

Between Translation and Retelling: Thai Models for the Mon *Rājādhirāj*¹

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Abstract

Historians consider the narrative of *Rājādhirāj*, known in Burmese, Thai, and Mon-language retellings, to be the seminal text of Mon history. The historiography of the region holds that the Mons have one of the first civilizations of Mainland Southeast Asia, but this should not be taken to mean that all Mon-language texts and historical sources are primary, original, or necessarily precede those found in other languages. The extant Mon-language retelling of the *Rājādhirāj* narrative appears to have been largely translated from Thai, or retold in a dialect of Mon from within Siam that has undergone extensive contact with the Thai language. Although this text has been widely available

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in print for a hundred years, no scholars have commented on the unusual features of the language that the text is recorded in. Indeed, because of the assumption of Mon primacy, many scholars may not be able to conceive of the narrative as having come from outside Mon-language sources.

As part of a larger project of examining interpretative communities and frameworks, this article explores a specific example of how linguistic evidence may challenge the usual understandings and interpretations of Mainland Southeast Asian histories. A linguistic analysis of the text from the perspective of the scholarship on language contact and convergence reveals how native Mon words, phrases, and grammatical constructions have been reinterpreted to replicate Thai models. To gauge the language of this text, I consider examples from contemporaneous texts produced inside Burma. Rather than searching for the original “version” or language of the narrative, I consider linguistic evidence to rethink how historical narratives may have been passed down to the present. The evidence suggests a heterogeneity of predecessors and modes of transmission.

Introduction

The understanding in Southeast Asian history of the Mons as having developed one of the earliest civilizations in the region has deep resonances outside the discipline of history. Given the position of the Mons, many scholars assume that Mon-language texts and sources are, therefore, originary. Mon scholars themselves consider the narrative of *Rājādhirāj*³ to be the seminal text of Mon history. Yet

³ The narrative of *Rājādhirāj* is one of the few historical and literary texts that has versions in Burmese, Mon, and Thai. Tracing all the possible connections between these versions is beyond the scope of this article, although the events – focusing on the rise and exploits of the Mon military hero, *Rājādhirāj* – are told from the perspective and interests of Mon speakers.

the Mon-language version appears to have been largely translated from Thai, or recorded in a heavily “Siamified”⁴ dialect of Mon.

While this text has been widely available in print for one hundred years, no scholar has yet tried to make sense of the unusual features of the language of this text. Many scholars may not be able to conceive of this text as having come from outside Mon-language sources, and, therefore, its marked features have become invisible. In reading the texts of the *Rājāvaṃsa Kathā*,⁵ a collection of Mon-language histories which includes the narrative of *Rājādhirāj*, it has struck me that much of the language was highly Thai-like. At the same time, part of the reason that the Thai-like features have escaped the notice of Burma Mon⁶ scholars is that members of the Burmese intellectual communities are largely unfamiliar with the Thai language and recent linguistic scholarship. To the extent that Burma Mon scholars notice the differences in language between the texts of the *Rājāvaṃsa Kathā* and in contemporaneous Mon-language texts from inside Burma, they tend to think of the Mon dialects of Thailand as conservative, and, therefore, difficult to understand.

If there is such a wide disparity between my view of the Mon language of the text and that of local scholars, it is worth carefully considering the evidence for extended contact with, and possibly translation from, the Thai language. Based on the scholarship of language contact and convergence, I analyze the Mon of the text of the *Rājādhirāj* narrative and find evidence for “one-sided harmonization” of the Mon towards Thai, in other words, instances of the Mon replicating Thai models through the reinterpretation of native Mon

⁴ I use the term “Siamified” and elsewhere “Siamese Mon” in part to reflect the fact that this process started before there was the modern nation-state of Thailand.

⁵ Phra Candakantā [စန္ဒကန္တာ နဲ့], *Rājāvaṃsa Kathā* (2 Vols.) [ရာဇာဝံသကထာ (စာအုပ်)] (Pāk Lat, Siam 1911-1912 [ချုပ်ကိုင်လာတဲ့၊ အကြောင်းစဉ်၊ ၁၉၁၂]) [in Mon]. The two volumes contain several different titles, both for the collection as a whole and for each component text, with varying names in both Pāli and Mon. For convenience’s sake, I have followed the modern Mon title.

⁶ That is, Mons from inside Burma, in opposition to the Siamese or Thai Mons, or the *Thai Raman* [ไทยรามัญ].

materials. We find much less direct borrowing of linguistic material from Thai.

The purpose of this article is not to question the cultural legacy of the Mons or to cast into doubt their many cultural achievements and long presence in Mainland Southeast Asia. Rather, my study of a primary Mon-language source has revealed an unexpected mode of transmission. A further conceptual aspect to this process of analysis and comparison has been assumptions coming out of the intersection of history and linguistics. The first assumption, common among local scholars, is that languages of the same typological profile will, therefore, be more similar to each other than to other languages. In other words, many Mons like to claim that their language is very similar to Thai based on some basic word-order considerations. The evidence below complicates this picture, especially as many aspects of Burma Mon syntax are similar to Burmese. The second assumption, one that is harder to argue against, is that any similarities between Thai Mon and Thai have resulted from earlier Mon influence. I make no grand claims, but rather stress the contingent nature of variation within Mon, which I believe reflects specific episodes of contact both with Thai and with Burmese, rather than assuming that similarities or variation between Mon, Thai, and Burmese are always due to primary Mon influence.

Linguistic Convergence

The concepts of replication and convergence underlie the interpretations of this chapter, which, in turn, form a central part of my understanding of the transmission of the *Rājādhirāj* narrative. Where there is widespread language contact and bilingualism, people speaking more than one language tend to level out the difference between them. Multilingual speakers tend to develop quick inter-translatability between their languages. Rather than maintaining two distinct grammatical systems, there is a strong tendency towards “leakage,” so that the grammar and pragmatics – the ways of saying things – will tend to become more isomorphic over time. Convergence and replication can occur across the boundaries of

linguistic affiliation and typology – indeed, when two or more “genetically” unrelated languages come to be more like each other than their linguistic kin, this is a strong indication that convergence is at work.⁷ The term *convergence* covers the more familiar concept of “borrowing”, and is closely associated with loanwords. Convergence moves beyond the idea of individual words being borrowed and moves far beyond into the realms of syntax, morphology, and phonology.

The manifestations of convergence are contingent and depend on the duration and intensity of contact, as well as sociological factors. Contact can have pervasive influences throughout any aspect of language, including the sound system, vocabulary, morphology, and syntax. Bilingualism is key to the process, although not everyone in a given community need be bilingual for convergence to happen. If there are enough bilinguals who are in influential social positions, the changes in their speech can make its way back into the rest of the community as a whole. Language contact does not necessarily lead to “mixed languages,” “creoles,” or large-scale displacement of vocabulary, as is commonly thought. Those phenomena occur under very specific forms of contact not relevant to the case at hand.⁸ A particular set of factors may favor convergence in one direction at one time, and in another direction at another time.

⁷ My understandings of these ideas come from the work of Aikhenvald and Dixon, Matras, Heine and Kuteva, and Thomason and Kaufman. Their ideas are not uniform, but the nature of the debates reach a depth of technicality that I believe reaches beyond the immediate argument here. See: Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald & R.M.W. Dixon, *Grammars in Contact: A Cross-Linguistic Typology* (Oxford University Press, 2007), which is an edited volume; Bernd Heine and Tania Kuteva, *Language Contact and Grammatical Change* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005); Yaron Matras, *Language Contact* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009), Introduction; Sarah G. Thomason, *Language Contact* (Washington DC: Georgetown University Press, 2001); and Sarah G. Thomason and Terrence Kaufman, *Language Contact, Creolization, and Genetic Linguistics* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1991).

⁸ See Thomason and Kaufman.

Mons in 19th Century Siam

There are not many sources on the Mons living in Siam before the 20th century. What we know is that they settled scattered throughout what is now Central Thailand, usually in communities connected more by water than by land. The usual understanding is that these Mons arrived from Burma in waves starting in the 17th century,⁹ although there is mention of Mon-speaking communities at Ayutthaya in earlier centuries.¹⁰ Mon villages were often near those of Siamese and other populations that settled in the region. Mons cultivated rice and worked as potters, while women engaged in trade¹¹ and men could serve in the Siamese army in ethnically segregated regiments. There were Mon women at court. Rice cultivators were the first to assimilate to the Siamese, whereas those living in more isolated communities, particularly if they were engaged in trade or an occupation that the Siamese did not engage in, tended to maintain their language much later.¹² There appears to have been regular contact between Mons in both countries, particularly between religious institutions. Mons maintained separate monasteries and monastic education, meaning that at least a sizeable percentage of the male population were literate in Mon. Literacy and population size even warranted a Mon-language press.

⁹ See Robert Halliday, "Immigrations of the Mons into Siam," *The Mons: Collected Articles from the Journal of the Siam Society*, ed. Michael Smithies (Bangkok: Siam Society, 1986). Also Suphorn Ochaoen [สุภรณ์ โอเจริญ], *The Mons of Thailand* (มอญในเมืองไทย) (กรุงเทพฯ: สำนักงานกองทุนสนับสนุนการวิจัย, 2541 [1998]).

¹⁰ See Victor Lieberman, *Strange Parallels: Southeast Asia in Global Context, C. 800-1830, Volume 1: Integration on the Mainland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003).

¹¹ See Dhiravat na Pombejra, "VOC Employees and Their Relationships with Mon and Siamese Women: A Case Study of Osoet Pegua," *Other Pasts: Women, Gender, and History in Early Modern Southeast Asia*, ed. Barbara Watson Andaya (Manoa: University of Hawai'i at Manoa, 2000) 195-214.

¹² See Brian Lee Foster, *Commerce and Ethnic Differences: The Case of the Mons in Thailand* (Athens: Ohio University Press, Center for International Studies, Southeast Asia Program, 1982).

Evidence for Convergence

It is not possible to match up sentences between versions across languages because of the multiplicity of Thai-language versions of the *Rājādhirāj* narrative.¹³ In any case, my argument is that it is not clear that all of the text was simply translated from a *written* Thai-language source, but rather that the Mon-language *Rājādhirāj* is at least partly a retelling of the narrative in Siamese Mon. This means that, except for a very few instances, I cannot provide sentence-by-sentence equivalents between the versions. I have selected some clear-cut examples of the various manifestations of one-sided harmonization and analyzed them as fully as possible. The examples I consider here reflect the reanalysis of Mon syntax, largely using native Mon materials, to mirror a particular aspect of Thai syntax. Again, despite the supposed typological similarities between Thai and Mon, we find that there are significant differences in the syntax of the two languages – or perhaps more accurately, Burma Mon and Thai – such that examples of the replication of Thai are striking. Another aspect of these examples is reinterpretation of expansion, in which speakers change the semantic range of a given native word to match that of the model language. I finally consider examples of what I call ‘translationese’, language that is still so close to the source language as to be unintelligible without reference to the model expression.

Formal Possessive Marker

Unlike Burma Mon, Thai and Burmese have formal markers for possession. While all three languages here can in certain conditions use a strategy of juxtaposition of possessor before the possessed (in Burmese) or possessed before the possessor (in Thai and Mon), this is

¹³ I am grateful to Ajarn Bussaba Praphatsong of the Ministry of Education for sharing with me not only her knowledge of the various Thai-language versions of *Rājādhirāj*, but for advising me of the existence of two other Thai manuscripts, apparently translated from Mon, in the National Library. The standard Thai version is that of Chao Phrayā Phrakhlāng (Hon) [เจ้าพระยาพระคลัง (หน)] of 1886, which has been embellished and rewritten to make for more interesting reading to a Thai audience.

the only strategy available in Burma Mon. In Thai, a commonly-used strategy is the grammaticalized¹⁴ use of the word ‘ของ’ [*khong*, IPA: *kʰɔ̌ŋ*], literally ‘thing’ which in this context, no longer has its original meaning, but instead indicates possession.

When reading the *Rājādhirāj* narrative, my Mon instructor commented repeatedly on what appeared to be ‘superfluous’ words, one of which was the frequent use of *krɔ̌p*,¹⁵ which in Burma Mon means *thing, item; treasure*. Burma Mons whom I have consulted with on this phenomenon universally reject it, although some Burma Mons who have settled on the Thai side of the border may have already replicated this Thai pattern. In all of these sentences, the Burma Mon way to express the idea is to remove the use of *krɔ̌p*.

p 301:¹⁶

နရာမိလ္လာ	သို့	ဗိုလ်ဗး	ကြော်ခတာ	စိင်ချေ	ဒ်
Nəɣəmɪnlə	som	pɔ̌.ləpɛh	krɔ̌.həta	coiŋ.cʰeh	krɔ̌p
Narāmilla	with	general-troop	family	elephant-horse	THING ¹⁷

¹⁴ Following the definition of Payne, this is a process in which certain words take on a grammatical function, thus losing their original meaning. See Thomas E. Payne, *Describing Morphosyntax: A Guide for Field Linguists* (Cambridge, UK: Oxford University Press, 1997) 239 and 262.

¹⁵ All Mon pronunciations have been rendered in literary or “reading” style, and not colloquial pronunciations.

¹⁶ Unless otherwise indicated, page numbers all refer to Phra Candakantā’s *Rājāvaṃsa Kathā*. All translations are my own.

¹⁷ Words that are written in capitalized type have been grammaticalized and have specialized functions beyond their original meaning. Abbreviations: DEIC *deictic* (indicating “this, that”); FIN abbreviation for *finish*, used as a conjunction; FOC *focus* particle; HON honorific; INT is an *interrogative*; IRR and REAL *irrealis* and *realis*, aspect-tense distinctions between actions that have not or have been accomplished; NEG *negative*; TOP *topic*; a period between words reflects that words so joined are equivalent to one unit in the other language; = indicates that one unit contains a combination of fused meaningful units. Numbers followed by S or P indicate pronouns: 1P *first person plural*. An asterisk indicates ungrammaticality.

ဧကဝံ အနိုင်အခိုင် ကံ တိတ် ကျင် ဖုတ် ပြင် ဧက
 cəkaoʔ, ʔəŋɡiŋ.əkʰaiŋ cɛ̃ək tət klɜŋ pəŋoʔ pəraŋ cəkaoʔ
 body, strenuously march go.out come direct side body

တံခိုင် တ ရာဇဝိရာဇ် ပုန်။
 tɔm.cəiŋ təlaʔ rɛ̃əcɛ̃ətʰiʔrat plɔŋ
 foot lord Rājādhirāj AGAIN

Narāmilla, together with his troops, their families, and cavalry, forced themselves on to march straight back to the presence of Lord Rājādhirāj.

We find several points of interest in the following example, including words and phrases that are highly reminiscent of Thai, but cannot necessarily be put back into Thai word-for-word. This example exemplifies the linguistic slippage that often marks the language of *Rājādhirāj*. This is a highly coherent example, meaning that once we take into consideration the convergence of the Mon towards Thai, it becomes readily interpretable (although in this case, being an example of prognostication, the speech of the child is deliberately cryptic).

We can note the presence of an otherwise unknown Sanskrit word *rājaśāstra*, here *rɛ̃əcəsət* following the Thai pronunciation ‘ราชศาสตร์’¹⁸ [*ratchasat*, IPA: *rāːtɕʰàsà.t̚*], which in Thai usage is a law promulgated by the king in accordance with the principles of the Dhammathat. Another Siamified phrase is *၂၄၈ မာ တၣ်ခဲ ငၣ်ဂ့ၣ်*, not in the Mon sense of “the person who will become great,” but rather the Thai ‘ผู้เป็นใหญ่’ [*phu pen yai*, IPA: *pʰuː pen yàɪ*], a common description of someone who is a “superior.” There are many such examples throughout *Rājādhirāj* that may be only marginally meaningful, or misleading in Burma Mon, but when interpreted through the lens of a Thai expression or phrase become much clearer.

¹⁸ This word has come through Thai because of the final consonants, which in native Mon words would not result in a final *-t* pronunciation of a syllable final *-s*.

p 194:

ချိန် အာပဲ တြင် ထသင်ကိုင် ဂံ မိင် ပြ ခြံ ဒါရက မ
 c'on ʔa pədoə tərən ʔəsoŋ.kaiŋ kəʔ mɔiŋ pəruʔ krɔp tɕəŋkəkaʔ mə
 when go in door Thasān Kuir̄ GET hear sound **THING** child REL

ဟို ဂး သို့ ဇော် ကျင် ဒပ် ရာဇာသာတ်ဂံ တပ်စေဟ် ဒိုင်တဲ
 hɔm kɕh səmoiŋ cəŋɔk klɔŋ hətɕh rɕəcəsət kəʔ tɔ.cəneh tɕŋ.toə
 say **SAY** sming great come establish rājaśastra GET attack repulse

ကု ညး မ ဒ် ဇော်၊ ညး မ ဒ် ဇော် မ ဂံ ဇး။
 kaoʔ ɲɕh mə tɕh cəŋɔk. ɲɕh mə tɕh cəŋɔk mə kəʔ cəŋɕh
 with person REL be big. person REL be big REL GET be.victorious

When they went to the Tasawng Kaing gate, they heard the sound of a child saying, "The great sming who brings about the rājaśastra will attack and repulse the superior man. The superior man will be victorious."

Quotation Particle

A feature of Burma Mon syntax that sets it apart from both Thai and Burmese is the fact that it lacks a 'quotative' particle marking direct speech and other compliments of speech. In Thai, the usual particle is 'ว่า' [wa, IPA: wā.], a grammaticalized verb originally meaning *say*. In Burma Mon, the most natural way for speech to be quoted is to either precede or follow the speech with a verb of saying or hearing, as in this sentence from *Rājādhirāj*, showing the more usual Mon phrasing:

p 294:

ဟံ့ ကို စိုပ် တိရး ပိုဝိုက် ရ ဂး တဲ နံ အံ ကို
 hɔʔ ko cɔp tɕeʔ.rɕh pɔi.doik raʔ kɕh tuy, nɔm əsɔm ko
 not GIVE arrive territory 1P.vassal FOC **say** FIN, exist order GIVE

ပြင်ပြင်။
 praoʔ.prean
 prepare

“...[take them on] so that they won’t arrive in our territory.” So saying, he gave an order for preparations to be made.

We find in the text of *Rājādhirāj*, there are repeated examples of *kəh*, Literary Mon verb meaning *say, tell* being used exactly following the Thai pattern of *wa*. This is another usage that causes considerable confusion to all the Burma Mons with whom I have consulted. Other examples include verbs other than *say*, providing more evidence for the Mon replication of the Thai model of ‘รู้’ [ru wa, IPA: rú: wá:], ‘know that’, as in:

p 294:

တည်း	ရာဇာဓိရာဇ်	တီ	ဂး	ပုန်	ဗာ	စေ	ရီ
təlaʔ.ɲəh	rə̌cɛəʔhɪʔrət	təm	kəh	pənan	həmɛə	cih	rəm
lord	Rājādhirāj	know	SAY	army	Burman	descend	surround

ချင်း	ပြန်။
dʒɪŋ	prɔn.
town	Prome.

*Lord Rājādhirāj knew **that** the Burmese army had come down and surrounded Prome.*

The above example follows Thai word order, whereas in Burma Mon, the subordinate clause would precede the main verb, at least in Literary Mon. We may note that this Mon construction of placing the subordinate clause before the first is the natural word order of Burmese. A Burma Mon rendering of the above might be:

ပရ	ပုန်	ဗာ	စေ	ရီ	ချင်း	ပြန်	ဂံ
parao	pənan	həmɛə	cih	rəm	dʒɪŋ	prɔn	kəh,
circumstances	army	Burma	descend	surround	town	Prome	TOP,

တည်း	ရာဇာဓိရာဇ်	ဂံ	တီ	ကေတ်။
təlaʔ.ɲəh	rə̌cɛəʔhɪʔrət	kəʔ	təm	ket.
lord	Rājādhirāj	GET	know	TAKE.

Interrogative Strategies

There are many features of Mon syntax shared with Burmese. Burmese and Mon share a common interrogative pattern which stands in contrast to the Thai patterns. Mon usually indicates yes-no questions with an “absolute” question particle *ha*. Questions involving relative (who, what, where) words, however, are marked with a different particle, *rao* or *ro*. Thai, in contrast, uses a variety of expressions to ask absolute questions, including ‘ไหม’ [*mai*, IPA: *mǎi*], meaning ‘isn’t it?’. Another strategy is ‘หรือ’ [*reu*, IPA: *ruǐ*], ‘or’. The Thai and the Burmese-Mon strategies are not directly equivalent and do not always correlate with each other.

It is striking to see some of the seemingly incongruous uses of the Mon sentence-final particle *ha*, especially when found in mid-sentence. Such sentences as the following originally led my Mon teacher to wonder whether there was some kind of misprint or elision of text:

p 201:

အဲ	ချိန်	လဝ်	လမျီု	ကု	မိ	ရ။
ʔə	cʰɔn	lə	ləmyɜm	kaoʔ	mɨʔ	raʔ
Is	give.over	PUT	life	with	mother	FOC

လုဟ်	ဝံ	မိ	ကေတ်ဏာ	လမျီု	အဲ	ဟာ	ဟာ	ဗဲး	လမျီု	အဲ
ləmuh	wuʔ	mɨʔ	ket.na	ləmyɜm	ʔə	ha	ha	pəɬə	ləmyɜm	ʔə
now	this	mother	take	life	1S	INT	INT	free	life	1S

(Baññā Noy, having read a letter, is now speaking to Ai Lea) *I have entrusted my life to you, my mother – now will you take my life or free it?*

This is another example of a sentence that, while sounding unnatural to the Burma Mon ear and appearing to be Thai-like, at the same time, a direct back translation is not fully acceptable to the Thai ear:

เดี๋ยว นี้ แม่ เอา ชีวิต นั้น หรือ ปล่อย ชีวิต นั้น
 dǎaw ní: mæ: aw cʰi:wít cʰăn rǔ plò:y cʰi:wít cʰăn
 Now mother take life 1S or free life 1S

This slippage highlights that, despite the convergence of the Mon towards Thai, there are still many details in which the syntax of the two languages are distinct, or that some parts of the syntax have been more subject to convergence than others.

The Thai word *rǔ* by itself means ‘or’ and can be used to indicate alternatives. The Burmese and Mon strategies to indicate alternatives, however, are significantly different: one of the most natural strategies is to ask two parallel questions, each stating one alternative. The doubling of *ha* may indicate that Mon has not precisely copied the Thai, or the form is in fluctuation before replacing the old usage. The first instance of *ha* can be seen as a continuation of the old interrogative pattern, with the second instance taking on the meaning of ‘or’.

Politeness Strategies

Mon and Burmese have strategies to indicate politeness in making requests, suggestions, or commands, usually taking the form of sentence final particles and verbs used to soften the question. In Thai, however, there is one particularly high-frequent strategy, the use of the verb ‘ขอ’ [*kho*, IPA: *kʰǔː*], literally ‘ask for, request’, that has been rather grammaticalized as a way to indicate politeness. The direct translation of the Thai *kʰǔː* into Mon is *ʔat*. In Burma Mon, this verb is not used as a polite way to make a request. Clauses introduced with *ʔat* are found in *Rājādhirāj*, and I observed that this usage was confusing for both my Mon instructor and for other Burma Mons whom I asked. Part of the obscurity comes from how the construction is ‘headless’ in Thai, that is, no overt subject is indicated. Sentences like the following from *Rājādhirāj* are striking in their seeming unnaturalness to the Burma Mon speaker:

p 199:

အာတ်	ကို	ဗိုလဗး	သရဲ	စိင်	ချေ
ʔat	ko	pɔ̌.ləpɛh	səray	coiŋ	c'eh
request	give	soldier	hero	elephant	horse

ကို	အဲဒိုက်	ညင်	ရုံ	ဂပ်	ညိ။
ko	ʔoə.doik	ɲɔŋ	rum	kəp	ɲiʔ
GIVE	1S.vassal	so.that	enough	suitable	LITTLE.

The Burma Mon equivalent of the above sentence would most naturally drop the ʔat entirely.

Grammaticalization

I now consider more closely two other cases of grammaticalization. The first is the use of the word ‘arrive’ to indicate a human compliment of verbs of thinking and feeling, and the other is the use of the word ‘search’ to indicate direction of motion or action towards humans. These two examples are significant not only because of their relative frequency, but because of how their interpretation may be deceptive to the Burma Mon reader. These usages may appear either superfluous or seem to have a literal meaning that is in contrast to their intended meaning.

Arrive

In Thai, the verb ‘ถึง’ [*thueng*, IPA: tʰuɯŋ) can mean ‘arrive’, but has a function of also marking direction towards the endpoint of something. At the same time, it can also be used with more abstract concepts and means something like ‘about, concerning’. The use of tʰuɯŋ is particularly common with the verbs like ‘think of, remember and say, talk about’. In the following sentence we have a clear example of the Thai usage. Notable also is the presence of a direct Thai loanword ‘คิด’ [*khít*, IPA: kʰít], meaning ‘think (of), miss; plan, consider; wonder; be of the opinion’. In Mon the various meanings of kʰít are broken up into disparate expressions. Because kʰít is used quite frequently in Thai for a number of purposes, the word may have been

borrowed directly into Mon because its polysemy does not allow easy division:

p 199:

ကို	ဗညာ	နဲ	ဃိတ်	နိပ်	ဧကု	တု	မေ	ဝံ
ko	pəŋɕə	nə	kʰit	cɔp	cəkao?	təla?	mɛ	thao
GIVE	Baññā	Noy	think	ARRIVE	body	lady	Me	Thao

Let Baññā Noy think of Lady Me Thao; let Baññā Noy miss Lady Me Thao.

Search

Another Thai complementizer used in a similar way is the verb ‘หา’ [*hai*, IPA: *hǎː*], which also indicates directionality, principally towards humans. The term literally means ‘look for’ but in most contexts, the idea of actually searching is absent. In the following sentence, we find a clear example of Mon having replicated the Thai pattern, with the native Mon *klay*, ‘search, look for’ being pressed into service. For a Burma Mon speaker, this usage is discordant because of the desire to interpret the Mon meaning literally:¹⁹

p 210:

ကို	ဗညာ	နဲ	တိတ်	ကျင်	နီ	အဲ	ရ။
ko	pəŋɕə	nə	tɛt	klɜŋ	klay	ʔə	raʔ
GIVE	Baññā	Noy	exit	come	search	1S	FOC

Let Baññā Noy come to me, Have Baññā Noy come to me.

In Burma Mon, this sentence could be rendered:

ကို	ဗညာ	နဲ	တိတ်	ကျင်	ဧရင်	အဲ	ရ။
ko	pəŋɕə	nə	tɛt	klɜŋ	cəŋɕəŋ	ʔə	raʔ
GIVE	Baññā	Noy	exit	come	vicinity	1S	FOC

Let Baññā Noy come to me, Have Baññā Noy come to me.

¹⁹ Such English expressions as “Come look for me tomorrow” are not that different from the Thai.

Changing ‘see’ into ‘think’

A final set of expressions have to do with a Thai usage covering a range of meanings, including thinking, planning, considering, and agreeing, all based on the Thai verb ‘เห็น’ [*hěn*] or ‘see’. The meaning varies according to the complementizer it is coupled with. These include:

Thai	Thai Mon Equivalent
เห็น [<i>hen</i> , IPA: <i>hěn</i>] <i>see</i> = see; plan; consider	ညာတ် <i>ṇaṭ</i>
เห็น ว่า [<i>hen wa</i> , IPA: <i>hěn wá:</i>] <i>see say</i> = be of the opinion that, think	ညာတ်ဝံ <i>ṇaṭ kəḥ</i>
เห็น ด้วย [<i>hen duai</i> , IPA: <i>hěn duây</i>] <i>see also</i> = agree, be of an accord	ညာတ်ကို <i>ṇaṭ kom</i>

No expression exists in Mon that corresponds neatly to the multiple uses of the Thai *hěn*. As in the case of finding an equivalent to the Thai term *k’it*, we can observe that Burma Mon divides up the Thai expression into several distinct expressions. Nativized equivalents of these expressions are frequent throughout the text of *Rājādhirāj*. Because of their idiomatic, extended meanings, they pose significant hurdles towards comprehension for Burma Mon, especially the Mon equivalent of *hěn duây*, which sounds as though it means simply ‘see also’. The expression ‘see say’ is one of the most frequently met with in the text of *Rājādhirāj*:

p 202:

ညာတ်	ဂး	ဒး	အိင်ဒိုင်	လဝ်	ကာ	ရ။
<i>ṇaṭ</i>	<i>kəḥ</i>	<i>təḥ</i>	<i>ʔəiŋ.təŋ</i>	<i>lə</i>	<i>kla</i>	<i>raʔ</i>
<i>see</i>	<i>SAY</i>	<i>HIT</i>	<i>endure</i>	<i>set-down</i>	<i>before</i>	<i>FOC</i>

(I) think we will have to endure it for the time being

In Burma Mon, this might be rendered as:

ဒး အောင်ဒိုင် လဝ် က္ကု ရါ အဲ ထောင်။
 tɛh ʔaɪŋ.tɔŋ lə kla raʔ, ʔoə tʰeəŋ
 HIT endure set-down before FOC, 1S think

The Burma Mon rendering not only employs a Mon rendering of the Burmese *tʰɛ*, English ‘*think, have an opinion*’, but even replicates Burmese word order by placing the quotation before the verb, as is done in languages of subject-object-verb word order as Burmese.

There are two variations on the expression ‘*agree, be of an accord*’, reflecting two different ways that this is rendered in Thai. The first in Mon is *ɲat kɔm*, literally ‘*see also*’, while the second is *ɲat kʰɔh (kɔm)*, reflecting another Thai phrase ‘*เห็นดี*’ [*hen di*, IPA: *hě̃n diː*], literally, ‘*see good*’. This phrase has perhaps more the nuance also of ‘*approve of*’. In Burma Mon, *ɲat kʰɔh*, a more natural expression would be *tɔp cɔt* literally ‘*mind equal*’, or *cih cɔt*, literally ‘*fall mind*’, depending on the context.

p 391:

တုလး ဖရင် မင် ဂံင် ဝံ မိုင် တဲ
 təlaʔ.ŋɛh pʰəraŋ mɛəŋ kɔŋ kɔʔ moɪŋ tuy,
 lord Pharañ Mañ Kāñ GET hear FIN,

ညာတ်ခိုဟ် ကို ရါ
 ɲat kʰɔh kɔm raʔ
 see good also FOC

Bayin Min Gaung, having heard, agreed.

Miscellaneous Examples of Thai Syntax

There are many more examples of individual expressions and words that occur just a few times in the text. We find instances where the word order of certain expressions follows Thai. In the first example, the word for ‘*exist*’, or in the context, ‘*arise*’, is placed first

in the sentence following the usual position of ‘มี’ [*mi*, IPA: *miː*] in Thai:

p 200:

နံ	စိတ်	ဆာန်ချူ	တၢ်	ရ။
num	cot	cʰan.du	ton	raʔ
EXIST	mind	pity	GO.UP	FOC

Literally, *(S/he) felt pity arising*, or more naturally, *(S/he) felt pity*.

In Burma Mon, the *num* must come after the main phrase, in this case between the *cʰan.du* and *ton*.

The next example is a collocation involving a metaphor of the ‘mind’, the figurative seat of emotions in Mon, Thai, and Burmese. In the following, we find the Thai collocation ‘น้อยใจ’ [*noi chai*, IPA: *nɔ̌ːy cay*), literally, ‘few mind’, rendered into Mon:

p 204:

လၢ	ချၢ်	အာန်	စိတ်	ပဲ	ဗိုၣ်နီၣ်	ပိုၣ်	ရ။
ləpaʔ	cʰəp	ʔon	cot	pəðəə	pɜ̌.pənan	poy	raʔ
do.not	think	few	mind	in	forces	3P	FOC

Do not feel insignificant because of our forces.

The Burma Mon equivalent means *mind small*, as does the equivalent phrase in Burmese, and we also note that, at least for the literary language, the two parts of the sentence are reversed:

ပဲ	ဗိုၣ်နီၣ်	ပိုၣ်	ၣ်	လၢ	စိတ်	ညောတ်	ရ။
pəðəə	pɜ̌.pənan	poy	kəh,	ləpaʔ	cot	dɔt	raʔ
in	forces	3P	TOP,	do.not	mind	small	FOC

“Translationese” – Translation or Retelling?

As many of the above examples suggest, many sentences and passages in the Mon-language *Rājādhirāj* do not make good Literary

Mon as understood in Burma. At the same time, these same sentences, when translated word-for-word back into Thai, are not smooth native Thai sentences. How can we know whether the text of *Rājādhirāj* was translated directly from a written Thai model, or simply retold in Siamese Mon? Unfortunately, there does not appear to be a body of research on this topic.²⁰ We may speculate that retelling in natural language – however syntactically similar it has become with another model language – would likely have a certain flow and cohesiveness that a translation may not. We have already established that the Mon-language version of this text does not match up to any one printed Thai-language version. Parts of the *Rājādhirāj* narrative appear to Burma Mon speakers to flow and cohere more so than others, but this reflects their judgement of the (un)naturalness of Siamese Mon. Hence, I can make no conclusions on the matter of translation or retelling, noting only that both are possibilities. I here consider some examples of sentences that seem to be un-interpretable without reference to a Thai original.

The following are examples of “translationese,” a term I use to describe language that is still rather close to the model language to be considered natural examples of the host language. I am referring not to non-native speech, but rather attempts by native speakers to render foreign speech into their own language, often following certain formulas and conventions. The results may not be particularly natural and have a distinctly foreign flavor, which may in fact be valued aesthetically. At other times, there may be no need to render the foreign language more naturally into the local language because speakers are already familiar with the foreign expression. Being able to determine that level of familiarity, however, requires knowing the cultural, linguistic, and educational context of the speech. As discussed earlier, it appears that the Mons of 19th century were likely quite familiar with at least spoken Thai. For the non-native speaker, judging the naturalness or acceptability of any given utterance can become extremely difficult. I have had to rely on the reactions of

²⁰ Discussions with Mathias Jenny and Tobias Weber of the University of Zürich have led to no leads on a body of literature that discusses any of these phenomena.

Burma Mon speakers to these passages, although they themselves may accept great opacity in language.

The first example is startling because I have been able to locate a similar, though not exact, sentence in Chao Phrayā Phrakhlang's Thai-language version of *Rājādhirāj*. The meaning of the sentence is, 'It is up to you, my Lord.' The Thai word 'สุดแต่' [*sut tae*, IPA: *sùt tǎe*], literally 'end from', but meaning, '*it is up to [you]*', and which may be somewhat unusual, has been used in the Mon sentence. There may be something in the expression that was not easily captured in the Mon, or perhaps the Mon speakers who recorded this text may have been unfamiliar with the Thai expression. Yet again, people of the time may have been familiar with the expression or passage in Thai and a more nativized rendering was not necessary. In this passage, Mu Ai Lea is talking to Mahā dewī, telling her that he will work on her behalf, to which Mahā dewī replies:

p 198:

သုတ်	ဆ	တ	အဲ	ရ။
sut	c ^h a?	təla?	ʔoə	ra?
sut	only	lord	IS	FOC

Contextually, we can surmise that it means, '*It is up to you, my Lord*', or, '*As you like, my Lord*', although it sounds like '*Silk only as much as my lord*'. *Sut* in this context is meaningless in Mon: this spelling renders the pronunciation *sʰ*, meaning '*silk*' or '*sūtra*'. This sentence is wholly unintelligible without reference to the T sentence:

p 82 (Thai-language *Rājādhirāj* of Chao Phraya Phrakhlang):

สุดแต่	พระเจ้า	พี่	คิด	เถิด
sut tǎe:	p ^h rǎʔ.cāw	p ^h i:	k ^h it	t ^h ɛt
end from	Lord	older.sibling	think	EXHORTIVE

It's up to you; think of it.

The next sentence is unusual in that it appears to use honorifics with the first person. Here the monk Acā Ma Peñ is speaking, offering

to do something on behalf of Smin Ma Rū. The position of the grammaticalized ‘give’, used in both Mon and Thai in this context to mean ‘allow’, would seem to change the subject, but from the context, that does not appear to be the intended meaning:

p 210:

အဲ ညှ ကို လုပ် ဂါ တွ တိ ဇွန် စိင် ဣင်၊
 ʔə ɲa? kə lɔp klay təla? tɔe? cəŋɔk coiŋ pətaiŋ,
 1S HON GIVE enter SEARCH lord land great elephant white

အဲ ဇွဲ အာတ် ဒုဟ် ထောံ။
 ʔə cʰə ʔat tuh tʰəʔ
 1S help request sin throw

This sentence appears to mean not, *I will let him go to the Lord of the White Elephant and apologize (for you)*, but rather, *I will go to the Lord of the White Elephant for you and apologize on your behalf*. We can note a calque of the Thai expression asking for forgiveness ‘ขอโทษ’ [*kho thot*, IPA: *kʰɔː tʰɔːt*] literally, ‘request sin’, here rendered in Mon but otherwise unknown in Burma Mon.

Finally, I want to consider a short example of Literary Mon from a text contemporaneous with *Rājādhirāj* that was recorded in Burma. I here consider two extracts from the 19th century text *Wotthu Mi Dorī Keh Htaw* “The Story of Golden-Nib Mi Dong”:

p 25:

နကို ဂလာန် ချိန်စိတ် ဗြ ရတ်ထင်ဏှာ ဟို တိုန် သာသာ
 ŋəʔ.kə kəlan dan.bət prə ɾət.tʰə.ŋa ham tan sa.sa
 with word soft woman Rat Thaw Nha say GO.UP gently

ပဲ လဂ် ရ။ ယွဲလေဝ် မွဲ တံ၊ မွဲ တံ ညး
 pədoə ləkɔh ra? yɜʔ.lɛ bɔə tɔʔ, bɔə tɔʔ ɲɛh
 in time=that FOC. VOC older-sister PLU, older-sister PLU people

ကေမ္လၢၣ်, လၢပာ? တၢ်ဟ် လၢၣ်နီၣ် ငၢၣ်တၢၢ် ပူဆာ အိုတ် ညိ။
 kəmləiŋ, ləpa? tɔh lənɯm cəŋ.tao pao.cʰa ʔat ɲi?
 PLU, do.not become worry distress distress all LITTLE.

Then, with soft words, Rot Htaw Hna said gently, "Sisters, please do not worry or be distressed."

Although there are some examples of elaborated speech and expressions in *Rājādhirāj*, the language there features less repetition, such as we find here, of ‘older sisters’, and of *lənɯm*, *tao.pao*, and *cəŋ cʰa*, each of which convey the same idea. In the above passage, there is no formal quotation marker, but rather the verb of saying precedes the quotations.

Conclusion

I have tried to present my findings as persuasively as possible without going more deeply into the nature of Thai, Mon, and Burmese syntax. It is remarkable that someone with a circumscribed familiarity with Thai and Mon has been able to see the parallels between Thai syntax and the syntax of the Mon of this text. Scholars with greater familiarity with literary Thai may find more profound confluences between the languages. At the same time, not everything that is unusual in the Mon *Rājādhirāj* may be attributable to Thai models. We do not know much about the circumstances of the creation of the text. I hope this study is a starting point for new lines of inquiry.

We do not yet have a sufficient state of knowledge to definitively situate the language of the Mon *Rājādhirāj*. Many scholars believe the language reflects dialectal differences between Burmese Mon and Siamese Mon, with the latter preserving words that have died out in Burma. While Thai scholars have researched modern Thai Mon dialects,²¹ more work has to be done on variation within

²¹ See bibliography for some of these listings.

Burma Mon.²² Scholars may argue that since the Mons were first in the area, any similarities between Mon and neighboring languages must come from Mon. This logic continues that if the Mon *Rājādhirāj* has been influenced by Thai, then Thai itself was influenced by Mon. We cannot escape the primary explanatory power of Mon.

The texts of the *Rājāvaṃsa Kathā* may have been created at a particular turning point in local history writing. Influenced by Siamese ideas of a national history, members of the Siamese Mon community may have decided to compile a national history. At the time, the idea of “translation” as a process crossing different national essences may not have been as firmly entrenched as it is now. The narrative was simply retold in another medium, as may have been happening for centuries.

My intention here is not to paint the Mon language as passive and receptive, with Mon speakers mimicking the speech of their more powerful neighbors, the Thais and Burmese. Rather, I believe that a careful examination of the actual language of historical and literary texts can reveal the cross-cultural contact and exchanges that has been occurring between at least these three languages for centuries. The Mon language of *Rājādhirāj* reveals a particularly vivid and unexpected example.

²² While Diffloth has surveyed Mon phonology, little has been done on variation in syntax, usage, and vocabulary. See Gérard Diffloth, *The Dvaravati Old Mon Language and Nyah Kur* (Bangkok: Chulalongkorn University Printing House, 1984).

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