META-RHYMES IN CLASSICAL THAI POETRY

ABSTRACT

Descriptions of rhyme patterns in classical Thai verse are found in Thai versification textbooks and Thai literary anthologies. These descriptions are meticulous in their discussion and detail. Because of this detail, it appears that each verse form has its own idiosyncratic pattern that must be learned individually. To determine the validity of this impression, this study examines and compares the rhyme patterns of the five classical Thai verse forms: *râay, khloon, kàap, chăn,* and *klccn.* The study concludes that the rhyme schemes are not idiosyncratic; but, rather, they are based on three primary couplet patterns (meta-rhymes), with the use of each pattern dependent upon the number of lines (*wák*) in each stanza. These patterns, moreover, are highly conservative in that they have exhibited little or no change throughout the history of Thai literature.

Meta-Rhymes in Classical Thai Poetry

Poetry has always held a significant position in the literature of Thailand. Working with five different verse forms, Thai poets, over the centuries, have created a body of work that compares in quality with the very best of Western literature. Much of the beauty of this poetry derives from the mastery of rhyme patterns that characterize all forms of classical Thai verse.

Traditionally, descriptions of classical Thai verse forms and ryhme patterns have been found in Thai versification textbooks known as *chǎnthálák* (Pali *chanda* – prosody; *laksana* – characteristics) and in Thai literary anthologies. *Phya* Uppakit Silpasarn's *Làk phaasáa thay* [Principles of the Thai language] (1968) is generally considered the best of the *chǎnthálák* series and Plťaŋ ná? nákhcen's *Pràwàt wanná-khádii thay sǎmràp náksiksǎa* [History of Thai Literature for Students] (1964) the best of the anthologies.¹ Sources in Western languages have

1. The following phonetic transcription is used in this study:

Consonants Bilabial Labio-Alveolar Palatal Velar Glottal Dental

Stops p ph b t th d c ch k kh ? Fricatives f s h Nasals m n η Laterals I Trills r Semi-vowels w y

		-			
		Front	Central	Back	
		U	nrounded	Rounded	
1.3	High	i, ii, ia	i, ii, ia	u, uu, ua	
1	Mid	e, ee	e, ee	0,00	
	Low	E, EE	a, aa	c, cc	
				Tones	
	no m	ark	mi	d tone	
10			low tone		
			falling tone high tone		
	*		ris	ing tone	

included Bidyalankarana (1926), Schweisguth (1951), Mosel (1959, 1961), Wenk (1961), Simmonds (1963), Jones and Mendiones (1970), and Chitakasem (1972). During the past ten years, the number of studies on the structure and development of classical Thai poetry has increased significantly: Gedney (1978), Cooke (1980), Kuo (1980), Bickner (1981), Hudak (1981), and Bofman (1984). Investigations into the verse forms found in the dialects outside Central Thai have also become prominent: Wijeyewardene (1968), Egerod (1971), Hartmann (1976, 1981, 1983), and Compton (1979).

All of these studies recognize the importance of rhyme for Thai poetry, both as a source of aesthetic pleasure and as a feature in constructing stanzas (see Hudak 1981 for details). A few of the studies discuss similarities in the rhyme schemes between two or three of the Thai verse forms (Uppakit 1968; Hudak 1981). None, however, investigates the rhyme schemes of all five of the classical Thai verse forms: râay, khloon, kàap, chǎn, and klccn. Because of this lack of a single study on rhyme in classical Thai poetry, this paper considers the following. First, it examines Thai stanzaic components and specific types of rhyme required for stanzas; second, it compares the rhyme schemes of the classical verse forms and reduces them to those primary patterns, meta-rhymes, that consistently appear in all the classical forms.

Descriptions of all the major verse types in the *chănthálák* consist of a scheme of each verse type, a list or discussion of the constraints on each form, and a short example that, in theory, exhibits the constraints, although this is not always the case. In some versions, there are attempts to provide a history of the verse forms. All *chănthálák* list the constituents requisite for a poem: *kháná?*, the structure of each verse type; *pháyaan*, the specific number of syllables set for each verse type; and *sămphàt*, the rhyme requirements.

The *kháná*? of a Thai poem consists of several components which are found in all verse forms, their number and arrangement dependent upon the verse type. Each verse type has a required number of syllables, *pháyaan*, arranged into groups called *wák*. Usually two *wák* complete a line of poetry, a *bàat*; and one or more *bàat* form a stanza, *bòt*. Each stanza exhibits specific rhyme patterns. A typical stanza without the rhyme pattern appears as follows.²

^{2.} Each () represents one syllable. In Thai, wák making up a bàat are generally printed on the same line.

wák 00000

bàat

00000

bòt

00000

bàat

00000

While the *kháná?* describes the basic requirements for the structure of a particular verse type, it is the rhyming patterns that create the greatest variation and often determine the excellence of the poem. In fact, it is the rhyme that signals a poem, for without rhyme, a poem cannot exist in Thai. Mosel (1961:9) relates an incident in which Prince Bidyalankarana, wishing to determine the importance of rhyme in poetry, inserted a few stanzas of blank verse into a lecture on poetry, only to discover that the audience was completely unaware of the blank verse because of the lack of rhyme. Rhyme in Thai can be divided into two major types:1) sǎmphàt $n\hat{c}ck$ – external rhyme, or rhyme that occurs between end syllables of $w\hat{a}k$; and 2) sǎmphàt nay – internal rhyme, or rhyme that occurs between syllables within a $w\hat{a}k$.

External rhyme, considered compulsory for poetry, is always the type in which two syllables are alike in all respects except the tones and the initial consonants. In earlier poetry the tones on the syllables also had to agree for the syllables to rhyme. In the following example taken from the *klccn* classic? $\hat{l}n\tilde{a}w$ of Rama II (1809-24), these external rhymes are underlined.

dčckmáay	thúk	phan	kĉ	ban <i>daan</i>
flower	every	kind	then	produce
bčckbaan	keesčcn	kháccen		klin
bloom	pollen	spread in a	airsmell	
phummárê	et rĉn		rćcy	booybin
bee	fly in circles	call	fly	
pràsăan	siaŋ	phiaŋ	phinphâat	khćcŋ
unite	sound	as	orchestra	ring

(klćc η rhymes with the final syllable of the second wák of the following stanza, linking the two.)

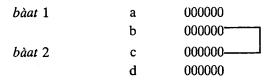
Flowers of every kind bloom and produce fragrant pollen floating

and spreading in the air. Bees fly in a circle buzzing, uniting their sounds like the sounds of an orchestra.

External rhyme is considered compulsory in poetry for several reasons. First, it helps create the melodious and pleasing quality (*phayrć?*) essential to Thai poetic aesthetics. Repeatedly, in literary anthologies, in printed introductions to the poetry classics, in reviews of new literary compositions, and in the poems themselves, highly esteemed and valued works are described as *phayrć?*.

A second reason for external rhyme is discussed by Mosel in "Sound and Rhythm in Thai Poetry." In that article, Mosel (1959:31) claims that Thai verse forms, with the exception of *chăn*, have demarcative rhythm, which "...is obtained by grouping the syllables into a fixed number or groups with a fixed number of syllables." These groups are marked by pauses at the end of each group. To emphasize these groups, external rhyme pairs are used. Kuo (1980:22) also makes the claim that external rhyme patterns help to determine and to mark rhythmic groupings.

Finally, external rhyme is instrumental in the formation of stanzas, for it orders formalized patterns of syllables. In the formation of stanzas, external rhyme is discussed in terms of rounds or *rûat*. A *rûat yày* (major round) is completed when the end syllables of two wák rhyme. One completed *rûat yày* is necessary for one stanza. In his discussion of *klccn*, *Phya* Uppakit Silpasarn (1968:359) maintains that the minimum number of *bàat* per stanza is generally two (each *bàat* consists of two wák) because the *rûat yày* begun in the first *bàat* is completed in the second. Schematically, such a *klccn* stanza appears as follows with the *rûat yày* linking the second wák of the first *bàat* with the first *wák* of the second *bàat*:



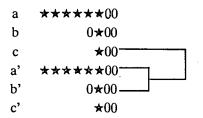
In maalinii chăn 15, however, a stanza consists of a single bàat divided into three wák:³

а	******00
b	0★00
с	★00

3. The chan meters are based on two different types of syllables designated as light and heavy. Each * represents a light syllable and each 0 a heavy one.

The single *bàat* of this meter completes a stanza because the *rûat yày* begun on the last syllable of *wák* a is completed on the last syllable of *wák* b. The basis for the Thai stanza, then, is the couplet, "the most rudimentary form of stanzaic organization..." (Fussell 1979:129). *Phya* Uppakit's claim that the minimum number of *bàat* per stanza is generally two probably results from the fact that most popular verse forms, including the *klccn* stanzas, have stanzas of two *bàat*.

Conceivably, a single complete stanza could consist of only two $w\dot{a}k$, provided that the end syllable of these $w\dot{a}k$ rhymed. In most cases, however, stanzas appear in series. With this arrangement, the stanzas are nearly always linked to each other with another rhyme also considered part of the $r\hat{u}at y\dot{a}y$. In a series of *maalinii* chǎn 15, this linking rhyme occurs between wák c of the first stanza and wák a of the second.



These linking rhymes between stanzas are almost always present and can continue for thousands of stanzas.

Besides the *rûat yày*, external rhyme also includes the *rûat lék* (minor round) which optionally appears in stanzas with more than three *wák*. The *rûat lék* links the last syllable of a *wák* with one of the early syllables, usually the third, in the following *wák*. Schematically the *rûat lék* appears as follows:

а	000000
b	000000
с	000000
d	000000

Because the *rûat lék* does not link the two end syllables of *wák* a and *wák* b, it cannot be the basis for a stanza.

The other type of rhyme important to Thai poetry is internal rhyme, sămphât nay, rhyme which occurs between syllables within a wák:

dčckmáay	thúk	phan	kĉ	bandaan
flower	every	kind	then	produce
bèckbaan	keesčcn	khácccn	klìn	

bloom pollen spread smell in air

Examples in the above two wák include phan with ban, and keesčcn with khácccn. Alliterative pairs such as keesčcn and klin are also classified as types of internal rhyme. While not compulsory, internal rhyme is the area in which Thai poets display their versatility. In many cases, it is thought that the poets kept their rhyming patterns secret, only revealing them before death to their students.

In all chănthálák, each rûat yay paţtern appears with the kháná? of each verse type. The descriptions of the kháná? and the syllables linked by the rhyme are meticulous, but the very detail of these descriptions obscures a fundamental simplicity. This wealth of detail and description suggest that each verse type in Thai, whether it be khloon, kàap, klccn, or one of the chăn meters, has its own idiosyncratic rhyme scheme. Such is not the case, for all of the meters of classic Thai verse are based on similar patterns. These similarities can be best observed by dividing the five verse types into two groups. râay and khloon, the earliest Thai verse forms, form the first group; kàap, chăn, and klccn complete the second. In addition to the intra-group similarities, other parallels in rhyme appear when the two groups are compared to each other.

râay and khloon

Most chănthâlâk and Western studies on khloo η acknowledge that similarities in rhyme exist between râay and khloo η (Uppakit 1968, Bickner 1981, Hartman 1983). Other similarities appear among the different khloo η varieties. Comparing these various forms reveals that the similarities are based upon the structure of each stanzaic form, and three basic rhyme patterns.

 $r\hat{a}ay$ is a type of rhymed prose usually consisting of $w\hat{a}k$ of five syllables each and linked together by rhyme; a series of any number of $w\hat{a}k$ forms a single stanza. There are four basic types of $r\hat{a}ay$:

1) râay booraan

00000 00000 00000 00000

2) râay sùphâap in which the last three wák have the same pattern as the last three wák in khloon 2 sùphâap.

0000 0000 00000 00000 00000 00000

3) râay dân in which the last four wák have the same pattern as bàat three and bàat four in khloon 4 dân.

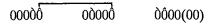
(00)00 00000 00 00000 00000 00000

4) râay yaaw in which the number of syllables per wák is not set and the rhyme pattern links the last syllable of a wák with any syllable in the following wák.

In these early verse types, two rhyme patterns consistently appear. Occurring in all the $r\hat{a}ay$ forms the first pattern links the final syllable of a $w\hat{a}k$ with an early syllable of the following $w\hat{a}k$, forming the $r\hat{a}at$ lék of a formal stanza:

00000 00000

The second rhyme pattern is the couplet in which the end syllables of two wak rhyme. This couplet also, in part, signals the completion of a passage of raay suphaap:



Characteristic of $r\hat{a}aysuph\hat{a}ap$, the couplet may also occur in $r\hat{a}ayyaaw$, although it is not listed as a required pattern.

Two basic types of khloon verse appear in the Thai literary corpus, khloon sùphâap and khloon dân.⁴ These two types, nearly identical, vary chiefly in syllable number, although minor differences in tone placement and in rhyme scheme also occur. In khloon, the rhyme patterns between syllables nearly always require that the two rhyming syllables have the same tone. Both types of khloon have varieties with stanzas of two bàat (khloon 2), three bàat (khloon 3) and four bàat (khloon 4). Each of the numbers in the name refers to the number of five syllable wák in the respective stanzas. A bàat can be further divided into two wák.

Both khloon 2 sùphâap and khloon 2 dân have identical external rhyme patterns, a couplet linking the two bàat in each stanza: mâat and râat in khloon 2 sùphâap, nécy and cêcy in khloon 2 dân.⁵

^{4.} The khloon verse form was developed when the Thai language had a three tone system. Sometime between the fourteenth and sixteenth century these tones split, forming the present day five tone system. Because of this split, much of the khloon poetry seems to be filled with errors. A significant number of these errors disappear when the original tones are used in reading the verse. See Bickner 1981 for a complete discussion.

^{5.} In Thai, the last two wák (the second bàat) are printed on the same line.

khloon 2	sùphâap				
taa	mian	taa	márík <i>mâa</i>	t	
eye	like	eye	deer		
phít	khiw	phrá	lcc	râat ———	
look at	eyebrow	Phra	lcc	royal	
pràdùt	kêew	kawthan	kòŋ	naa	
like	jewel	bow	arch	particle	
His eyes a	are like the	eyes of the	e deer. Gaze	e at Phra Lcc's eyebrows.	
They are	arched like	e the jewel	ed bow. Is	it not so?	
-				Lilit phrá? lcc	
khlooη 2 dân					
bâannĉck	τεεη	lék	nćcy		
countrysi	de strengt	h little	small		
baanráca	n cĉcy	cĉcy			
proper na	ame little	little			

There is little strength in the countryside. Baanracan's bravery is little. Sàdùdii bâan baanrácan kham pràphan baan rîan Phya Uppakit Silpasarn Schematically these two forms appear as follows. In addition, the diagrams show that the linking rhymes between stanzas are identical.

khloon 2 sùphâap	<i>khloo</i> η 2 dân
	00000 00000000000000000000000000000000
(00) <u>0006 (00)</u>	
ôôôôô	0000

cìthǎan brave

khloon 3 stanzas also have the same external rhyme schemes. Both stanzas are formed by adding a third *bàat* of five syllables and by linking it to the couplet with a *rûat lék*.

 khloon 3 sùphâap
 khloon 3 dân

 00000
 00000

 00000
 00000

 00000
 00000

 00000
 00000

 00000
 00000

 00000
 00000

 00000
 00000

 00000
 00000

 00000
 00000

Phya Uppakit (1968:403) suggests that these two types of *khloo* η are similar, but fails to clarify the similarities; he does point out, however, that the couplet in *khloo* η 3 dân may end on the fourth syllable rather than on the fifth.

khloom 4 stanzas are far more complex. The chief difference between these stanzas and the khloom 2 and khloom 3 stanzas lies in the couplet structure. Couplets in the khloom 4 stanzas are formed by the end syllables of two wák which are separated by other intervening wák:

00000
00000
00000 00000 00000 00000
00000

In the khloom 2 and khloom 3 stanzas, on the other hand, no such intervening wák exist in the couplets.

Although more complex, the two types of khloon 4 stanzas are strikingly similar both in structure and in rhyme. khloon 4 sùphâup thammádaa and khloon 4 dân wiwitthámaalii represent the two most common varieties of khloon 4:

khloon 4 sùphâap thammádaa

<i>sĭa</i> ŋ sound	<i>lii</i> rumor	<i>sĭa</i> ŋ sound	<i>lâw</i> tell	? <i>âa</i> ŋ say	?an day whatever	phîi older sibling	?ccy particle	
sĭaŋ sound	yĉm likely	ycc raise	yót honor	khray — who	thûa every wh	<i>lâa</i> ere earth		
sčcη two	khľa you two	phîi older sibling	làp <i>lǎy</i> – to be sound asleep		liim forget	tìin wake	rii particle	phîi older silbling
sčcη two	phîi older sibling	kit think	?eeŋ self	?âa particle	yàa do not	dây get	thǎam ask	phia we

What are these rumors? What do they say? Whose honor is raised throughout the land? Have you two been sleeping so soundly that you've forgotten to awaken? Think for yourself: don't ask us.

Lilit phrá? lcc

khloon 4 dân wiwitthámaalii

yaam time period	nâat destruction	khàat separate from	càak ḟrom	câaw title, you	cam remember	<i>khěn</i> adversity calamity
phûak	phamâa	thaarun			rút	ráay
group	Burmese	cruel, harsh			terrible	fierce
khòmkhìi	khúkkhaam	pen ———		J [pàathian	
tyrannize	threaten	be			savage	
dûay	cìt	hòothîam	khláay ——		sàt	phray
with	heart	ruthless, cruel	similar		animal	forest

That time of destruction, separated from you (Siam),-remember the calamity: Groups of the cruel and terrible Burmese tyrannizing and threatening, savages with ruthless hearts like animals of the forest.

Sàdùdii bâan baaŋrácan kham pràphan baaŋ rîaŋ Phya Uppakit Silpasarn

Comparing the structures of these two *khloon* 4 stanzas reveals only three differences in rhyme patterns:

<i>khloo</i> η 4 sùphâap thammádaa	khlooη 4 dân wiwitthámaalii
00000 00(00)	00000 00(00)
00000	<u>ộ6</u> 00060
00000	(00) <u>60</u> _0000
00000 00000	00000 00000
<u></u>	(00)00 00000
	00 00

First, in khloon 4 sùphâap thammádaa, wák two rhymes with the couplet completed by wák three and wák five. In khloon 4 dân wiwitthámaalii, on the other hand, wák two forms its own couplet with wák five.

A second difference is found in the couplet formed by wak four and wak seven of both stanzas. In khloon 4 thammadaa, the rhyme must fall on the fifth syllable of the wak. In khloon 4 wiwitthamaalii the rhyme may fall on either the fourth or the fifth syllable.

The last difference lies in the linking rhymes between stanzas. In khloon 4 thammádaa the last wák rhymes with the first wák of the following stanza. In khloon 4 wiwitthámaalii the link is with the third wák.

Both khloon 4 thammádaa and khloon 4 wiwitthámaalii serve as models from which other khloon varieties derive. As models, these stanzas exhibit the most common rhyming patterns as defined in the versification textbooks. The variations are based on changes in these rhyme patterns. Those stanzas differing from the khloon 4 thammádaa stanza include khloon 4 sùphâap càttàwaathanthii and khloon 4 sùphâap triiphíttháphan:

khloon 4 sùphâap varieties

thammád	aa
0000Ô	00(00)
00000	ÔÔ
00000	00(00)
<u>00000</u>	<u> </u>
00000	00(00)

 càttàwaathanthii

 00000
 00(00)

 00000
 00

 00000
 00

 00000
 00

 00000
 00(00)

 00000
 00(00)

triiphittháphan 00000 00(00) 00000 00 00000 00(00) 00000 00(00)

khloon 4 càttàwaathanthii places the rhyme on the fourth syllable of the third wák rather than on the fifth syllable as in khloon 4 thammádaa. Phya Uppakit (1968:386) notes that the compounded name of the stanza suggests that there is a requirement to place the rhyme on the fourth syllable (càttàwaa – four; thanthii – walking stick, to have ill effects). In khloon 4 triiphittháphan the rhyme falls on the third syllable of the third wák. Phya Uppakit (ibid.) also explains that the name of the stanza implies that the rhyme falls on the third syllable (triiphit – three places; phan – character, letter). Neither the khloon 4 càttàwaa-thanthii nor the khloon 4 triiphittháphan variety has any linking rhyme between stanzas. These similarities are briefly acknowledged in the literature. (Uppakit 1968:386-87; Jones 1970:199; Bickner 1981:109).

For khloon 4 dân stanzas, the khloon 4 dân wiwitthámaalii stanza provides the model. Phya Uppakit (1968:391) maintains that the meaning of wiwiithámaalii-to be in good order, systematic-has no significance for the structure of the stanza. Variations of the khloon 4 wiwitthámaalii stanza include khloon 4 dân bàat kunchccn, khloon 4 dân càttàwaathanthii, and khloon 4 dân triiphíttháphan. Like the sùphâap stanzas, the dân varieties differ from the khloon 4 wiwitthámaalii stanza in rhyme patterns:

khloon 4 dân varieties

wiwithán	naalii	bàat kunchccn	càttàwaathanthii	triiphíttháphan
0000Ô	00(00)	00000 00(00)	(00 <u>)</u> 00 ÔÓ000	(00)00 00000
00000	ÔÔ	00000 00000	<u> () 00000</u>	<u>ÔÓ 00000</u>
0000	00)00	(00) 00 00000000000000000000000000000000	(00)00 00000	$(00)\underline{00}$ $(00)\underline{00}$
00000	00(00)	00000 00000	00000 00000	<u>00 [00</u> 060
0000ô	00(00)	000000 00(00)	00000 00(00)	00000 00(00)
00000	ÒÔ -	00000	00000	0000

The khloon 4 bàat kunchccn stanza displays the simplest variation with the addition of a linking rhyme between the last syllable of wák six of the first stanza and the fourth or fifth syllable of the first wák of the following stanza. bàat kunchccn translates as the footprint of an elephant, Phya Uppakit (1968:494) explains; and the rhyme pairs occur diagonally across from each other, similar to the position of the elephant's legs when walking. The khloon 4 dân càttàwaathanthii varies only slightly from khloon 4 bàat kunchccn. As the stanza name suggests, the rhyme falls on the fourth syllable of the fifth wák and on the fourth syllable of the

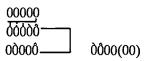
underlying 5-syllable line in Thai (Siamese) cannonical form and the feature of rhyming syllables according to their membership in the earlier A, B, and C tones categories... the historical picture might well be viewed as one where the "primitive" $r\hat{a}ay$ of an earlier oral tradition became the polished *khloon* of a more self-conscious written tradition."

Historical literary evidence seems to support this claim, for, according to Mosel (1959a:6-7), the earliest $r\hat{a}ay$ predates the Sukhothai period (thirteenth century) while the earliest *khloon* begins to appear in the fourteenth century.

A closer examination of these forms in terms of their rhyme scheme further suggests that the forms are closely related. In the examination of $r\hat{a}ay suph\hat{a}ap$ it was stated that the last three wák of the stanza must be the same as $khloon_2suph\hat{a}ap$. In fact, the last three wák of $r\hat{a}ay suph\hat{a}ap$ with the rhyme scheme and the tone placement constitute the khloon 2 suph\hat{a}ap stanza:



khloon 3 sùphâap, furthermore, is the same as the last four wák of râay sùphâap:



An even more striking parallelism occurs with the khloon 4 dân in which the last four wák are the same as the last four wák of râay dân:

00000	00(00)
00000	00
00000	0Ò(00)
00000	<u>ბ0(00)</u>

These similarities are occasionally mentioned in the literature; but because of their wording, the discussions on this point seem to suggest that the *khloon* stanzas have been used to terminate the *râay* stanzas. Since, historically, formalized *khloon* patterns do not appear until well after the *râay* stanzas, this cannot be the case. Rather, the *khloon* stanzas must have developed from the *râay*, the poets adopting the same tone placement, cannonical form, and rhyme scheme as the last

third *wák* in the following stanza. Aside from these rhyming pattern differences, the two stanzas are identical. A similar pattern of rhyme on the fourth syllable appears in the *sùphâap* variety.

khloon 4 dân triiphíttháphan presents only a slightly different variation. In this case the linking rhyme from the last wák of the stanza falls on the third syllable of the third wák in the following stanza. There is no rhyme with the third syllable in wák five of the first stanza because the tones of the two rhyming syllables are different. This requirement for the rhyme to fall on the third syllable is suggested by the name of the stanza.

All the external rhyme patterns occurring in $r\hat{a}ay$ and $khloo\eta$ can be reduced to three basic couplet types. First, a couplet may be formed by two wák with one wák immediately following the other as in the khloon 2 and khloon 3 stanzas:

00000

A second couplet type may be formed by two wák with one or more wák intervening between the rhyming pair as in the khloon 4 stanzas:

00000	00(00)	
00000	00	
00000	00(00)	
00000	J 00(00)	

These two couplets, with end syllables of the wák rhyming, form the rûat yày, the basis of a Thai stanza. The third couplet type, most prominent in the râay stanzas, may be formed by the end syllable of a wák and one of the early syllables of a following wák:

00000 00000

This couplet, the rûat lék, is never the sole basis of a stanza, other than in râay.

A final observation on $r\hat{a}ay$ and $khloo\eta$ concerns their historical relationship. It has been suggested that on the basis of "... the similarities in syllable number and tone placement in $r\hat{a}ay$ and $khloo\eta,...r\hat{a}ay$ may have been the forerunner of the $khloo\eta$ verse forms" (Hudak 1981:21). Hartmann (1983:4) makes the same point about the two forms:

because "...both share the common feature of an ideal or

wák of râay sùphâap and râay dân.

kàap, chăn, and klccn

While the similarities in $r\hat{a}ay$ and $khloo\eta$ are occasionally acknowledged, those in the second group are not. The three couplet patterns found in the first group also occur in $k\hat{a}ap$, $ch\check{a}n$, and klccn, the appearance of each pattern dependent upon the number of wák in a stanza.

1. The three-wák stanzas

The first of these patterns, the couplet without intervening wák appears in stanzas consisting of three wák as kàap chàban 16:

kàap chàban 16

săamsipsăam	sia	sŏophaa	
thirty-three	head	beautiful	
sia	ոìղ	cèt	<i>ŋaa</i>
head	one	seven	tusks
dàŋ	phétchárát	ruu <i>cii</i> ———	<u> </u>
like	diamond jewel	bright, glorious	Í

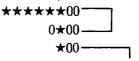
(The elephant) had thirty three beautiful heads and each head had seven tusks which were like bright diamonds.

Kham phâak raammákian

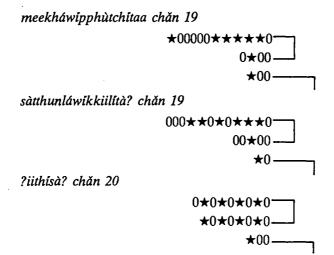
Royal Composition group, Rama II

In this three-wák stanza the final syllables of the first two wák, phaa and ηaa , complete the couplet without intervening wák. The final syllable in the third wák, cii, provides the linking rhyme with the last syllable of the first wák in the next stanza. Other verse types with this same rhyme pattern include maalinii chăn 15, meekháwipphùt-chitaa chăn 19, sàtthunláwikkiilità? chăn 19, and ?iithisà? chăn 20:

maalinii chăn 15



6. Other verse forms with this pattern include: pàphátthákà? chăn 15, sàsikàlá? chăn 15, maniikhánánlkàrá? chăn 15, waanínii chăn 16, hěcránii chăn 17, sikhirínii chăn 17, manthákkantaa chăn 17, and kùsùmitàládaawenlitaa chăn 18.



The three-wák pattern is almost identical with the one in the khloon 2 stanza which also consists of three wák. The difference resides in the linking rhyme; in khloon the rhyme is with the first syllable of the wák, not the last syllable as in these forms.

2. The four-wák stanzas

The couplet without intervening wák appears in stanzas of four wák as ?intháráwíchian chăn 11:

?intháráwichian chăn 11

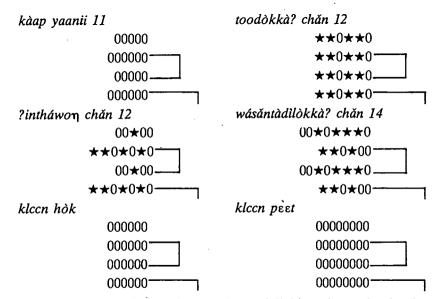
bay	phoo	sùwan	hčcy
leaf	Bo tree	gold	hung
ráyáa	yčcy	bč	ruŋ <i>ra</i> ŋ
pendant	hang loosely	not	ragged
lom wind	phát blow	kràdiŋ bell	dan
sànč melodious	sàpthá sounds	?on <i>wee</i> ŋ agreeable to the ears	

The leaves of the golden Bo tree hang loose and not ragged. The wind blows the bells and makes melodious, agreeable sounds.

Bunnoowâat kham chăn

The final syllables in the second and third wák, $ra\eta$ and $da\eta$, complete the couplet. The last syllable of the fourth wák, ween, provides the linking rhyme with

the last syllable of the first wák of the next stanza. If the rûat lék, the third couplet type, appears, it is generally between the last syllable of the first wák and one of the early syllables, usually the third, of the second wák. In the above example $h\hat{c}cy$ and yćcy form the rûat lék. Besides ?intháráwichian chǎn 11, these rhyme patterns also occur in the following frequently used verse types:kàap yaanii 11, toodòkkà? chǎn 12, ?intháwon chǎn 12, wásǎntàdìlòkkà? chǎn 14, klccn hòk, and klccn peet.⁷



It should be noted that the couplet and linking rhyme in the four-wák stanzas are the same as those in the three-wák stanzas. The difference between the stanzas lies in the addition of another wák, which may bear a rûat lék rhyme, in the four-wák stanzas. Uppakit (1968:431) does note these similarities in rhyme between kàap yaanii 11 and the klccn stanzas.

7. Other verse forms with this pattern include: tànúmátchánaa chăn 6, kùmaarálálítaa chăn 7, phúchákhásùsňuhàtà? chăn 9, rummáwádii chăn 10, sùttháwíraachítaa chăn 10, pànáwá? chăn 10, mánoorammá? chăn 10, campàkàmaalaa chăn 10, máttaa chăn 10, ?ùpeentháráwíchian chăn 11, ?ùpàchâat chăn 11, sùrásàsìrì? chăn 11, săalinii chăn 11, sùmúkhti chăn 11, ?ùpàtthitaa chăn 11, sàwäakhátaa chăn 11, thoothókkà? chăn 11, ráthôotthátaa chăn 12, lálítaa chăn 12, pàmítàkkhàrăa chăn 12, thútàwilamphíttàmaalaa chăn 12, lálítaa chăn 12, pàmítàkkhàrăa chăn 12, pùttà? chăn 12, thútàwilamphíttàmaalaa chăn 12, kùsúmmáwicit chăn 12, kammálaa chăn 12, phúchoŋkhápàyâat chăn 12, waŋsàtthà? chăn 12, wêetsàtheewii chăn 12, pàhăasinii chăn 13, rúciraa chăn 13, pàhàránákálíkaa chăn 14, pàraachítà? chăn 14.

Similar parallels exist with the *khloon* 3 stanzas which also consist of a *rûat lék* followed by a couplet. As with the *khloon* 2 stanzas, the linking rhyme, falling on the first syllable of the next *wák* rather than the last, differentiates the *khloon* stanzas from these four-*wák* stanzas.

3. The eight-wák stanza

Stanzas of eight-wák, as maanáwákkà? chǎn 8, include a combination of all three couplet types:

maanáwákkà?	chăn 8				
?ee	?ilárâat				
oh	a name				
pràat	thúrá <i>kaan</i> ——	<u> </u>			
without	cause of anger				
raw	kĉ	pràthaan			
we	then	bestow			
thôotsà	kà	<u>?</u> 0η ———			
punishment	to	person		3	
tèe	khànà	níi			
but	time	this			
mii	siri	<i>so</i> ŋ			
have	all	form		:	,
rûuppà	lé	khon			
form	and	firm			
deem	bč	mī	klaay — —		_
previous	not	have	change		1

Oh, Inlaraat, you without the cause of anger. (At that time) we bestowed punishment upon you, but now you have your entire shape and form, firm as before without any change.

?Inláråat kham chǎn

The last syllables of wák two and wák three, kaan and thaan, complete the couplet without intervening wák. Three wák complete the couplet with intervening wák (this couplet is actually linked to another couplet without intervening wák):wák four, six, and seven. As in other stanzas, the linking rhyme begins on the last syllable of the last wák, klaay. Frequently, two rûat lék appear, one between the

first and second wák, râat and pràat, and the other between the fifth and sixth, nii and mii.

In forms with eight *wák* per stanza, the external rhyme pattern is the same as the pattern of two four-*wák* stanzas combined.

а	. 0000
b	0000
с	0000
d	0000
e	0000
f	0000
g	0000
h	0000
a '	0000
b '	0000
с'	0000
d '	0000
e '	0000
f'	0000
g'	0000
h '	0000

wák a through wák d and wák e through wák h represent the two four-wák stanzas, linked together by the same external rhyme which would link two separate four-wák stanzas (wák d with wák f). To distinguish two eight-wák stanzas linked together from four four-wák stanzas linked together, a linking rhyme between the stanzas extends from wák h, the last wák of the stanza, to wák d' in the next stanza. The linking rhyme between two four-wák stanzas would terminate at wák b'.

kàap sùraan khánaan 28 also employs the eight-wák pattern even though it consists of seven wák.

kàap sùraankhánaan 28

prànaŋ	kan	khccy	
gather	together	wait	
mûŋ	meen	tôn	rccy
intend	look	body	trace

bè	hěn	khaa <i>wii</i>	·
not	see	cow	
rên	yen	rêη	yâm
quick	dusk	quick	evening
rên	khâm	rêŋ	tii —
quick	night	quick	early morning
?òk	hây	hǎa	s <i>ii</i>
heart	weep	look for	
phritsòp cow	maan <i>daa</i> — mother		

They waited together and then looked for traces of the body. But still they did not see Khawii, the cow. Quickly came the dusk and evening. Quickly came the night and early morning. They wept looking for their mother.

Sia khoo kham chăn

What differentiates the kàap form from the eight-wák form is the absence of the first wák, which carries no rûat yày in the eight-wák pattern. In kàap sùraankhánaan 28, a rûat lék appears between wák four and wák five, yâm and khâm.

Other eight-wák verse types include cittàpàthaa chăn 8, sàmaanikà? chăn 8, pàmaanikà? chăn 8, and witchummaalaa chăn 8. Although consisting of eight-wák, the khloon 4 varieties do not employ this same combination of couplet types. The khloon varieties, however, are similar, in that couplets with intervening wák predominate.

Conclusion

From this examination of classical Thai verse forms, the following generalizations can be made. Three metarhyme patterns, all based on the couplet, exist as external rhyme patterns in Thai verse forms. A couplet formed by two successive wák appears in stanzas of three and four wák. khloon stanzas with three and four wák complete a separate group from the other three and four wák stanzas, kàap, chăn, and klccn, because of the difference in linking rhyme patterns. In the khloon stanzas, this linking rhyme falls on one of the first three syllables of the first wák of the next stanza. In the other group the rhyme falls on the last syllable of the wák.

A couplet formed by two wák with intervening wák constitutes the second meta-pattern. This pattern appears in stanzas with seven and eight wák. The khloon 4 stanzas again form a separate group, for they display slightly different combinations of patterns from those in the kàap and chǎn stanzas.

The last meta-pattern is a couplet in which a final syllable rhymes with a non-final syllable in the following wák. This rhyme pattern appears only in stanzas with four or more wák. Unlike the two other couplets, this rhyme sequence cannot be used as the basis of a stanza, other than in $r\hat{a}ay$.

All of the external rhyme patterns discussed in the versification textbooks can be reduced to these three couplet types. These forms are highly conservative in that they exhibit little or no change. Occasionally, nonce forms with different patterns have been tried, particularly in the *chăn* meters, but they have remained rare experimentations.⁸ Such conservatism has constrained poets in the forms they can use. As a consequence, they have turned to developing internal rhyme patterns where, it is said, their true genius lies.

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^{8.} See hàlámúkhīi chăn 9, ?ùppháphaasòkkà? chăn 10, sàttháraa chăn 21, and phátthákà? chăn 22. More recently, there have been attempts at composing free verse in Thai.

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