dialects of conjunction /le:1/(S) /le:3/(ST) 'and' /saj5 waː1/(S) /thaː3/(ST) 'if', /phɔŋ4 tuuk3/(S) /khaː2 naː2/(ST) 'while'.

8) Interjection used to express an emotion or sentiment on the part of the speaker. Filled pauses such as: How, Hey, Oh, Help an uh, um, are also considered interjections. Such as: in both of dialects /hoː3 laj1/(S) /hoː4 chaj3/ 'Oh yes!' /hoː3 ?amʔ/(S) /hoː4 maj3/(ST) 'Oh, no!'.

9) The particle word of Shan /naː1/ and the standard Thai /siː1/ are placed at the end of a clause to show that it is a command entreaty, roughly equivalent to do or let us, as /naː1/ and /siː1/. Mostly in Shan /naː1/ and standard Thai /siː1/ are will be hear when people talk to people and wonder want it means.

Generally, there are many Shan word similar and different from standard Thai.

5.2 Discussion

The research was found that

To develop the knowledge of study about Shan and standard Thai in morphological. Nowadays the young generations study more about language but
some of the words of Shan and Thai have more similarity and difference in words. So, research can help for young generation to study about Shan and Thai.

In comparison with the previous studies, the researcher hopes to find some initial consonants and tones which define the part of speech in Shan as mentioned in hypothesis. By viewing the whole research, it found that there are a few minor differences, such as; the syllabic /m/ is found both in Shan and standard Thai in book, document, library, but the syllabic /m/ is a reduction form of /ʔam^2/ while standard Thai is a reduction form of /maj^3/ ‘not’.

The phoneme /ŋ/ at the initial position of Shan state, in standard Thai is not found the phoneme of /ŋ/, mostly they use the phoneme of /j/. Therefore, the number of initial consonants of Shan 19, standard Thai have 44 consonants respectively. The tones of Shan and standard Thai are five in number such as; middle, low, falling, high and rising.


The polysyllabic forms /luk^1 suk^4/ the meaning soldier some another Shan use the word of /suk^4 ha:n^5/ or /kon^4 suk^4/. Each past of Shan used the name of soldier belong to in different place.

The suffix-derived forms of these Shan and standard Thai are almost the same, no big differences in forming the words. Actually, both languages are highly isolating which means, and the words themselves do not change, they are only added up one after another to form meanings.

In spoken standard Thai, both derivational and inflectional functions are found in Thai reduplication. For derivation, it is used to change word class from (1) noun to verb (2) noun to adverb (3) adjective to adverb and (4) verb to adverb. In the last case, the changed
form has a negative connotation added to it. Such as some examples in noun to noun /ma:\-ma:\-\text{mew}\-\text{mew}/ ‘dog and cat’.

The words of rhythming form in Shan /m\text{o}\text{k}\text{\-m\text{a}\text{k}}\text{\-ha\text{k}}\text{\-m\text{a}\text{j}}/ ‘mean fruit and standard Thai /ju\text{\-di}\text{\-mi}\text{\-con}/ ‘mean to be poor’ are differences words, tone and meaning. Rhythming form in both dialects are almost different each other.

Tones are the biggest differences among these two languages, but they also vary a lot between dialects of standard Thai. Both languages have tones, just like Shan /\text{ton}/ and standard Thai /\text{ton}/. The tones often do not correspond to each other, if Shan have middle tones standard Thai have falling tones.

The different numerals in Shan /sa\text{\-w}/ ‘twenty’ /ba\text{k}/ ‘hundreds’ /he\text{\-n}/ ‘thousand’ and standard Thai /ji\text{\-n}/ ‘twenty’ /ro\text{j}/ ‘one hundred’ /phan/ ‘thousand’ are very difference in both dialects.

Some particle words that Shan people in Tachileik said by Aawk Bu /\text{i\text{\-le}}/ and /\text{i\text{\-a}}/ are using different words, but the meaning is the same. As researcher had studied from the books, and documents for the well-known Shan particle word /\text{i\text{\-le}}/ the more they are using such as; /ka\text{\-le}/ ‘to go’, /\text{kin\text{\-le}}/ ‘to eat’, /\text{nia\text{\-le}}/ ‘to sleep’, /\text{ma\text{\-le}}/ ‘to come’.

So, it’s much appropriated for Shan people to know the comparative words in both dialects.

5.3 Suggestion

As this research is the study of comparative Shan and standard Thai morphological system in Shan state union of Myanmar. Therefore, the morphology of morpheme, word-formation, and word-classes which deals with full characteristics of the Shan is worth to study.

1. To encourage students and the persons who study about the comparative of Shan and standard Thai.

2. To arrange more comparative words for students those who study about Shan and standard Thai.
3. To conduct the research of words different and similarly in Shan and standard Thai are very useful in study Shan. Therefore, a comparison of both modern writings is interesting to study.
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๒. ภาษาอังกฤษ

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**V Electronics:**


Appendices
Appendix (A)

Research Interview of Questionnaires

Thesis Title: A comparative study of Shan and standard Thai morphology.

Introductions:

This questionnaire is used to collect data for the study of comparative Shan and standard Thai morphology and divided into 3 parts as followings:

Part 1: It consists of general information

Part 2: As set of questions focusing on developing the morpheme, word-formation, and word-classes.

Part 3: Suggestion and opinion about the comparative part of speech forms in Shan and standard Thai morphology in Shan state union of Myanmar.
Appendix (B)

The List of Interviewees as Key Informants

1. Jao Sara JinaPannya  55 years  San Shai Village
2. Lung Mawk Ngehun  60 years  Bung Thun Village
3. Lung Sarm  61 years  Mark Kar Ho Kham Village
4. Lung Yi  50 years  Hawng Lurk Village
5. Aawk Bu  61 years  Warn May Kharw Village
6. Bar Jing  58 years  Weng Kaew Village
Appendix (C)

Picture of Activities

Interview with Jao Sara JinaPannya, Wat San Shai Tai, Tachileik, on November 11, 2018.
Picture of Activities

Interview with Lung Mawk Ngeun, Bung Thun Village, Tachileik township, Shan state, on July 13, 2018.
Interview with Aawk Bu, Warn Me Karw village, Tachileik township, Shan state, on July 13, 2018.
Interview with Lung Sarm, Mark Kar Ho Kham Village, Tachileik township, Shan state, on 14 July 2018.
Picture of Activities

Interview with Lung Yi, Hawng Lurk Village, Tachileik township, Shan state, on 14 July 2018.
There is a comparative study of a part of speech between Shan and standard Thai morphology.

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/ma:³/  /ma:³/  horse
/maj³/  /maj³/  wood
/ca:³/  /chən³/  spoon
/mə:¹/  /mə:³/  pot
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/ba:⁵ luk⁴/  /pla:¹ duk²/  catfish
/caŋ¹/  /chaŋ³/  elephant
/luŋ⁴/  /luŋ¹/  uncle
/ba:¹/  /pa:³/  aunt
/bu:²/  /pu:²/  grandfather
/na:j⁴/  /ja:³/  grandmother
/həŋ⁴/  /ba:n³/  house
/phak⁴ du:⁵/  /pra:² tu:¹/  door
/hu:⁴ leŋ¹/  /na:³ təŋ²/  window
/hoŋ⁴ hen⁴/  /rəŋ¹ ri:an¹/  school
/khəŋ³/  /həŋ³/  room
/bu:n³/  /phu:n³/  floor

Adjectives:

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/ʔan⁵ baw²/ /wəŋ³/ empty
/som¹/ /priːaw³/ sour
/ŋəj¹/ /ŋəj³/ easily
/ŋə:w⁴/ /jaːw¹/ long
/luŋ²/ /luŋ³/ deep
/bot⁴/ /səŋ³/ short
/ʔan⁵ jəŋ²/ /paː³/ mad
/cem⁴ kə:⁵/ /kʰem¹/ salted
/kam⁴ kam⁴/ /bəj²/ often
/ʔan⁵ jam⁴/ /piːək²/ wet

Adjective of Numerals:

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/hok⁴ sip⁴ / /hok³ sip⁴ ᵇ / sixty
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/cet⁴ sip⁴ / /cet³ sip⁴ / seventy
/cet⁴ sip⁴ ᵇ / /cet³ sip⁴ ᵇ / seventy-one
/bet² sip⁴ / /bet² sip⁴ ᵇ / eighty
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/kaw¹ sip⁴ / /kaw³ sip² / ninety
/kaw¹ sip⁴ ᵇ / /kaw³ sip² ᵇ / ninety-one
/ba:k² / /raj³ / hundred
/ba:k² nuŋ⁵ / /raj³ nuŋ² / one hundred
/hen⁵ / /phan¹ / thousand
/nuŋ¹ hen⁵ / /nuŋ²phan¹ / one thousand
/mun² / /mun² / ten-thousand
/son⁵ / /son⁵ / hundred-thousand
/la:n³ / /la:n³ / million
/nuŋ¹ la:n³ / /nuŋ² la:n³ / one million

Verbs:

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/len/ /win/ run
/won/ /khit/ think
/min/ /bin/ fly
/khop/ /kat/ bite
/jip/ /thu:/ hold
/ma:/ /ma:/ came
/coj/ /chuj/ help
/tej/ /thej/ stab
/jaw/ /cop/ finish
/tha:k/ /tha:k/ hoe
/toj/ /du:/ watch
/cut/ /phaw/ burn
/ka:/ /paj/ go
/het/ /tham/ do
/khi:/ /khap/ ride
/hø:/ /kha:/ drive
/be:/ /chna:/ win
/mat/ /phuk/ bind
/bin/ /pli:an/ change
/wa:ŋ/ /wa:ŋ/ lay
/hø:/ /hø:/ wrap
/hu:/ /ru:/ know
/han/ /hen/ see
/kep/ /kep/ keep
/suu:/ /chu:/ buy
/thom/ /thom/ fill
/dop/ /top/ answer
/kut/ /jut/ stop
/jon/ /kho:/ beg
/dop/ /dop/ slap
/hak/ /hak/ break
| /dek^4/ | /kot^2/ | press |
| /but^2/ | /put^2/ | open |
| /min^5/ | /win^5/ | fly |
| /bat^4/ | /pat^2/ | sweep |
| /ju:^4/ | /jiŋ^1/ | shoot |
| /tha:m^5/ | /tha:m^5/ | ask |
| /lom^3/ | /lom^3/ | overthrow |
| /ha:p^2/ | /ha:p^2/ | carry |
| /thum^1/ | /jon^1/ | shift |
| /hen^4/ | /li:an^1/ | learn |
| /jok^3/ | /jok^3/ | raise |
| /ta:^4/ | /tha:^1/ | paint |
| /thu:^5/ | /thu:^5/ | scrub |
| /don^2/ | /kaw^5/ | scratch |
| /can^5/ | /duŋ^1/ | pull |
| /seb^2/ | /seŋ^2/ | sting |
| /ʔaw^5/ | /ʔaw^1/ | take |
| /phe:^5/ | /jeek^3/ | divide |
| /kot^2/ | /kot^2/ | embrace |
| /huŋ^5/ | /huŋ^5/ | cook |
| /cep^4/ | /cep^2/ | hurt |
| /ban^5/ | /haj^3/ | give |
| /laj^5/ | /laj^5/ | flow |
| /sum^4/ | /tham^1 ha:j^5/ | lose |
| /sau^2/ | /waːŋ^1/ | Put |
| /pit^4/ | /teŋ^2/ | pick |
| /lak^3/ | /kmaj^1/ | steal |
| /jon^5/ | /plon^3/ | rob |
| /bɔŋ^2 kla:|^2/ | /cɛŋ^3 haj^3 sa:p^3/ | inform |
### Adverbs:

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Adverb of Time:

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<tr>
<td>/lən⁵ sip⁴ soŋ⁵/</td>
<td>/than¹ waː¹ khom¹/</td>
<td>December</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Prepositions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shan</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/naʊ⁴/</td>
<td>/naj¹/</td>
<td>in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/taːŋ⁴ naː:⁵/</td>
<td>/bun¹/</td>
<td>on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tiː:¹/</td>
<td>/caːk²/</td>
<td>from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴/</td>
<td>/kəp²/</td>
<td>with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/phaːj² na:¹/</td>
<td>/naː:³/</td>
<td>in front of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tiː:¹/</td>
<td>/tʰiː:³/</td>
<td>at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/θuŋ⁵/</td>
<td>/θuŋ⁵/</td>
<td>to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tɔː³/</td>
<td>/taj³/</td>
<td>under</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/nɔk¹/</td>
<td>/nɔk³/</td>
<td>out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ləŋ⁵/</td>
<td>/ləŋ⁵/</td>
<td>on the back side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kʰaːŋ¹/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³/</td>
<td>by the side of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/cam⁵/</td>
<td>/klaj³/</td>
<td>near</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kaj⁵/</td>
<td>/klaj¹/</td>
<td>far</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kɔm⁴/</td>
<td>/təːm¹/</td>
<td>along with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kəŋ⁵/</td>
<td>/klaːŋ¹/</td>
<td>at the middle of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ moː⁴/</td>
<td>/tʰoː:³/</td>
<td>throughout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ naʊ⁴/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³ naːj¹/</td>
<td>inside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ naː:¹/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³ naː:³/</td>
<td>in front of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ nɔk¹/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³ nɔk³/</td>
<td>outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ naː:⁵/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³ bund/</td>
<td>upstairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ ləŋ⁵/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³ ləŋ⁵/</td>
<td>back side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ kʰaː:⁵/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³ kʰəː:⁵/</td>
<td>by right side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ saːj³/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³ saːj³/</td>
<td>by left side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təŋ⁴ təːj¹/</td>
<td>/kʰaːŋ³ laːŋ³/</td>
<td>downstairs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Conjunctions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shan</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/lɛː:¹/</td>
<td>/lɛː:³/</td>
<td>and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/saŋ⁵ wəː:¹/</td>
<td>/θaː:³/</td>
<td>if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/phəŋ⁴ təʊk³/</td>
<td>/kʰaː:² naː:²/</td>
<td>while</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
/koŋ⁴ ka:¹/ /te:²/ but
/kɔp¹ bɔ:¹/ /phɔ:³ wa:³/ because
/phoŋ⁴ ma:¹/ /mɔ:³ raj¹/ when
/naj⁵ le:¹/ /jan² nan³/ so
/wa:j⁴ se:³/ /laŋ⁵ ca:k²/ after
/ma:¹ baj²/ /kɔn²/ before
/?am² nan⁵/ /rɔ:⁵/ or
/wa:¹ nan⁵ se:⁵ ta:³/ /thuŋ⁵ me:³ wa:³/ although
/kha:w⁴ ja:m⁴/ /we:¹ la:¹/ time
/ta:³ te:³/ /phi:aŋ¹/ merely

Interjections:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shan</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/maj² suŋ⁵/</td>
<td>/sa:² wat² ti:¹/</td>
<td>Hi!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/maj² suŋ⁵/</td>
<td>/sa:² wat² ti:¹/</td>
<td>Hello!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʔa:w⁴/</td>
<td>/wa:w⁴/</td>
<td>Wow!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/hɔŋ³/</td>
<td>/he:³/</td>
<td>Hey!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ho:⁴/</td>
<td>/ho:⁴/</td>
<td>Oh!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ho:⁴ pla:⁴ ben⁵ caw¹/</td>
<td>/ho:⁴ pra:³ caw³/</td>
<td>Oh, My god!'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ho:⁴ laj¹/</td>
<td>/ho:⁴ chaj³/</td>
<td>Oh yes!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ho:⁴ ?am²/</td>
<td>/ho:⁴ maj³/</td>
<td>Oh, no!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/cəj¹ ?it⁴ nuŋ¹/</td>
<td>/chuj³ toj³/</td>
<td>Help!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Biography of Researcher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Name</strong></th>
<th>Kittisara</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Date of Birth</strong></td>
<td>22 May 1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Date of Ordination</strong></td>
<td>16 March 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Higher Full Ordination</strong></td>
<td>15 May 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nationality</strong></td>
<td>Shan (Tai Yai) Myanmar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Address</strong></td>
<td>Wat Na Khon PaMak, Ta ling Chan, Bangkok</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Education Background:**

- **2012**: Pahtamagyi (A Level)
- **2016**: Graduated Bachelor of Art degree, faculty of Buddhism, majoring in Philosophy, Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University (MCU), Wangnoi, Ayutthaya, Thailand.
- **2016**: Studying in Master of Art, Faculty of Humanity, at Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University, Wangnoi, Ayutthaya, Thailand.

**Work Experience:**

- **2006 – 2010**: Used to teaching Shan children in summer season at Karng Murng temple, Lashio, Shan State Union of Myanmar and Tung Bang, Magwe Division.