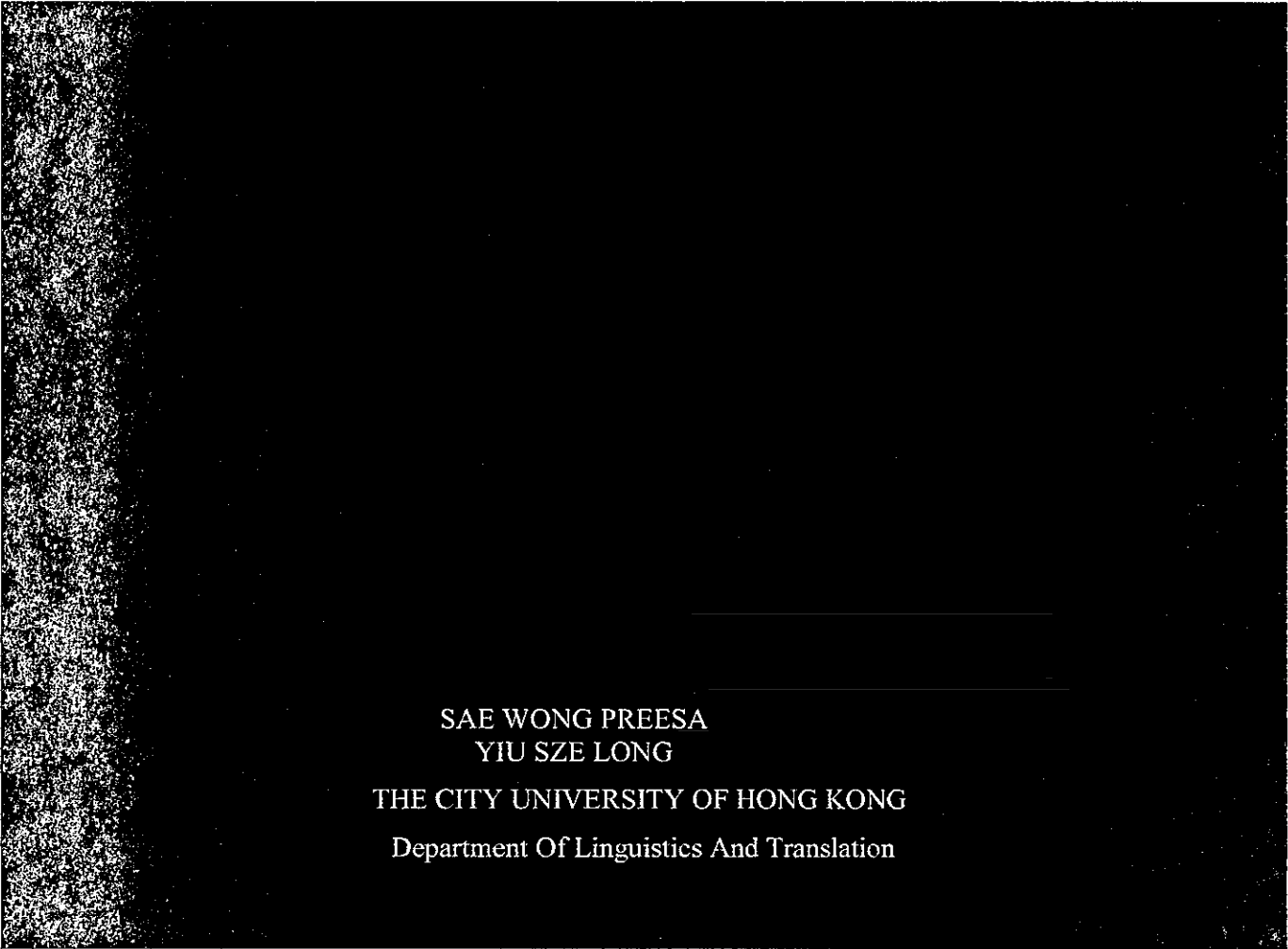


LT3209 Syntax DEC Project
Grammatical Aspects of Thai & English



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INTRODUCTION

As linguistics majors, we take interest in language learning and this project grants us the opportunity to apply our linguistics knowledge learned in class to language analysis. We chose Thai as our language of interest as we are enthusiasts of Thai culture. Discovering and learning Thai has been our major motivation to carry out this project. This paper examines the different aspects of the morphology and syntax of Thai and compares them with those of English.

This report is divided into two major sections. The first section mainly focuses on different grammatical aspects in Thai which include gender and case distinction, pluralizers, order of dependents such as adjectives and prepositions in a noun phrase, the basic word order, alternative constituent orders, verb agreement, negation, active-passive sentence pairs, relative clauses, interrogative questions and polar questions. The second section highlights the similarities and differences between different grammatical aspects of English and Thai, namely complementizers, noun phrases with quantifiers, reflexives and the reciprocals, distribution of adjectives and negative polarity items (NPIs).

GRAMMATICAL ASPECTS OF THAI

A1. Gender and Case Distinction for Nouns and Pronouns

Gender distinction is the first grammatical aspect to be discussed. There is gender distinction for some pronouns in Thai. Thai pronouns with gender distinction are those which corresponding to the English pronouns 'I' or 'me' (i.e. 1st-person pronoun), 'you' (i.e. 2nd-person pronoun) and 'she' or 'her' (i.e. 3rd-person pronoun) (Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.1-2; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.50-52). The other pronouns in Thai are gender-neutral.

In terms of the first person pronouns, the gender-exclusive pronouns include /phǒm/ (ผม) (or /kraphǒm / (กระผม) for the more formal context) for males and /dii-chǎn/ (ดิฉัน), /kháw/ (เขา), /nǔu/ (หนู) and /tua eeŋ / (ตัวเธอ). As for the second person pronouns, /tua eeŋ / (ตัวเธอ) and /thəə / (เธอ)

commonly used for females and /naay/ (นาง) for males. The second-person pronoun can also be used as the third-person pronoun for female. Another example is /lǎon/ (นางคุณ), which denotes a female gender and it is mainly used in novel writings.

Apart from making a distinction in gender, different forms of pronouns are used depending on the relative social status, power and relationship between the speaker and the addressee. Although the variety of forms of pronouns 'I' and 'you' in Thai are semantically similar, they are still pragmatically different. The alternative forms of the pronouns are used according to the level of formality and usage. For instance, in daily conversations, the level of formality is rather high when a speaker uses /dii-chǎn/ (ดิฉัน) and the level of formality is low when a speaker uses /raw/ (เรา).

According to Campbell & Shaweevongs (1962, p.117), "*there is no gender in relation to inanimate objects in Thai*". Nouns which denote inanimate entities have no gender distinction. If making a gender distinction in nouns is necessary, it can be achieved by adding extra words.

Denoting the gender of a person, / chaay / (ชาย) is added to denote male while / yǐŋ / (หญิง) is added to denote female. The example in example A1-1 shows that / chaay / refers to a male entity while example A1-2 shows that / yǐŋ / refers to a female entity.

Example A1-1

เด็ก ชาย

dèk chaay

child male

'A boy'

(Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1962, p.117)

Example A1-2

เด็ก หญิง

dèk yǐŋ

child female

'A girl'

(Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1962, p.117)

Gender distinction is also made by adding a prefix. Prefixes include / phôw / ('father') for male and / mêt / ('mother') for female. They denote the gender of people who engage in a certain work, mostly with the involvement of domestic duties. These prefixes which distinguish gender are illustrated below in examples A1-3 to A1-5. The prefix / phôw / in example A1-3 denotes the gender of a male while the prefix / mêt / in examples A1-4 and A1-5 denotes the gender of a female.

Example A1-3

พ่อ	ครัว
phôw	khrua
father	kitchen

'A male cook.'

(Lit. 'Father of the kitchen')

(Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1962, p.117)

Example A1-4

แม่	ครัว
mêt	khrua
mother	kitchen

'A female cook.'

(Lit. 'Mother of the kitchen')

(Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1962, p.117)

Example A1-5

แม่	บ้าน
mêt	bâan
mother	home

‘A housekeeper, housewife’
 (Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1962, p.117)

For non-human animate noun phrases (NPs), two additional classifiers / phûu / (ผู้) for male and / mia / (เมีย) for female are used to make distinction on the gender of animals. These classifiers for gender distinction are illustrated in examples below where / phûu / denotes a gender of male in example A1-6 and / mia / denotes a gender of female in example A1-7.

Example A1-6

แมว ตัว ผู้
 mɛɛw tua phûu.M
 cat CLASSIFIER M
 ‘A male cat.’
 (Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1962, p.117)

Example A1-7

แมว ตัว เมีย
 mɛɛw tua mia.F
 cat CLASSIFIER F
 ‘A female cat.’
 (Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1962, p.117)

There is no case distinction for pronouns in Thai. That is, the personal pronouns in Thai do not change no matter if they take the subject or object position in a sentence. The following table¹ displays all the personal pronouns in Thai and the corresponding English personal pronouns in both subject and object positions.

Thai personal pronouns	English personal pronouns in subject position	English personal pronouns in object position
------------------------	--	---

¹ Mylanguages > Thai Pronouns: http://mylanguages.org/thai_pronouns.php

/ chǎn / (ฉัน)	I	me
/ kun / (คุณ)	You	you
/ rao / (เรา)	We	us
/ phûak kǎo / (พวกเขา)	They	them
/ kǎo / (เขา)	He	him
/ ter / (เธอ)	She	her
/ man / (มัน)	It	it

As for case distinction for nouns in Thai, Jenks (2011) claims that Thai lacks the obligatory marking of agreement, case, number or any other morphosyntactic category generally expressed by inflection (pp.4-5). Since inflectional morphemes in Thai can stand alone as independent words, there is also an absence of inflectional markers. The absence of the case marking can hardly be derived from the analytic morphology of Thai. That is, we can only know which NPs are subjects and which are objects from the word order in Thai. That is, subjects precede the verbal complex and objects follow it. In short, there is no case distinction for nouns in Thai.

A2. Plurality

Thai does not have plural forms for nouns. In order to express plurality, Thai uses pluralizers such as / phûak /, / phûak-níi / and / lâw níi /. Each pluralizer has its own function and refers to a particular entity or nonentity.

The pluralizer / phûak / can be used with both people and things. In terms of the distribution, / phûak / precedes a noun. In example A2-1 below, / phûak / precedes the noun / มอเตอร์ไซด์ / ('motorcycle') and it indicates that there is more than one motorcycle.

Example A2-1

พวก	มอเตอร์ไซด์	ที่	ผ่าน	หน้า	บ้าน	เสียง	ดัง	มาก
phûak	mootâechay	thîi	phàan	nâa	bâan	sǎŋ	daŋ	mâak

PL motorcycle that pass front house noise loud very

‘The motorcycles going by in front of the house are very noisy.’

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.30)

The pluralizer / phûak-nîi / follows a noun. It is equivalent to ‘these’ in English. In example A2-2, / phûak / acts as a prefix that attaches to / -nîi / (‘this’) to pluralize ‘this’.

Example A2-2

ฉัน	ไม่	ชอบ	รถ-บรรทุก	พวก-นี้	เลย
chǎn	mây	chôp	rót-batúk	phûak-nîi	lœy
1SG	NEG	like	truck	PL-this	PRT

‘I don’t like these trucks at all.’

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.30)

The pluralizer / lâw-nîi / is the formal version of / phûak-nîi / (Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.30). It can stand alone in a sentence. In example A2-3, / lâw-nîi / refers to a group of things in a formal register.

Example A2-3

เหล้า	บุหรี่	กาแฟ	เหล่านี้	ไม่	มี
ประโยชน์	ต่อ	ร่างกาย			
lâw	burii	kaafee	lâw-nîi	mây	mii
prà?yôot	tò	râan?kaay			
alcohol	cigarettes	coffee group	CLASSIFIER-this	NEG	have
benefit	to	body			

‘Liquor, cigarettes, and coffee - these things have no benefit to the body.’

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.30)

A3. Dependents in A Noun Phrase

The word order for adjective dependent in Thai is 'head noun + [classifier (CLS) + adjective]' (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.66). The adjective follows the head noun and the classifier, if any. Together with the classifier, the structure 'CLS + adjective' modifies the head noun in an NP.

The word order for dependent adjectives with and without classifier is illustrated in examples A3-1 to A3-3. In example A3-1 and A3-2, an adjective modifies the head noun which is followed by a CLS and in examples A3-3 and A3-4, an adjective modifies the head noun without a CLS.

Example A3-1

หมา ตัวใหญ่
mǎa tua yà
dog CLS big

'A big dog' (a specific dog with a large body)
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.66)

Example A3-2

เขา ทำอาหาร งานใหญ่ สำหรับ งาน คืนนี้
khǎw tham aahǎan caan yà sǎmràp ñaan khuun-nii
3.SG make food CLS big for party tonight

'She made a big dish for the party tonight.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.67)

Example A3-3

หมา ใหญ่
mǎa yà
dog big

'Big dogs' (any type of dog with a large body)
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.66)

Example A3-4

ฉัน ไม่ ชอบ ใช้ ดินสอ สั้นๆ
chán mây chǒw cháy dín-sǎw sǎn-sǎn
1SG NEG like use pencil short
'I don't like to use short pencils.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.66)

There is no adjective agreement in Thai as there is an absence of agreement marking (Jenks 2011, p.4-5). As observed in the examples A3-1 through A3-8, the adjectives do not have to agree with the person or number of the nouns.

The word order for dependent prepositions is “head noun + [classifier (CLS) + preposition + NP]” (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.67). The preposition takes a dependent NP and it follows the optional classifier, which is then followed the head noun. In the case where a classifier is not used, the preposition will immediately follow the head noun. This is illustrated in examples A3-5 to A3-8 below. The first two are examples of the classifier is absent. In contrast, examples A3-7 and A3-8 are the cases in which the classifier is used.

Example A3-5

สมุด โทรศัพท์ บน โต๊ะ
samùt thoorasàp **bon** **tó**
notebook telephone on table
'A telephone directory on the table.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.67)

Example A3-6

กางเกง ใน ตู้
kaaŋkeŋ **nay** **tûu**
pants in closet
'A pair of pants in the closet.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.67)

In the following two examples, the classifier / *lêm* / precedes the prepositional phrase / *bon tó* / ('on the table').

Example A3-7

หนังสือ	เล่ม	บน	โต๊ะ
náŋsǎu	lêm	bon	tó
book	CLS	on	table

'The book on the table.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.67)

Example A3-8

นี้	เล่ม	บน	โต๊ะ	ไง
kǎu	lêm	bon	tó	ŋai
LP	CLS	on	table	PRT

'The one on the table, don't you know'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.70)

A4. Basic Word Order

Similar to English, Thai is a subject-verb-object (S-V-O) language. The following example displays the order of these constituents in the most basic clause construction pattern.

Example A4-1

ฉัน	ชอบ	คุณ
chǎn	chôp	khun
I	like	you
S	V	O

'I like you.'

(Online data²)

² Personal website 'Learn Thai with Kruu Wee – A Thai language teacher':

The order of S, V and O is the same as that in English sentences. From this, the order of S (subject), V (verb), DO (direct object) and IO (indirect object) in a ditransitive clause in Thai is expected to be: S + V + DO + IO. That is, both direct object (DO) and indirect object (IO) occur after the verb (V) in a ditransitive clause with DO occurring immediately after the ditransitive verb in the clause. Below is an example of this clause pattern.

Example A4-2

ครู	แจก	หนังสือ	นักเรียน
khruu	céek	náŋsǔu	nákrian
teacher	distribute	book	student

‘The teacher distributes books to students.’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.17)

As the example above shows, the subject / khruu / (‘teacher’) is sentence-initial and this is followed by the verb / céek / (‘distribute’). At the post-verbal position, the direct object or theme / náŋsǔu / (‘book’) precedes the indirect object or recipient / nákrian / (‘student’).

Comparably, both English and Thai ditransitive verbs can take prepositional objects as indirect object but there exists a slight difference in the order of occurrence of these constituents. Unlike English which allows IO to appear before DO, Thai is stricter in terms of this order: DO/Theme must precede IO/Recipient (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.113-116). The following two examples demonstrate this pattern.

Example A4-3

พิชัย	ให้	หนังสือ	แก่	สุมาลี
phichay	hǎy	náŋsǔu	kəe	sùmaalii
(name)	give	book	to	(name)

‘Pichay gives a book to Sumalee’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.114)

Example A4-4

เขา	ยื่น	แบงก์ร้อย	แก่	ตำรวจ	จราจร
kháw	yûun	béngróoy	kèe	tamrùat	caracoon
3SG	hand.over	100.bank.note to		police	traffic

'He handed over a 100-baht bill to the traffic police.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.114)

From these data, the preposition / kèe / (corresponding to 'to' in English) is added in front of the indirect objects (i.e. / sùmaalii / name in example A4-3 and / tamrùat caracoon / 'traffic police'), resulting in prepositional objects as the recipients. English also has this type of sentence patterns. However, when the preposition 'to' is removed in the English translation in example A4-3, the indirect object has to move to the front of the direct object as 'Pichay gives Sumalee a book' but not 'Pichay gives a book Sumalee' (a possible order of a ditransitive clause in Thai). Therefore, with the preposition / kèe /, / phíchay háy nánjsũu sùmaalii / is still grammatical in Thai.

A5. Alternative Word Orders

The major constituents in Thai are T (topic), S (subject), V (verb), DO (direct object), and IO (indirect object). Although it is generally agreed that they follow the primary order of 'T + S + V + DO + IO' (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.15), it can be more flexible in the actual use. Some examples of alternative word orders are provided below.

In the first example here, / loonlian / ('school') is locally topicalized and becomes an oblique, creating the word order as 'OBL + V'.

Alternative word order [OBL + V]

Example A5-1

โรงเรียน	ก็	ไม่	ได้	มา	เรียน
loonlian	kô	mây	dây	maa	lian
school	LP	NEG	get/ASP	come	study

‘School - I didn’t go to study.’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.375)

LP = linking particle

ASP = aspect auxiliary

In the second example here, /phaasăa aŋkrit/ (‘English language’) is the direct object of the verb /cháy/ (‘to use’) but is topicalized, resulting in the word order ‘DO + V’, or more specifically ‘T/object + (S) + V’ with the covert subject.

Alternative word order [DO + V]

Example A5-2

ภาษา	อังกฤษ	เมื่อ วัน	วัน	หนึ่ง
ใช้	บ่อย	แค่ไหน	ละ	
phasăa	aŋkrit	nĭa wan	wan	naŋ
cháy	bòoy	khêe-năy	há	
language	English	PP day	day	one
use	often	how.much	SLP	

‘The English language, how often do you use it in a day?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.375)

PP = pragmatic particle

The following example is an interesting case where two sentence structures are possible depending on the location of saliency in the sentence.

Alternative word order [DO + (S) + V/transitive]

Example A5-3

วัด	นี้	สร้าง	เมื่อ-พ.ศ.	2478
wát	nĭi	sâaŋ	mĕa-phoo-sǎw	2478
temple	this	build	PFX-B.E.	2478

‘(Someone) built this temple in B.E. 2478.’ [S - V/passive]

OR

'This temple was built in B.E. 2478.' [DO - (S) - V/transitive]
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.375)

If the covert agent or subject is more salient in the discourse, it has the first interpretation; if the temple is more salient, it has the second interpretation with the direct object functioning as the topic (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.376).

In the actual discourse, speakers might miss the subject in its usual position in a sentence and for various pragmatic reasons, they may add it back after the original sentence has been produced. This process is called 'incrementation' or 'afterthought' and it results in a sentence with the structure 'V + (DO) + S'.

Alternative word order [V + (DO) + S]

Example A5-4

ส่วนมาก	รู้จัก	กัน	หรือ-แปลว่า	คน	ไทย	ที่-นั้น
sùanmâak	lúcàk	kan	lǎ-pàaw	khon	thay	thîi-nûun
mostly	know	REC	QP	people	Thai	over.there

'Do they know each other over there (= at your school), the Thai students?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.376)

The above example is a conversation between two college students in Los Angeles. The speaker forgot to mention the subject of the verb / lúcàk / initially but attempt to refine the question by adding it back to the end of the sentence. Indeed, this phenomenon is not only confined to Thai but it is common in the actual conversations cross-linguistically.

The order 'V + S' is also used in intransitive sentences with certain intransitive verbs such as /mii/ ('exist'), /'kəət/ ('happen') and / sanĭm / ('rust'). This kind of intransitive verbs place the subject after them. The following examples show how these verbs work.

Alternative word order [V + S]

Example A5-5

มี ร้าน ขาย ยา
mii ráan khăay yaa
have shop sell drug
'There is a drugstore.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.16)

In example A5-5, the subject / ráan khăay yaa / ('the store that sells drug' or 'drugstore') comes after the verb / mii / ('have'). There-be sentences in Thai exhibit a slight difference in distribution from that of the English there-be sentences in which the word 'there' takes up the subject position.

Alternative word order [V + S]

Example A5-6

เกิด ไฟไหม้
kəət faymây
happen fire
'A fire breaks out.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.16)

In example A5-6, the word / faymây / ('fire') is put after the verb / kəət/, which is varying from the usual order in which S precedes V.

Alternative word order [V + S]

Example A5-7

ขึ้น สนิม
khên sanĭm
stand rust
'(It) gets rusty.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.16)

In example A5-7, the word / sanĭm / ('rust') is a subject in this sentence and placed after the verb

/ khân / ('stand').

The final alternative clause order presented in this paper is called 'topic-comment'. It is one kind of intransitive clauses which has the topic at the initial position with a reverse order of constituents in the comment part (i.e. V before S).

Alternative word order [T + [V + S]]

Example A5-8

แม่	ปวด	หัว
mêe	pùat	hǔa
mother	pain	head

'I (= Mother) have a headache.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.16)

A6. Verb Agreement

According to O'Donnell (2016), "subject and verb do not have to agree" in Thai. English has subject-verb agreement in present tense (p.1171). When the subject is 3rd-person singular, the 3rd-person singular marker *-s* has to be added to the verb to show agreement with the subject. For example, when the 3rd-person singular pronoun 'he' is used as the subject as in 'He loves me', the verb 'love' takes the morpheme *-s*.

Example A6-1

a)	ฉัน	รัก	คุณ
	chǎn	rák	khun
	1SG	love	2SG

'I love you.'

b)	คุณ	รัก	เขา
	khun	rák	khǎw
	2SG	love	3SG

‘You love him.’

- c) พวก-เรา รัก พวก-เขา
phûak-raw rák phûak-kháv
PL-1 love PL-3

‘We love them.’

- d) พวก-เขา รัก ฉัน
phûak-kháv rák chǎn
PL-3 love 1SG

‘They love me.’

- e) เขา รัก หล่อก
kháv rák lòn
3SG love 3SG.F

‘He loves her.’

- f) หล่อก รัก มัน
lòn rák man
3SG.F love 3SG

‘She loves it.’

- g) มัน รัก พวก-เรา
man rák phûak-raw
3SG love PL-1

‘It loves us.’

(Online data³)

Comparing the above Thai sentences with their English translations reveals that 3rd-person singular subjects in Thai (i.e. examples A6-1 (e)-(f)) do not show agreement with the verb / rák / (‘love’). It remains as in the form of / rák /, with no inflections, across the above data set no matter if the subject is 1st-person, 2nd-person or 3rd-person.

³ ภาษาอังกฤษออนไลน์ (‘English online’) > Pronouns คำสรรพนามที่ตรงจดจำ: <http://xn--12cl9ca5a0ailad0bea0clb11a0e.com/pronouns-%E0%B8%84%E0%B8%B3%E0%B8%AA%E0%B8%A3%E0%B8%A3%E0%B8%9E%E0%B8%99%E0%B8%B2%E0%B8%A1%E0%B8%97%E0%B8%B5%E0%B9%88%E0%B8%95%E0%B9%89%E0%B8%AD%E0%B8%87%E0%B8%88%E0%B8%94%E0%B8%88%E0%B8%B3/>

A7. Negation

Negation in Thai is expressed by the negator / mây /. A negation may appear in a verb phrase, negative verbal sentences and copulative sentences.

In a verb phrase, the negator auxiliary /mây / is categorized into two types of auxiliaries which are 'pre-negator auxiliary' and 'post-negator auxiliary' (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.14-15). The auxiliaries appear in different positions of a sentence. A pre-negator auxiliary appears before the negator / mây / in the form 'auxiliary + / mây / + main verb' (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.14 as cited in Panupong 1970:132ff). On the other hand, the post-negator auxiliary appears after the negator in the form '/ mây / + auxiliary + main verb' (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.14). The following two examples show these basic structures. Example A7-1 is a case of pre-negator auxiliary while example A7-2 is a case of post-negator auxiliary. The auxiliary / khonj / precedes the negation in the first example below and the auxiliary / khuan / appears after the negation in the second example below.

Example A7-1

กจ ไม่ มา

khonj mây maa

AUX NEG come

'(He) probably won't come.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.14)

Example A7-2

ไม่ ควร ไป

mây khuan pay

NEG AUX go

(You) should not go.

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.14)

Furthermore, the negator / *mây* / may also appear before five other pre-negator auxiliaries (also known as ‘pre-verbal auxiliaries’). These pre-negator auxiliaries include / *khuan* / (‘should’), / *nâa* / (‘should’), / *khəy* / (‘have ever done’), / *mua* / (‘keep on (doing)’), and / *khôy* / (‘(not) very’) (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.14).

Unlike the previously mentioned auxiliaries, / *tôn* / and / *dây* / can appear either before or after the negator / *mây* /. The auxiliary / *tôn* / and / *dây* / may vary in meaning depending on their position. For instance, / *tôn mây* / means ‘must not’ whereas / *mây tôn* / means ‘do not have to do’. As for / *mây dây tham* /, it means ‘didn’t do’ whereas / *cà dây tôn tham* / means ‘do not have to do’ (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.14).

In negative sentences, the negator / *mây* / negates any sentence with a verb. For instance, when / *mây* / precedes the verb / *maa* / (‘come’), it negates the verbal sentence from / *kháw maa* / (‘He comes.’) to / *kháw mây maa* / (‘He does not come.’) (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.17).

Similarly, negative copulative sentences are expressed in the order like / *mây chây khon thai* / (NEG right person Thai) meaning ‘He is not Thai’ (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.17). There is, however, a restriction on the usage of the negator / *mây* / in a negative copulative sentence.

In the regular use of the negator / *mây* /, it cannot directly negate a copulative sentence if there is the linker / *khuu* / or the aspect auxiliary (ASP) / *pen* / (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.17). More specifically, / *khuu* / cannot appear directly before the negator and / *pen* / cannot appear directly after it. This can be seen in example A7-3. The hedge / *bèep-wâa* / is positioned between the linker / *khuu* / and the negator / *mây* /. It leads the linker / *khuu* / being unable to directly appear right before / *mây* /. Similarly, in the same example, the verb / *dây* / (‘get’) occurs between the negator and the aspect auxiliary. It leads the aspect auxiliary / *pen* / being unable of appearing right after the negator.

Example A7-3

ก็	คือ		แน่นอน		ไม่	ได้	เป็น	โรค	อะไร	มาจาก
<i>kô</i>	<i>khuu</i>		<i>bèep-wâa</i>		<i>mây</i>	<i>dây</i>	<i>pen</i>	<i>rôok</i>	<i>alay</i>	<i>mâak-maay</i>

LP LINK | HDG | NEG get/ASP COP illness what much

'It's like - it's not really a serious illness'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.227)

LP = linking particle

LINK = linker

HDG = hedge

Nevertheless, there are exceptional cases when the aspect auxiliary / pen / can appear directly after the negator / mây /. For instance, in examples A7-4 and A7-5, / pen / can directly follow / mây /.

Example A7-4

เอื้ มั่น ไม้ เป็น อย่าง นั้น
ée man mây pen yàŋ nán
EXC 3SG NEG COP like that

'What? She is not like that.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.227)

EXC = exclamation

Example A7-5

กั้ บอก ไม้ เป็น ไร้
kô bòok mây pen lay
LP tell NEG COP what

'I said that's not a problem'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.228)

LP = linking particle

A8. Active-Passive Pairs

Similar to English, Thai has both active and passive sentences. For active sentences, the grammatical subject is the agent and the pattern of their structure is 'NP (agent) + Verb

(transitive) + NP (patient)' (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.313). Consider the active sentence 'A dog bit Tom', Thai also describes 'a dog' as the agent while 'Tom' is the patient of sentence. When the active sentence is transformed into a passive sentence, the passive sentence will be in the pattern of 'NP (patient) + / thùuk / + (NP (agent)) + Verb (transitive)' (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.313). In passive sentences, Thai also promotes the patient "Tom" to the subject of the sentence but unlike English, Thai demotes the agent 'a dog' to the pre-verbal position after the word / thùuk / (passive marker).

An active-passive pair of sentences is illustrated in examples A8-1 and A8-2. A8-1 is an active sentence while A8-2 is a passive sentence. In the active sentence in example A8-1, 'The police officer arrested the thief', the agent 'police' is the subject while the patient 'thief' is in the object position of the sentence. In comparison, in the passive sentence in example A8-2, 'The thief was arrested by the police officer', the patient 'thief' is promoted to the subject-position, followed by the passive marker / thùuk /. Note that the agent 'police' is not in the post-verbal position but rather in the pre-verbal position, which is preceded by the passive marker /thùuk/.

Example A8-1

ตำรวจ	จับ	ขโมย
tamrùat	càp	khammoy
police	catch	thief

'The police officer arrested the thief.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.313)

Example A8-2

ขโมย	ถูก	ตำรวจ	จับ
khammoy	thùuk	tamrùat	càp
thief	PASS	police	catch

'The thief was arrested by the police officer.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.313)

Modern Thai has three main types of passives which are / *thùuk* /, / *doon* / and / *dây-ráp* / passives (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, pp.313 - 322). In terms of the structure of the passives, the / *thùuk* / and the / *doon* / passives are structured as ‘NP (patient) + / *thùuk* / or / *doon* / + (NP (agent)) + Verb (transitive)’ and the / *dây-ráp* / passive is followed by a verb instead of an agent NP. Apart from the previous example, there is another example of / *thùuk* / in example A8-3. Examples A8-4 and A8-5 illustrate the use of / *doon* / whereas examples A8-6 and A8-7 are for the / *dây-ráp* / passive.

Example A8-3

หมา ถูก วาง ยาพิษ
 Mǎa **thùuk** waəŋ yaa-phít
 Dog PASS place poison
 ‘The dog was poisoned.’
 (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.315)

Example A8-4

กู โดน (แม่) คำ
 kuu **doon** (mǎe) dǎa
 I PASS (mother) (scold)
 ‘I was scolded (by Mom).’
 (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.317)

Example A8-5

เธอ ก็ โดน เขา แย่ง ไป ตลอด ไป
 อะไร อย่าง นี้-นี่
 thəo kô **doon** kháw yĕɛŋ pay talòt pay
 alay yàəŋ ɲá-ná
 2SG LP PASS 3PL snatch go.ASP through go.ASP
 something PRT
 ‘(Your parking spot) will be snatched away by them all the time.’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.317)

Example A8-6

เขา	ได้-รับ	บาดเจ็บ
kháw	dây-ráp	bàa-cèp
3SG	received	injury

'He was injured.'

(Lit. 'He received an injury.')

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.317)

Example A8-7

ผม	ได้-รับ	คำ	ชม	จาก	ครู
phǒm	dây-ráp	kham	chom	càak	khruu
1.M	received.PASS	word	praise	from	teacher

'I received praising words from the teacher.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.318)

The difference between the / thùuk / and the / doon / passives is that the latter one is more colloquial and it denotes a rather strong sense of adversity. On the other hand, the / dây-ráp / passive "*describes a situation as one which is favorable to the patient*" (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.317). The passive / dây-ráp / is a transitive compound verb with the combination of / dây / and / ráp /; they both share the same meaning 'receive'. Compared to the other two passives, the / dây-ráp / passive has a much more restrictive usage with a general rule to specify the scope of verbs that can appear in this type of passives. For instance, as seen in examples A8-8 and A8-9, although the translated sentences are grammatical in English, due to the restrictive usage of the / dây-ráp / passive bounded by the general rule at the sentence level in Thai, they are considered ungrammatical (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, pp.318-319).

Example A8-8

*ผม	ได้-รับ	ครู	ชม
*phǒm	dây-ráp	khruu	chom

1.M received.PASS teacher praise

‘I was praised by the teacher.’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.318)

Example A8-9

*ผม ได้-รับ คุณ-สุชาติ ชวน

*phǒm dâi-ráp khun-sùcháat chuan

1M received.PASS TL-(name) invite

‘I was invited by Mr. Suchat.’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.319)

TL = title prefix

A9. Relative Clauses

The structure of relative clause in Thai is similar to the structure of the relative clause in English. The relative clause in Thai is structured as ‘head noun + [(/ thîi, sùŋ, an / +) clause]’ (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.67). The set of words appearing inside the square brackets represents the subordinate clause. The word / thîi / is a subordinator and it follows a head noun and precedes a relative clause. It may become optional under some circumstances (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.249). There are mainly three types of relative clauses which are subject relative, object relative and oblique relative (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, pp.243-244).

A subject relative clause consists of a head noun which is the subject of the verb in the relative clause (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, pp.243). In the sentence, ‘the director [who made this movie]’, ‘the director’ is the subject of the verb ‘made’. The example of a subject relative clause in Thai can be seen in example A9-1. In the subject relative clause, / khon / (‘person’) is the head noun and it is the subject of the verb / duuleε / (‘take care’). The subordinator, / thîi /, follows the head noun / khon / and the sentence that follows the subordinator is a relative clause.

Example A9-1

คน ที่ ดูแล นี้ | เป็น อาจารย์ หรือ

khon	thîi	duuleε	nîi		pen	acaan	lǎ
person	SBR	take.care	PP		COP	teacher	QP

‘Is the person who takes care of the students (in the dorm) a teacher?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.243)

COP = copula

PP = pragmatic particle

QP = question particle

SBR = subordinator

On the other hand, an object relative clause consists of a head noun. In the sentence, ‘the movie’ [which I want to see], ‘the movie’ is the object of the verb ‘see’ in the relative clause (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.243). The example of the object relative clause in Thai can be seen in example A9-2. In the object relative clause, / wíchaa nǎy / (‘subject’) is the object of the verb / tham dāy / (‘do get’) (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.244).

Example A9-2

วิชา	ไหน	ที่	เขา	ทำ	ได้	ดี	ที่สุด
wíchaa	nǎy	thîi	kháw	tham	dāy	dii	thîi-sùt
subject	which	SBR	3SG	do	get/ASP	good	SPR

‘Which subject is it that she is best in?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.244)

ASP = aspect auxiliary

SPR = superlative

SBR = subordinator

Nonetheless, an oblique relative clause contains a provision of adverbial information regarding the time and the place of head nouns. For instance, in example A9-3, the oblique relative clause, / wan / (‘day’) is an indicator of time of the head noun / phèndinwǎy / ‘earthquake’. In another example of the oblique relative clause, in example A9-4, / tàk / ‘building’ is an indicator of the location where the verb / mǎa-kòon / (‘to stay’) took place at (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.244).

Example A9-3

แล้ว	วัน	ที่	เกิด	แผ่นดินไหว		ก็วัน	หยุด	พอ-ดี
léw	wan	thîi	kòet	phèndinwǎy		kǎw	wanyùt	phoo-dii
LINK	day	SBR	happen	earthquake		LP	holiday	just

‘And the day when the earthquake occurred was a holiday fortunately.’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.244)

LP = linking particle

LINK = linker

SBR = subordinator

Example A9-4

เพราะ-ว่า	อย่าง	ตึก	ที่	เคย	อยู่	เมื่อ-ก่อน
มี	แต่	ประกัน				
phǎw-wǎa	yàng	tèk	thîi	khəay	yùu	m̄ua-kòon
mii	tèe	pakan				
because	like	building	SBR	ASP	stay	before
have	but	insurance				

‘Because the building where I used to stay had only (basic) insurance...’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.245)

A10. Interrogative and Polar Questions

This section focuses on the way how questions are expressed in Thai. Two types of questions namely ‘wh-questions’ and ‘yes/no’ questions, are used in Thai daily conversations. Two sections are divided to provide the description for each question type. In the first section, eight wh-question words will be described. They include nominal, adjectival, and adverbial question words (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.291). In the latter section, four types of sentence-final question particles will be described. They include / mǎy / (มี), / rú-plàaw /, / rǎu-yaj / and / rǎu / (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.279).

Nominal questions contain two nominal interrogative words including / khay / ('who') and / alay / ('what'). The nominal interrogative words often appear as a subject or an object. They can also behave as an object of a preposition, a predicate nominal, or a modifier (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.291-293). The example of / alay / ('what') appearing in the object position can be seen in examples A10-1 and A10-4. In example A10-1, / khay / ('who') appears as the subject as it takes the subject position of the sentence. In example A10-2 and A10-3, / alay / ('what') appears as the predicate nominal as it takes the predicate position and follows the verb of both sentences. In example A10-4, / alay / ('what') appears as the object of a preposition as it occurs after a preposition / phûa / ('for'). Nonetheless, in examples A10-5 and A10-6, regardless of the pragmatic particle (PP) / à /, / lé / and / há /, / alay / ('what') appears as the object of the sentence as it takes the object position of the sentence. In example A10-7, / alay / ('what') appears as the modifier, modifying the noun / èek /.

Example A10-1

ใคร	หัวเราะ	อะไร		ใคร	หัวเราะ
khay	hǔaló	alay		khay	hǔaló
who	laugh	what		who	laugh

'Who's laughing at what?' | 'Who's laughing?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.292)

Example A10-2

แล้ว	ถ้า-เกิด	ตั้ง	สมาคม	แล้ว		อยาก	จะ	ทำ	อะไร
léw	thâ-kèət	tâŋ	samaakhom	léw		yàak	cà	tham	alay
LINK	if	establish	club	ASP		want	CM	do	what

If you establish a (Thai) association, what do you want to do?

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.292)

CM = challengeable marker

Example A10-3

ชื่อ	อะไร	อีก	นะ
------	------	-----	----

súu alay iik náa

buy what one.more PP

‘What else should we buy?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.292)

Example A10-4

เรา จะ ทำ เพื่อ อะไร

law cà tham phâa alay

1PL CM do for what

‘What do we do it for?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.292)

CM = challengeable marker

Example A10-5

เรา คือ ใคร นะ

law khuu khay à

1 COP who PP

‘Who are we?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.292)

COP = copula

PP = pragmatic particle

Example A10-6

เป็น ไง นะ | ตอน นี้ เรียน อยู่ ปี อะไร แล้ว นะ

pen ñay khá | tɔn ní lian yùu pii alay lé há

COP PP SLP | time this study stay/ASP year what PP SLP

‘How is it? What year (of study) are you in?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.293)

SLP = speech level particle

PP = pragmatic particle

Example A10-7

แล้ว	ของ	คุณ		เอก	อะไร	คะ
léw	khǒŋ	khun		èek	alay	khá
LINK	of	2SG		major	what	SLP

'And what is your major?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.293)

SLP = speech level particle

Adjectival questions consist of two adjectival interrogative words including / nǎy / ('which') and / kǐi / ('how many'). Compared to the nominal interrogative words, adjectival interrogative words have much more restriction in terms of their distribution. The adjectival interrogative word / nǎy / ('which') often follows verb of motion and location and it functions as a modifier for a classifier or noun (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.293). Example A10-8 is an example of / nǎy / being the modifier for a classifier, / nǎy / follows a classifier. As seen in example A10-9 / nǎy / being the modifier for a noun, / thǐi / ('place') in / thǐi-nǎy / ('which place' or 'where') does not often appear while / nǎy / simply means 'where'.

Example A10-8

ส่วนใหญ่	เป็น	พวก	ไหน
sùanyày	pen	phûak	nǎy
mostly	COP	group/CLS	which

'Which (racial) group is the majority (at your school)?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.293)

COP = copula

Example A10-9

เรียน	อยู่	ที่-ไหน	ละ	อะ
lian	yùu	thǐi-nǎy	là	há
study	stay/ASP	where	PP	SLP

'Where are you studying?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.293)

PP = pragmatic particle

SLP = speech level particle

The adjectival interrogative word / kǐi / ('how many') differ from all the other question words in several ways. The word, / kǐi /, does not end in /-ay/ like other question words such as / khay / ('who'), / nǎy / ('which') and etcetera. Also, it modifies measure words and classifiers. In addition, it precedes the word it modifies (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.293). In example A10-10, / kǐi / is precedes and modifies the noun phrase / pii / ('year'). Similarly, in example A10-11, / kǐi / is precedes and modifies the adverb / moonj / ('o'clock').

Example A10-10

อยู่	ที่-นี้	มา	กี่	ปี	แล้ว
yùu	thīi-nīi	maa	kǐi	pii	léw
stay	here	come/ASP	how.many	year	ASP

'How long have you been here?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.294)

Example A10-11

ถึง	ห้อง-สมุด	กี่	โมง
thǔŋ	hōŋ-samùt	kǐi	moonj
reach	library	how.many	o'clock

'What time did you get to the library?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.294)

Adverbial questions consist of four adverbial interrogative words including / thǎwrày / ('how much'), / yanŋay / or / yàaŋray / ('how'), / mǎarày / ('when') and / thammay / ('why').

The adverbial interrogative word / thǎwrày / ('how much') mainly occurs at the beginning or end of a sentence. It is used to raise questions regarding the price or a measured amount of something (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.294). Examples A10-12 and A10-13 shows how / thǎwrày / is used to raise questions regarding the profit making and the price of the of the rent. In addition, it

can also appear after a preposition. Example A10-14, / thâwrây / appears after the preposition / tântèe / ('from').

Example A10-12

เรา...	ไตรมาส	แรก	นี้	ได้	เท่าไร	คะ
law	traymâat	lêek	nîi	dây	thâwrây	khá
2SG	trimester	first	this	get	how.much	SLP

'How much profit did you make in the first trimester'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.294)

Example A10-13

เท่าไร	นะ	คะ	ราคา	เช่า
thâwrây	ná	khá	lakhaa	châw
how.much	PP	SLP	price	rent

'How much is it, the rent?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.294)

SLP = speech level particle

Example A10-14

อายุ	ตั้งแต่	เท่าไร	ล่ะ		
น่า		จะ	เป็น	ยี่สิบห้า	อัพ
ayú	tântèe	thâwrây	lá		
nâa	cà	pen	yîisiphâa	áp	
age	from	how.much	PP		
should	CM	COP	twenty-five	up	

'What age group (is the target group)? It should be over 25 and upwards.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.294)

The adverbial interrogative word 'how' has two registers which are / yanṅay / and / yàṅray /. An alternative form for / yanṅay / is / ṅay /. They differ in the level of formality as / ṅay / is

rather informal and / yàaŋray / is rather formal (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295). The adverbial interrogative word / yaŋŋay / appears at the end of the sentence and is used for asking the manner in which the action takes place (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295). In example A10-15, / yaŋŋay / appears at the end of the sentences as in ‘come home how’ and ‘look for home how’. As for example A10-16, / yaŋŋay / appears at the end of the sentence before it is linked with the subsequent clause.

Example A10-15

มา	บ้าน	ยังไง		หา	บ้าน	ยังไง
maa	bâan	yaŋŋay		hǎa	bâan	yaŋŋay
come	home	how		look.for	home	how

'How did you get home? How did you find the house?'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295)

Example A10-16

แล้ว	รู้สึก	เป็น-ยังไง		มา	แอลเอ	วัน	แรก
léw	lusùk	pen-yaŋŋay		maa	ɛɛw-ee wan	léɛk	
LINK	feel	how		came	L.A.	day	first

'How did you feel on the first day when you came to Los Angeles?'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295)

Similarly, the adverbial interrogative word / mûarày / ('when') usually occurs at the end of the sentence and under two particular circumstances, it appears at the beginning of the sentence. When / mûarày / occurs in the beginning of the sentence, it bears emotional overtones or shows the irritation of the speaker (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295). In example A10-17, / mûarày / appears at the end of the sentence whereas in A10-18, it appears at the beginning of the sentence making a stress on the question 'when'.

Example A10-17

เมื่อไหร่	จะ	มา
mûarày	cà	maa

CM come when
'When is he coming?'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295)

Example A10-18

จะ มา เมื่อไหร่
cà maa mûarày
when CM come
'When is he coming?'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295)

Nonetheless, the adverbial interrogative word /thammay / ('why'). It can appear at the beginning or at the end of a sentence and it is commonly placed through the final position (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295). In example A10-19, /thammay / appears at the very beginning of the sentence. Moreover, in example A10-20 regardless of the pragmatic particle (PP) and the speech level particle (SLP), /thammay / appears at the end of the sentence.

Example A10-19

ทำไม ซวย อย่าง นี้
thammay suay yàaŋ ní
why unlucky like this
'How come I am so unlucky?'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.296)

Example A10-20

แขวน ดาว แดง ทำไม ละ นะ
khwǎen daaw dɛɛŋ thammay là khá
hang star red why PP SLP
'Why do you fly the red star?'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.295)

PP = pragmatic particle

Regarding the ‘yes and no’ questions in Thai, there are four types of sentence-final question particles used. The sentence-final question particles include /mǎy/(ม៉ัย), /rú-plàaw/, /rúu-yaŋ/ and /rǎu/. There are two constraints during the usage of the /mǎy/ question. The constraints include the restriction on the use of two particular predicates and pragmatic constraints.

In the ‘yes/no’ question’ of /mǎy/, there is a restriction on the use of predicate. Nominal predicate and negative predicate are two predicates which cannot be used (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.279). For instance, the sentence-final question particle(QP) /mǎy/ cannot be used in questions like ‘Is he a student?’ and ‘Aren’t you going?’. Besides, it cannot appear in particular sentences where there are verbal predicates in the past time frame (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.281). This example can be seen in A10-21, in which there is an indicator of past time frame ‘yesterday’. On the contrary, there can be exceptional cases when /mǎy/ can be placed at the end of the sentence. This can be done if the sentence contains certain adverbs such as ‘often’ and ‘a lot’ or aspectual auxiliaries such as experiential and change-of-state auxiliaries. The example of /mǎy/ being placed at the end of the sentence can be seen in examples A10-21 through A10-22 where the questions are somehow related to the state of the addressee.

Example A10-21

*เมื่อ-วาน-นี้	ไป	ดู	หนัง	ม๊ัย
*mâa-waan-nii	pay	duu	nǎŋ	mǎy
yesterday	go	look	movie	QP

‘Did you see a movie yesterday?’
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.281)

Example A10-22

เรียน	ราม	จบ	ม๊ัย	อะ
Lian	laam	còp	mǎy	há
study	(school name)	finish	QP	SLP

‘Did you graduate from Ramkhamhaeng University?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.282)

SLP = speech level particle

In terms of the pragmatic constraints, /mǎy/ is used to elicit information which belongs exclusively to the addressee and within “addressee’s territory of information” (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, as cited in Kamio, 1997). Usually, the /mǎy/ question regards personal concerns of the addressees such as their emotions, perceptions and desires and elicit information. It can also be used in questions regarding the possessions, abilities or even asking for permission of the addressee. Example A10-23 shows the way /mǎy/ is used in a question asking a question related to the state of emotion of the addressee while example A10-24 shows the way /mǎy/ is used to elicit information on the desire of the addressee.

Example A10-23

ดีใจ ไหม

dii-cay mǎy

glad QP

‘Are/Were you glad?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.280)

Example A10-24

อยาก จะ คุย ต่อ มั้ย

yàak cà khuy tòw mǎy

want NCM talk continue QP

‘Do you want to continue talking?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.280)

QP = question particle

On the other hand, the /rú-plàaw/ question is used to make an invitation which inquires the desire of the addressee. The question particle /rú-plàaw/ consists of a conjunction /rú/ (/rúu/) ‘or’ and a negative morpheme /plàaw/ ‘not’. The combination of the conjunction and the negative morpheme makes the meaning of /rú-plàaw/ as ‘or not’ (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.283).

This example can be seen in example A10-25.

Example A10-25

ไป	ด้วย-กัน	หรือเปล่า
pay	dûay-kan	rúplàaw
go	together	QP

'Do you want to go with me, or not?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.283)

QP = question particle

Moreover, “the question particle /rú-yaŋ/ is a perfect/anterior counterpart of /rú-plàaw/... it represents two alternatives (i.e. ‘have done’ or ‘have not done’)” (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.283). The question particle /rú-yaŋ/ can be pronounced as /lu-yaŋ/. The particle /yaŋ/ may appear independently in informal conversation and its example can be seen in A10-26, when the formality of the language is informal.

Example A10-26

กิต	ไป	ดู	เรื่อง	นั้น	หรือ-ยัง
kit	pay	duu	lûaŋ	nán	lu-yaŋ
(name).2	go	look	story	that	QP

'Have you (=Kit) seen that movie, or not?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.284)

QP = question particle

Nonetheless, the question particle /rǎ/ is used when a speaker has an intense curiosity regarding the information he beholds and it also expresses that the speaker is surprised. It has different pronunciations which are /lǎ/, /rǎ/ and /lú/. It may also “appear after a noun phrase to form ‘You mean X?’ question” (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, P.286). Example A10-27 shows the question particle /lǎ/ (or /rǎ/) being used in the question when the speaker is surprised. In example A10-28, it is a question asking for the major the addressee is taking and in example A10-29, /lǎ/ follows /phǒm/ (‘me’), the addressee was making a confirmation on whether the speaker was addressing

him or her.

Example A10-27

โธ๋ ชั้น ห้า เลข หรือ
ôo chán hâa løy lǎ
EXC floor 5 PRT QP

'Oh, the fifth floor?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.285)

EXC = exclamation

QP = question particle

Example A10-28

แล้ว ของ คุณ | แยก อะไร ละ
léw khǒŋ khun | èek alay khá
LINK of 2SG | major what SLP

'And what is your major?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.286)

Example A10-29

ผม เหนือ ฮะ | เหนือ คอมพิวเตอร์ ไซแอน
phǒm lǎ há | òo khǒmphiwtǎo sayên
1M QP SLP | HES computer science

'Me? Uhm. Computer science.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.286)

HES = hesitation

SLP = speech level particle

GRAMMATICAL ASPECTS OF THAI VERSUS ENGLISH

B1. Complementizers in Thai and English

Complementation is a process which treats the complement clause as a part of the larger clause (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 254). Two commonly used complementizers in English are 'that' and 'for'. The English complementizer 'that' takes a sentence as its complement while 'for' takes an NP complement.

Prasithrathsint (2007) argues that / hây / is also a complementizer in Thai but it is still arguable and he urged for further research on this topic. Therefore, / hây / will not be analyzed here. It is generally agreed that there are two common complementizers in Thai and they are / thîi / and / waa /. As for / thîi /, like 'that' in English, it refers to the fact itself and shows that it is a fact that has existence and truth value (Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.77).

There are two ways to express the complement clause in Thai, namely by juxtaposing two clauses and by marking the complement clause with complementizers. The first way is to juxtapose a complement clause with the main clause. The juxtaposed complement clause may serve as an object of certain verbs, such as /rak/ ('love'), or served as a subject. The second way is to use the complementizer / thîi / or / waa /. The complementizer / thîi / can be used to head an object complement with the verbs showing evaluation and emotion in the main clause. The following example illustrates how it / thîi / is used.

Example B2-1

ผม	ดี-ใจ	ที่	ได้	พบ	ท่าน
phǒm	dii-cay	thîi	dâay	phóp	thân
IM	glad	COMP	get/ASP	meet	you

'I am glad to meet you.'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 255)

The above example shows that the complementizer / *thîi* / acts like the English preposition ‘to’ in the way that it also is immediately followed by the verb / *dây* /. This is similar to the English ‘to’ which can also be used to start an embedded clause. In this manner, / *thîi* / is used to introduce an infinitive clause. Thus, / *thîi dâay phóp thân* / is an infinitive clause headed by the complementizer / *thîi* /. Unlike the English preposition ‘to’ which can only be used to introduce an infinitive clause, / *thîi* / in Thai can also be used to introduce a non-infinitive embedded clause. For example, a subject can be added to the place between / *thîi* / and the verb / *dây* / in this sentence.

The word / *waa* / in Thai has many functions. It can be used for quotation (meaning ‘say’), as the general verb of speech and cognition, as the post-posed verb of speech and as the complementizer, as mentioned earlier (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 259-268). When used as a complementizer, / *waa* / is used with a variety of complement-taking verbs, such as / *sadeej waa* / (‘show that’), / *măaykhwaam waa* / (‘mean that’), / *títjay waa* / (‘be impressed that; to be worried, annoyed, bothered that’), / *duu mŭan waa* / (‘appear to be’), / *klua waa* / (‘be afraid that’), etc. (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 266). When it functions as a complementizer, it will lose the specific meaning of ‘say’. The following example shows this usage of / *waa* /.

Example B2-2

เจ๑	คน	หนึ่ง		ก็	ไม่	จำ-เป็น	ว่า
จะ	ต้อง	ไป	เจ๑	อีก	อะไร	เนี่ย	
๑๑๑	khon	nŭn		kô	mây	cam-pen	waa
๑๑	tôn	pay	๑๑๑	ïik	alay	nía	
see	person/CLS	one		LP	NEG	necessary	say/COMP
CM	must	go	see	again	what	PP	

‘(Even if) you see someone (in class), it doesn’t necessarily mean that you will see him again, you know.’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 266)

The complement-taking verb / *cam pen waa* / (‘be necessary that’) here introduces another clause with a second predicate / *pay* / (‘go’) after it in this example. Before this, there is another verb /

cəə / ('see'). That means it links the complement clause with the matrix clause. The combination of complement-taking verb and complementizer / wāa / functions as a complementizer as a whole to introduce a complement clause.

The two complementizers / thīi / and / waa /, resulting in the combined form / thīi-waa /. This can also be used to mark complement clauses, as shown in example B2-3.

Example B2-3

ผม	เสียใจ	ที่-ว่า	เรา	เป็น	เพื่อน	กัน
phǒm	sǐa-cay	thīi-wāa	raw	pen	phûan	kan
1SG.	disappointed	COMP	1PL	COP	friend	REC

'I was disappointed that, though we are friends ...'
 (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 256)

In this example, / waa / does not have to be used with a complement-taking verb. Instead, it is used in combination with another complementizer / thīi /. Together, the form / thīi-waa / is also a complementizer and it is used to introduce an embedded clause. There is a copula in the embedded clause and so it is not for introducing an infinitive clause like / thīi / as in example B2-1. If the subject of the embedded clause / raw / is removed, the whole sentence would sound odd. As such, / thīi / acts like the English complementizer 'that' in this manner for that it takes a sentential complement.

B2. Quantifiers and their NPs in Thai and English

The following five examples display the basic structure of noun phrases with some common English and Thai quantifiers. The first of these is concerned with the numeral quantifier / sǎwŋ / ('two'). Numeral quantifiers in Thai occur in between the quantified noun and its classifier. While those in English also follow the nouns they quantify, they do not take any classifier.

As in the data below, the noun / naŋ-sǔu / ('book') precedes the numeral quantifier / sǎwŋ / and this is followed by the classifier for book / lēm /.

Example B2-1

หนังสือ สอง เล่ม
naŋ-sǎu sǎwŋ lém
book two CLASSIFIER
'two books'
(Online data⁴)

Intriguingly, Thai quantifiers employ the reduplication strategy to show emphasis or create the double-force effect on their quantified nouns whereas English cannot. The second example of these shows that / lǎai / ('many') can be reduplicated to make emphasis and it can occur without the quantified noun 'people' when the classifier / khon / already contains the meaning of 'people' because it is a classifier for human.

Example B2-2

หลายๆ คน
lǎai-lǎai khon
many-many person.CLASSIFIER
'many people'
(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.189)

The quantifier / tʰúk / ('every' or 'each') behaves in a similar way as / lǎai / for that it can also be reduplicated when needed and it can merely appear before a classifier without the noun as shown in the following example.

Example B2-3

ทุก ที่
tʰúk thîi
every place.CLASSIFIER

⁴ Thai Language Wiki > Substitution Drill (6.): http://www.thailanguagewiki.com/index.php?title=Lesson_26

‘every place’

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.197)

In the fourth example, / sùn-yày / (‘most’) follows a noun without a classifier. While the English ‘most’ does not require a classifier either, it occurs before the quantified noun.

Example B2-4

นัก-เรียน	ส่วน-ใหญ่	มัก	ถาม	คำ-ถาม
nák-rian	sùn-yày	mák	thăam	kham-thăam
students	most	often	ask	question

‘Most students ask questions.’

(Online data⁵)

In the form of ‘at least + numeral + noun’, the numeral takes the position after the determiner and thus becomes something more like an adjective. Both English and Thai have phrases with this structure. For example, the analogous words for ‘at least’ and ‘two’ in Thai exhibit the same distribution in a noun phrase as those in English as illustrated below.

Example B2-5

พวก-เขา	ต้อง	สมรส	แล้ว	อย่าง-น้อย
สอง ปี				
phûak-khăw	tǔng	sǒmrót	léɛw	yàaŋ-nǔay
สอง ปี				
group.CLASSIFIER-3SG.M/3SG.F	must	marry	already	at least

2 years

‘They must have been married for at least two years.’

(Online data⁶)

⁵ engoo > most/most of:

<https://thai.engoo.com/blog/%E0%B8%A3%E0%B8%B2%E0%B8%A2%E0%B8%A5%E0%B8%B0%E0%B9%80%E0%B8%AD%E0%B8%B5%E0%B8%A2%E0%B8%94/%E0%B8%84%E0%B8%A7%E0%B8%B2%E0%B8%A1%E0%B9%81%E0%B8%95%E0%B8%81%E0%B8%95%E0%B9%88%E0%B8%B2%E0%B8%87-%E0%B8%A3%E0%B8%B0%E0%B8%AB%E0%B8%A7%E0%B9%88%E0%B8%B2%E0%B8%87-all.-all.-of.-most.-most-of-non.-non-of>

In this example, both ‘at least’ and / yàaŋ-nóy / take the initial position in the noun phrase and the numerals ‘two’ and / sǒŋ / precede the nouns they modify.

From the above data, it can be generalized that English quantifiers always precede the nouns or noun phrases they modify whereas Thai quantifiers occur after the noun phrases. Thai quantifiers generally follow the structure ‘(Noun) + Quantifier + (Classifier)’. Quantifiers in Thai act as cardinal numbers which come between nouns and classifiers and that is why they can sometimes be thought of as ‘number words’. Unlike English where certain quantifiers take plural nouns, Thai nouns in this structure always appear in the base form no matter if the cardinality of their referents is greater than one. Apart from / mâak / (corresponding to English ‘many’, ‘much’ or ‘a lot’), the other Thai quantifiers can simply occur with a classifier without a preceding noun.

Example B2-6 below strictly follows the standard sequence of ‘noun + quantifier + classifier’. The quantified noun / fâ-ràng / precedes the quantifier / lăai / (‘many’ in this context) and the classifier for people / k^hon /. Note that the noun / lăai / quantifies has the singular form here and it will always appear in this form even though it occurs with numerals other than ‘one’ in other contexts.

Example B2-6

ฝรั่ง	หลาย	คน
fâ-ràng	lăai	khon
westerner	many	person.CLASSIFIER
‘Many westerners’		
(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.46)		

In the next example, the quantifier / lăai-lăai / only occurs with the classifier / k^hon / (‘person’ as a unit) without the quantified noun. From the previous example of / fâ-ràng lăai k^hon / (‘many westerners’), it shows that / k^hon / is a classifier rather than a noun. Although / k^hon / also means ‘person’ or ‘people’ in Thai, it does not act as a noun in the same way as the quantified noun

⁶ Glosbe English-Thai dictionary: <https://th.glosbe.com/en/th/at%20least>

'people' in English when it takes the position after the noun. However, when it occurs before the quantifier as in '/ k^hon 'sǒŋ k^hon /' ('two people'), the first / k^hon / functions as a noun and the second one as a classifier. Another example of 'many millions' is provided to further illustrate the use of this pattern of 'quantifier + classifier'.

Example B2-7

หลาย	คน	อยาก	ไป
lǎai-lǎai	khon	yàak	bpai
many	person.CLASSIFIER	want	go

'**Many** people want to go.'

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.189)

Example B2-8

หลาย	ล้าน
lǎai	láan
many	million

'**Many** millions.'

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.189)

In the next two examples, the quantifier / mâak / (meaning 'a lot of' here) comes after the noun / aarǎa / ('food') in the first example and / yúhyáe / after the noun / kǒng / ('thing') in the second example without any classifier followed. The corresponding English phrases are similar in that they do not need any classifiers but the English quantifiers always come before the nouns they quantify.

Example B2-9

เค้า	ซื้อ	อาหาร	มา	มาก
káo	séu	aarǎa	maa	mâak
3SG	buy	food	come	a lot

'He bought **a lot of** food.'

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.188)

Example B2-10

ทำไม	เอา	มา	มา	เยอะ	ยัง	งี้
tam-mai	ao	kǒng	maa	yúhyáe	yang	ngée
why	bring	thing	come	many-many	like.this	PRT

‘Why did you bring **so many** things?’

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.188)

B3. Reflexives and Reciprocals in Thai and English

Reflexive pronouns are those which refer back to the subject in the sentences and they may not always refer to a preceding NP. In other words, subjects control reflexive pronouns (Tallerman, 2014, p.208). English reflexive pronouns end in *-self*, or *-selves* if plural, for example, ‘myself’, ‘himself’, etc. Thai reflexive pronouns consist of the noun / tua / (‘body’) or / ton / (‘person’), a pronoun and the emphatic word / eej / (‘self’) and hence generally take the form of ‘/ ton / + pronoun + / eej /’. The noun / tua / can be omitted, particularly in conversations. Thus, the form ‘pronoun + / eej /’ is also possible. Similar to English *-self*, the emphatic word / eej / can be used to combine with both personal pronouns. For example, when combining with the word / chǎn / (‘I’ or ‘me’), the combined form / tua chǎn eej / means ‘myself’. In the case of ‘oneself’, the noun / tua / (‘body’) or / ton / (‘person’) are used to combine with / eej /, giving the forms / tua-eej / (‘oneself’ in general) and / ton-eej / (‘oneself’ in written text) (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.55). The following table⁷ lists out all the English reflexive pronouns and some corresponding commonly used Thai reflexive pronouns.

English Reflexive Pronouns	Thai Reflexive Pronouns	Thai Reflexive Pronouns in Thai
myself	/ chǎn eej /	ฉันเอง
yourself/yourselfs	/ thəe eej / OR	เธอเอง OR

⁷ (with the help of LONGDO DICTIONARY English-Thai dictionary: <https://dict.longdo.com/index.php>)

	/ khun eej / (formal and polite) OR / mun eej / (vulgar)	คุณเอง
ourselves	/ phûak raw eej /	พวกเราเอง
themselves	/ phûak kháw eej /	พวกเขาเอง
himself	/ kháw eej /	เขา (ผู้ชาย) เอง
herself	/ thœ eej /	เธอเอง
itself	/ man eej /	มันเอง

Note that in the case of ‘ourselves’ and ‘themselves’, the plural marker / phûak / is added to the front of the pronouns before they are combined with the emphatic word / eej /.

The following examples demonstrate the distribution of the reflexives and the reciprocals in Thai and English.

Example B3-1

พวก-เขา	ถึง-กับ	ถวาย	ตัว-เอง	เพื่อ	รับ-ใช้
ซีโอน!					
phûak-kháw	thǎŋ-ka	thawăay	tua-eej	phûa	ráp-cháy
siioon					
PL-3	even	offer	body-self	for	serve
(name)					
‘They even offer themselves to minister to Zion!’					
(Online data ⁸)					

Example B3-2

เส็ก	วาด	เอง
------	-----	-----

⁸ Glosbe English-Thai dictionary: <https://th.glosbe.com/en/th/themselves>

lék wâat eej
(name) draw self

'Lek drew it **himself**.'

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.53)

Example B3-3

ประการแรก	พระ-เยซู	ทรงคาดหมาย	ทั้ง	จาก	พระองค์
เอง	และ	จาก	ผู้-อื่น	อย่าง	
มี	เหตุผล				
prakaanrêek	phrá-yeesuu	soṅkhâatmăay	tháj	jàak	phráʔoŋ
eej	lèʔ	jàak	phûu-ùun	yàaŋ	
mii	hèetphôn				
first of all	god-Jesus	expect (royalty)	both	from	1SG (royalty)
self	and	from	others	in the manner of	
have	reason				

'First of all, Jesus was reasonable in his expectations both **of himself** and of others.'

(Online data⁹)

In the first example above, the word / tua-eej / ('oneself') is used to mean 'themselves' but / phûak khâw eej / can also be used in this context; in the second example above, / eej / ('self') is used to mean 'himself'. Both of these reflexive pronouns come after the verb in the sentences. They behave like the corresponding words in English 'themselves' and 'himself' in this manner and they refer back to the subjects of the sentences. Both languages allow the object NP ('it' in the English sentence and / man / in the Thai case) to come in between the verb and the reflexive in example B3-2. In the third example, / phráʔoŋ / followed by / eej / ('self') means 'himself' but it is a highly formal word used in topics regarding religion referring to God himself. Similar to the previous two examples, it follows the verb but there is a preposition / jáak / preceding the reflexive pronoun / phráʔoŋ eej / as in the case of the English translation 'of himself'.

⁹ Glosbe English-Thai dictionary: <https://th.glosbe.com/en/th/of%20himself>

In English, the reflexives can be placed immediately after the subjects they refer to in a sentence. For example, we can say ‘They **themselves** even offer to minister to Zion!’ and ‘Lek **himself** drew it.’ in English. Similar to the English sentence in example B3-1, the reflexive / tua-eeŋ / (‘themselves’) can also be moved to after the subject / phûak-khâw / (‘they’) but it sounds more natural to remove the word / tua / (‘body’) in this case. That is, Thai allows sentence order like / phûak-khâw eeŋ thûŋ-ka thawăay phûa râp-cháy siioon / (พวกเขาเองถึงกับถวายเพื่อรับใช้ Zion!). Likewise, Thai also allows us to move / eeŋ / (‘self’) to after the subject / lék / (name ‘Lek’) in example B3-2 but / lék eeŋ wâat / sounds incomplete. To make it sound complete, the object NP / man / (‘it’) has to be used in this context, giving the sentence / lék eeŋ wâat man / (‘Lek himself drew it.’). In example B3-3, English does not allow sentence to become ‘Jesus **of himself** was reasonable in his expectations and of others’ while Thai also does not allow / prakaanrêek phrá-yeesuu jàak phrá?oŋ eeŋ soŋkhâatmăay thánj lè? jàak phûu-ùun yàŋ mii hêtphôn /.

The reciprocal pronoun ‘each other’ or ‘one another’ in Thai is expressed by adding the word / kan / (‘together’) after the verb (Smyth, 2002, p.49). Example B3-4 below illustrates this.

Example B3-4

บางที	นักโทษ	ก็	ฆ่า	กัน-เอง
baaŋthii	nák-thôot	kôo	khâa	kan-eeŋ
sometimes	prisoner	PRT	kill	together-self

‘Sometimes prisoners kill **each other**.’
 (Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.57)

Example B3-5

นอกจากนี้	ทั้ง-สอง	มี	มิตรภาพ	ที่	เปี่ยม	ด้วย
khwaam-rák	tò	kân	míttraphâap	thîi	piam	dûay
moreover	both-two	have	companionship	SBR	full	with love
	for		together			

‘Moreover, they had the warm companionship of **each other**.’
 (Online data¹⁰)

Reciprocals also behave in the similar way as the reflexives for that they come after the verb in a sentence. Similar to the English reciprocals ‘each other’ or ‘one another’, the corresponding Thai reciprocal / kan-eej / (literally ‘together self’) or simply / kan / (‘together’) also take the direct object position. The reason for this is that reciprocals are used when the subjects are both agent and recipient in a sentence. Unlike reflexives, they cannot not be placed in the subject position immediately after the subject. As example B3-5 shows, reciprocals in both English and Thai can be preceded by a preposition (i.e. ‘of’ before ‘each other’ for the English case and / tɔ̀ / before / kan / for the Thai case).

English does not allow sentences like ‘They believed he praised themselves’, ‘He said they praised himself’, ‘They looked at John’s pictures of themselves’, ‘They thought he praised each other’, etc. The following examples demonstrate whether Thai allows these.

Example B3-6¹¹

พวก-เขา	ถึง-กับ	เชื่อว่า	ฉัน	ถวาย	ตัว-เอง
เพื่อ	รับ-ใช้	ซีโอน!			
phûak-khâw	thǔŋ-ka	chûawâa	chǎn	thawăay	tua-eej
phûa	ráp-cháy	siion			
PL-3	even	believe	1SG	offer	body-self
for	serve	(name)			

*‘They even believe I offer **themselves** to minister to Zion!’

Example B3-7¹²

เด็ก	ว่า	พวก-เขา	ว่า	เอง
lék	wâa	phûak-khâw	wâat	eej

¹⁰ Glosbe English-Thai dictionary: <https://th.glosbe.com/en/th/of%20each%20other>

¹¹ Modified from example B3-1 using LONGDO DICTIONARY: <https://dict.longdo.com/search/believe>

¹² Modified from example B3-2 using LONGDO DICTIONARY: <https://dict.longdo.com/search/believe>

(name) say PL-3 draw self

*‘Lek said they drew it himself.’

In the first example above, although / phûak-khâw thǎn-ka chûawâa chǎn thawăay tua-eeŋ phûa rǎp-chây siioon / (พวกเขาถึงกับเชื่อว่าฉันทําด้วยตัวเองเพื่อรับใช้ซีไอเอ!) sounds grammatical in Thai, it does so only when the reflexive / tua-eeŋ / (‘oneself’) refers to / chǎn / (‘I’ or ‘me’) but not / phûak-khâw / (‘they’). This is because in Thai, / tua-eeŋ / can be used to replace ‘myself’, ‘yourself’, ‘himself’, ‘themselves’, etc. in Thai. English also does not allow another personal pronoun to go between ‘they’ and ‘themselves’. In the second example, / eeŋ / (‘self’) behaves similarly as / tua-eeŋ / and it can also be used to mean ‘myself’, ‘yourself’, ‘himself’, ‘themselves’, etc. in Thai. Example B3-7 only sounds grammatical when / eeŋ / refers to / phûak-khâw / instead of / lék / (‘Lek’). English also does not allow another personal pronoun or subject to go between the proper noun ‘Lek’ and its referential reflexive pronoun ‘himself’. Both English and Thai do not allow the reflexives in the embedded clause to cross-clausally refer back to the subject in the matrix clause.

Likewise, the following example shows that the possessive pronoun ‘their’ cannot come in between the proper noun ‘Lek’ and its reflexive pronoun ‘himself’ in English. This is also the case in Thai. The sentence sounds odd when the possessive pronoun / khǎwŋ phûak-khâw / (‘their’) intervene the proper noun / lék / and the reflexive / khâw-eeŋ / (‘himself’).

Example B3-8¹³

เด็ก	ดู	ภาพวาด	ของ	พวก-เขา	จาก
เขา-เอง					
*lék	duu	phâapwâat	khǎwŋ	phûak-khâw	jâak
khâw-eeŋ					
(name)	look at	picture	thing	PL-3	from
3SG-self					

*‘Lek looked at their picture of himself.’

¹³ Modified from example B3-7 using LONGDO DICTIONARY for ‘look at’ and ‘picture’:
<https://dict.longdo.com/search/believe>

Similar to the previous three examples, the following example shows that English reciprocal ‘each other’ does not allow another NP or pronoun (i.e. ‘Lek’) to come in between itself and its referential noun ‘prisoners’ while the corresponding Thai reciprocal / kan-eeŋ / also does not allow another NP to come in between itself and the noun they refer to (i.e. / nák-thôot / ‘prisoner’). Thus, the following sentences are ungrammatical.

Example B3-4¹⁴

บางที	นักโทษ	ก็	คิดว่า	เล็ก	ฆ่า	กันเอง
*baaŋthii	nák-thôot	kôo	khít-wâa	lék	khâa	kan-eeŋ
sometimes	prisoner	PRT	think-that	(name) kill	together-self	

*‘Sometimes prisoners thought Lek killed each other.’
(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.57)

The examples above show that both reflexives and reciprocals do not allow another referentiable pronoun or NP to intervene themselves and their referential pronouns.

B4. Distribution of Adjectives in Thai and English

Comparable to English, Thai also has two types of adjectives: modifier and predicate (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.10). English has attributive and predicate adjectives. In other words, both Thai and English have predicate adjectives, the kind of adjectives that occur in the post-verbal position but English’s modifier kind of adjectives are more specifically called ‘attributive’, which always precedes the nominal group it modifies, whereas Thai’s modifier adjectives appear after the nominals they modify. Although Thai also has predicate adjectives, they behave in a different fashion from English’s predicate adjectives for that they are more like stative verbs (i.e. verbs that express a state rather than an action), which do not require a copula as in English. Despite this, they are not identical to stative verbs as they can be used in superlative and comparative constructions. Some adjectives in Thai can even function like manner adverbs.

¹⁴ Modified from example B3-4 using LONGDO DICTIONARY for ‘look at’ and ‘picture’:
<https://dict.longdo.com/search/believe>

Adjectival modifiers take the form of ‘head noun + [classifier (CLS) + adjective]’ (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.66). A classifier is not possible in an adjectival phrase in English but it is in Thai. However, Thai does not obligatorily require it. When a classifier is added to the adjectival modifier in Thai, it goes in between the head noun and the adjectival head. The first example below shows the pattern ‘head noun + CLS + adjective’ and the second one shows ‘head noun + adjective’ (without the classifier).

Example B4-1

หมา ตัวใหญ่

mǎa tua yày

dog CLS big

‘a big dog’

(Readopted from example A3-1)

Example B4-2

หมาใหญ่

mǎa yày

dog big

‘big dogs’

(Readopted from example A3-3)

The two examples are of modifier kind. Both examples are grammatical in Thai. However, there is a non-grammatical difference in these two examples. The first one of these is more specific and it refers to ‘a specific dog with a large body’ whereas the second one is more general and it refers to ‘any type of dog with a large body’.

Now let us consider the predicate adjectives in Thai. Predicate adjectives are more apparent as they appear after the copula in a sentence in English but it is less obvious in Thai. The following example pairs show the different distributions of modifier and predicate adjectives in Thai in the same context. The first one of each pair is of modifier type while the second is of predicate type.

Example B4-3

- a) รถ (คัน) แพง
rót (khan) phæŋ
car (CLS) expensive
'an expensive car'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.91)
- b) รถ คัน นี้ แพง
rót khan ní phæŋ
car CLS this expensive
'This car is expensive.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.92)

Example B4-4

- a) ผู้หญิง (คน) สวย
phûuyǐŋ (khon) sǔay
woman (CLS) beautiful
'a beautiful woman'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.91)
- b) ผู้หญิง คน นี้ สวย
phûuyǐŋ khon ní sǔay
woman CLS this beautiful
'This woman is beautiful.'
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.92)

In examples (a) of these pairs, / phæŋ / ('expensive') and / sǔay / ('beautiful') are modifier adjectives and they mark the end of the structure 'head noun + [classifier (CLS) + adjective]' as in examples B4-1 and B4-2. In comparison with examples (b) of these pairs, the only difference is that there is the demonstrative / ní / ('this') between the classifiers and the adjectives in examples (b). From the gloss, it appears that there is no verb in these examples. This thus leads

us to the question of how we could identify the adjectives in examples (b) as of predicate type. Indeed, it can be seen from the structure of demonstrative modifier ‘head noun + [(CLS) + demonstrative]’ (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.64) that the demonstrative / nfi / marks the end of the subject noun phrases (i.e. / rôt khan nfi / in example B4-3b and / phûuyñg khon nfi / in example B4-4b). Thus, the adjectives / phæŋ / and / sŭay / in examples (b) mark the beginning of the predicate. Also, since there is no copular ‘verb’ as in the case of ‘is’ in the English translated sentences in these sentences, these adjectives function like intransitive verbs in Thai.

B5. Negative Polarity Items (NPIs) in Thai and English

Negative polarity items (NPIs) are expressions which can only appear felicitously in negative contexts (Wouden, 1994, p.5). In English, expressions containing NPIs, like *any*-words, can only co-occur with negation and in the object position, as in ‘I didn’t see anyone’. There are many examples of NPIs in English and most of these words are preceded by the morpheme *any*- but due to the scope of our project, we will only focus on an example of English NPIs ‘anyone’ and its corresponding Thai words to compare the distribution of NPIs in these two languages. According to the examples taken from Higbie & Thinsan (2002, p.48) as shown below, the corresponding Thai words which are often used to translate ‘anyone’ are / khray / (normally used as an interrogative word meaning ‘who’) and / khon / (more commonly used as a noun meaning ‘person’ or a classifier).

Example B5-1

- a) ไม่เห็น มี ใคร อยู่ เลย
mây hěn mii **kh**ray yuu læy
NEG see have VE stay PRT
‘I didn’t see **anyone** there at all.’
(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.48)
- b) ไม่เห็น มี คน อยู่ เลย
mây hěn mii **kh**on yuu læy
NEG see have VE stay PRT
‘I didn’t see **anyone** there at all.’

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.48)

VE = variable expressions (used in Ruangjaroon, 2007, p.92)

The word / khon / is more commonly used to mean 'someone' as the following example illustrates.

Example B5-2

เห็น	มี	คน	มา-หา	เค้า	เมื่อ	เช้า-นี้
hěn	mii	khon	maa-hǎa	kháw	mûa	cháaw-níi
see	have	someone	come-find	3SF	in	morning-this

'I saw someone come to see him this morning.'

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2002, p.48)

The following example shows 'anyone' and / khray / in the object position of a negative sentence. Both English and Thai sentences are grammatical in this case. Note that similar to English, when the speaker says this sentence with a different intonation, it can also function as a question rather than a statement, especially when the pragmatic particle / ná / (นะ) (see Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p.188-189 for examples of the particle) is used in Thai.

Example B5-3

นิด	ไม่	เห็น	ใคร
nit	mây	hěn	khray
(name) NEG	see	VE	

'Nit did **not** see **anyone**.'

(Ruangjaroon, 2007, p.92)

When the above example is changed to the positive sentence, the sentence becomes something like example B5-4.

Example B5-3

#นิด เห็น ใคร
#nit hěn khray
(name) see VE
*‘Nit saw anyone.’

Both English and Thai sentences with the NPIs (i.e. ‘anyone’ in English and / khray / in Thai) become ungrammatical. The string / nit hěn khray / sounds incomplete in Thai and more is expected to come after this. For example, we can add the verb / maa / (มา) to the end of it. The sentence / nit hěn khray maa / will be a complete thought. However, when the word / khray / acts as an interrogative wh-word in this sentence, it is possible to ask someone with / nit hěn khray /. It sounds incomplete in the statement sense.

English does not allow the NPIs to occur in the subject position as in the following two examples with or without the negation, as illustrated in the following two examples.

Example B5-4

#ใคร เห็น ฉัน
#khray hěn chǎn
VE see 1SG
*‘Anyone saw me.’

Example B5-5

#ใคร ไม่ เห็น ฉัน
#khray mây hěn chǎn
VE NEG see 1SG
*‘Anyone didn’t see me.’

Similar to example B5-3, the Thai statements in examples B5-4 and B5-5 sound odd, unless they are uttered in the form of questions. In this aspect, the word / khray / also acts as an interrogative word in the place of subject NPs.

Thai and English NPIs behave similarly in the positive and negative sentences with the same subject or object position. The difference is that the word / khray / and / khon / are also interrogative words in Thai but English 'anyone' is not.

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