The Predicative-Adjective Construction in Thai

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1. Introduction

One of the syntactic categories in Thai which are rather problematic for grammarians and linguists is adjective. To my knowledge, adjectives in Thai have not yet been thoroughly analyzed despite the fact that they are always mentioned about when morphological and syntactic analyses are made. Many traditional grammarians and linguists in Thai view what are called adjectives in different ways. Thonglao (1966) does not have the term "adjective" in his grammar, but he includes adjective elements in a category "wiseet" or modifiers. There are various kinds of modifiers in this category. Suree Pancharoen (1966) attempts to distinguish adjectives from intransitive and transitive verbs by using the test frames as proposed by Vichintana (1964). However, her analysis is based on the syntactic positions only; this is why her work is not well-justified. Songwitthaya & Songwitthaya (1976) do not mention about the term "adjective" in their grammar book. Instead, they treat as minor intransitive verbs what have been analyzed as adjectives. Wongsiri (1982) proposes six types of intransitives verbs based on Fillmore's (1970) Case Grammar. She treats adjectives like suay 'pretty' and ruay 'rich' as intransitive verbs with Objective Case.

This study presents a linguistic analysis of the syntactic category "adjective" in Thai. We will first explore the morphological, syntactic and semantic characteristics of what are called or should be called adjectives as well as their distribution. Based on this analysis, we will classify adjectives into subtypes. Next we will examine the syntactic and semantic properties of each subtype of this syntactic category. The investigation will finally indicate the constructions in which each type of adjectives occur. The study focuses on constructions of predicative adjectives in Thai.

I divide the study into three main sections: 1. Introduction, 2. The Analysis, and 3. Conclusion. The Analysis section is divided into 2.1. The Definition; 2.2. The Characteristics of Adjectives in Thai; 2.3. Attributive Adjectives; and 2.4. Predicative Adjectives.

For convenience, I use the symbol I for the short central high vowel, II the long central high, E the short central mid, EE the long central mid, O the short back low, OO the long back low, x the short front low and xx the long front low, respectively.

2. The Analysis

This section presents an analysis of adjectives in Thai. The focus is on adjectives which function like verbs. Using a definition of "adjective" by Crystal (1985:7-8), I analyze its types, the semantic and
syntactic characteristics of each type as well as syntactic elements required to occur with them. Then I argue for the sentencehood of the predicative-adjective construction, and finally the subjecthood of an element which occurs in this construction.

2.1. The Definition of "Adjective"

I follow Crystal (1985:7-8) in defining the term "adjective":

"Adjective is a term used in the grammatical classification of words to refer to the main set of items which specify the attributes of Nouns. From a formal point of view, four criteria are generally invoked to define the class in English: they can occur within the noun phrase, i.e. they function in the 'attributive' position, e.g. the big man; they can occur in a post-verbal or 'predicative' position, e.g. the man is big; he called it stupid; they can be premodified by an intensifier, such as very, e.g. the very big man; and they can be used in a comparative and superlative form, either by inflection (e.g. big, bigger, biggest) or periphrastically (e.g. interesting, more interesting, most interesting.) However, not all adjectives satisfy all these criteria, and the sub-classification of adjectives has proved quite complex. Both narrow and broad applications of the term 'adjective' will be found in grammars. In its broadest sense it could include everything between the determiner and the noun, in such a phrase as the vicar's fine old English garden chair; but many linguists prefer to restrict it to the items which satisfy most or all of the above criteria (to include only fine and old, in this example), the other items being called 'adjective-like', or 'adjectivals'. Adjectives may also be the heads of phrases ('adjective phrases', such as 'that's very important') and an adjectival function is sometimes recognised for certain types of clause (e.g. he's the man I saw)."

2.2. The Characteristics of Adjectives in Thai

My analysis of adjectives in Thai is based on the narrower definition of "adjective" by Crystal above as well as the morphological, syntactic and semantic characteristics of what are called "adjectives", all of which are presented and discussed in the following subsections.
2.2.1. Forms and Meanings of Adjectives

Adjective is a syntactic category the members of which describe permanent states of or tell something about their subjects. They describe persons, things, situations, etc. They say what persons or things are like or seem like. They give information about their subjects. The information includes quality, color, shape, size, age, temperature, distance, time and origin. Illustrated in (1) are some examples of adjectives in Thai.

(1) Quality: dii 'good', yɔɔ 'not good, terrible', suay 'pretty', nāarak 'lovely, nice', khxŋ 'hard', ɔon 'soft, weak', etc.
Color: (sii)dxŋ 'red', (sii)kh'aw 'green', (sii)dam 'black', (sii)mūŋ 'purple', (sii)kh'aw 'white', etc.
Shape: kloŋ 'round', sili-am 'square, rectangle', sāmli-am 'rectangle', etc.
Size: lēk 'small, little', yāy 'big, large', yaaw 'long', sān 'short', etc.
Age: kx 'old', ɔon 'young', nūm 'young (for male), sāw 'young (for female), etc.
Temperature: rɔon 'hot', naaw 'cold', yen 'cool', ɔun 'warm', etc.
Distance: klay 'far', klây 'near'
Time: c'haw 'morning', saay 'late in the morning', thian 'noon', baay 'afternoon', yen 'evening', dīk 'late at night', ?a?dit 'past', pàtúcû'ban 'present', ?a?naakhot 'future', etc.
Origin: ciin 'chinese', thai 'Thai', fəran 'western', khx̂xk 'Indian', etc.

The adjectives shown above occur within the scope of the noun phrase. They function as modifiers or adjuncts of head nouns they modify. Their use and occurrence is optional. They are thus called attributive adjectives (AA) by function.

Most of the attributive adjectives shown above can also function as predicates. That is, they occur in sentences and function like intransitive verbs. They describe permanent states of or tell something about their subjects in sentences. They fill the predication part of sentences. In this manner their use is obligatory. By function, they are thus called predicative adjectives (PA). Adjectives of this type occur outside the scope of the noun phrase.

Let us now consider some examples of both attributive and predicative adjectives in various syntactic constructions. (2a) shows the attributive adjective suay 'pretty' within the scope of a noun phrase. Here suay modifies the noun dēk 'child'.
(2a). [ŋf dék [mm suañy] khon níi] child pretty n.classifier this "This pretty child"

(2b) shows the adjective suañy, which has the same form and meaning as suañy in (2a). Here suañy does not modify the noun dék because it is not located within the scope of a noun phrase. Instead, the adjective suañy functions as a predicate, describing the permanent state of an NP subject of the sentence. I thus analyze suañy in the sentence (2b) as a predicative adjective.

(2b). [[ŋf dék khon níi] [mA suañy]] child n.cl this pretty "This child is pretty"

From the evidence above, adjectives can be divided into two types: attributive adjectives (AA) and predicative adjectives (PA). Both types are similar in form and meaning. They differ in syntactic position and function in constructions in which they occur.

In this analysis, predicative adjectives can occur in the position of attributive adjectives, but the reverse is not always true for attributive adjectives. There are a few attributive adjectives which cannot function as predicate adjectives; these include adjectives indicating time, as shown in (1) and those indicating sequence such as kO0n 'former', làν 'latter', rìkk 'first', súthañy 'last, final'. These AAs occur with noun classifiers only, as illustrated in (2c). Khon is a noun classifier and kO0n 'former' the attributive adjective.

(2c). [ŋf huñañañ khon [mA kO0n] (khon) nán] boss n.cl former n.cl that "That former boss"

AA kO0n cannot occur as PA in the predicate scope (PRED), as shown in (2d).

(2d). */?? [sŋf huñañañ khon nán] [PRED khon [mA kO0n]] boss n.cl that n.cl former "That boss is the former one"

* [sŋf huñañañ khon nán] [PRED huñañañ khon [mA kO0n]] boss n.cl that boss n.cl former "That boss is the former one"

* [sŋf huñañañ khon nán] [mA kO0n] boss n.cl that former "That boss is the former one"

To make the sentences in (2d) grammatical, the copula pen 'be' is required in the predicate, as shown in (2e).
(2)e. [₅[₆ hũanâ khon nān] [₆[₅] pent (hũanâ) khon kūon]]
boss n.cl that be boss n.cl former
"That boss is the former one"

2.2.2. Morphological Characteristics of Adjectives

This section presents three morphological characteristics of adjectives in Thai which can be observed from such linguistic processes as adjectivization of verbs, nominalization of adjectives and adverbialization of adjectives.

2.2.2.1. Adjectivization of Verbs

Besides the regular forms as mentioned in the previous section, attributive and predicative adjectives can be formed from verbs through adjectivization. In this linguistic process, such verbs are conjoined with the adjective morphemes nāa, khīi or chānŋ, as shown in (3).

(3) Verb ⇒ adj[ {nāa, khīi, chānŋ} Verb]

From the rule in (3), we have as a result adjectives in the forms [nāa-verb], [khīi-verb], and [chānŋ-verb], respectively. Adjectives with the morpheme nāa yield a neutral or positive meaning; those with the morpheme khīi yield a neutral meaning, those with the morpheme chānŋ a neutral and positive meaning. Even though adjectivization is morphemically productive, not all verbs undergo the process due to semantic constraints and restrictions imposed by speaking and writing styles.

The morpheme nāa is used to express the meaning 'pleasant/ nice to Verb' or 'should be Verb-ed'. The morpheme khīi expresses the meaning 'to have a habit of doing something' or 'easy to do something'. The morpheme chānŋ expresses the meaning 'good at doing something, know how to do something'. Some examples are given in (4).

(4) nāa + sōncay
interest
⇒ nāa-sōncay
interesting
nāa + ?aān
read
⇒ nāa-?aān
nice to be read
nāa + yūu
live (in)
⇒ nāa-yūu
pleasant to live (in)
nāa + phiʔ-caarā?nāa
consider
⇒ nāa-phiʔ-caarā?nāa
should be considered
khīi + kluā
afraid
⇒ khīi-kluā
easy to be frightened
khīi + rōŋhāay
cry
⇒ khīi-rōŋhāay
easy to cry
khî + chûaylîa \[\Rightarrow\] khî-chûaylîa
help have a habit of helping people, like to help people
châaj + cera?caa \[\Rightarrow\] châaj-cera?caa
negotiate know how to negotiate, be good at negotiating
châaj + khît \[\Rightarrow\] châaj-khît
think know how to think, be good at thinking, be thoughtful

2.2.2.2. Nominalization of Adjectives

Attributive and predicative adjectives in Thai can both undergo nominalization. That is, they can simply combine with the nominalizing morpheme khwaam to become nouns. This morpheme distinguishes adjectives from intransitive and non-psychological transitive verbs. The nominalizing morpheme for verbs is kaan, not khwaam. (5) shows the nominalization structure of adjectives with examples.

(5) The nominalization structure
khwaam + adjective \[\Rightarrow\] noun

Examples:

khwaam + dii \[\Rightarrow\] khwaam-dii
good goodness
khwaam + nāa-bīa \[\Rightarrow\] khwaam-nāa-bīa
boring boringness
khwaam + bīa \[\Rightarrow\] khwaam-bīa
bored boredom
khwaam + khî-bīa \[\Rightarrow\] khwaam-khî-bīa
be easy to be bored being easy to be bored
khwaam + châaj-khît \[\Rightarrow\] khwaam-châaj-khît
thoughtful thoughtfulness

2.2.2.3. Adverbialization of Adjectives

One characteristic of adjectives is that they can undergo a linguistic process called adverbialization. In this process, adjectives combine with the adverbializing morpheme yâaj, yielding adverbs of manner. However there are semantic constraints in this process. Because the resulting adverbs are those of manner, not all adjectives can undergo this process. The adverbialization structure and some examples are shown in (6).

(6) The adverbialization structure:
yâaj + adjective \[\Rightarrow\] adverb of manner
Examples:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{yaanj} + \text{dii} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{yaanj-dii} \\
& \quad \text{good} \quad \text{well} \\
\text{yaanj} + \text{nâa-blâ} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{yaanj-nâa-blâ} \\
& \quad \text{boring} \quad \text{boringly} \\
\text{yaanj} + \text{khîî-koonj} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{yaanj-khîî-koonj} \\
& \quad \text{cheating} \quad \text{cheatingly}
\end{align*} \]

2.2.3. Syntactic Characteristics of Adjectives

We have seen from the previous sections that adjectives occur in two syntactic positions. Attributive adjectives follow head nouns that they modify within the scope of noun phrases, while predicative adjectives occur outside the scope of noun phrases. In addition, PAs function as predicates of constructions in which they occur.

To consider other syntactic characteristics of adjectives, we should investigate the comparison of adjectives and their modifiers. Both are presented in the following subsections.

2.2.3.1. Comparison of Adjectives

Both attributive and predicative adjectives can occur with the comparative morpheme kwâa and the superlative morpheme thîisût. In this analysis, I describe the two morphemes as degree words. (7a) shows the structure of comparative adjectives with examples.

(7)a. The comparative structure
adjective + kwâa

Examples:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{suûy} + \text{kwâa} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{suûy kwâa} \\
& \quad \text{pretty than} \quad \text{prettier than} \\
\text{rûûn} + \text{kwâa} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{rûûn kwâa} \\
& \quad \text{hot} \quad \text{hotter than} \\
\text{nâa-tîîntên} + \text{kwâa} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{nâa-tîîntên kwâa} \\
& \quad \text{exciting} \quad \text{more exciting than} \\
\text{khîî-bôn} + \text{kwâa} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{khîî-bôn kwâa} \\
& \quad \text{have a habit of} \quad \text{more complaining than} \\
\text{complaining} & \quad \text{more thoughtful than}
\end{align*} \]

(7b) shows examples of the comparative form of an adjective functioning as an AA and PA. In (7b) chaanj-khîî kwâa raw 'more thoughtful than us' is an AA phrase (AAP).
(7b. [\textsuperscript{pp} dēk [\textsuperscript{ap} châan-khît kwâa raw] khon nîi] child thoughtful than we n.cl this "This more thoughtful than us child"

The phrase châan-khît kwâa raw 'more thoughtful than us' in (7c) functions as a predicative adjective phrase (PAP). It is located outside the noun phrase dēk khon nîi 'this child'.

(7c. [\textsuperscript{s} dēk khon nîi [\textsuperscript{ap} châan-khît kwâa raw]] child n.cl this thoughtful than we "This child is more thoughtful than us"

Illustrated next is the occurrence of adjectives with the superlative morpheme thîlsût, as shown in (8a).

(8a. The superlative structure adjective + thîlsût

Examples:

\begin{align*}
{\text{khêmjàt}} & \quad + \quad \text{thîlsût} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{khêmjàt thîlsût} \quad \text{strict most} \\
{\text{náa-soncéy}} & \quad + \quad \text{thîlsût} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{náa-soncéy thîlsût} \quad \text{interesting most} \\
{\text{khîi-koöñ}} & \quad + \quad \text{thîlsût} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{khîi-koöñ thîlsût} \quad \text{cheating most} \\
{\text{chân-sànkeët}} & \quad + \quad \text{thîlsût} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{chân-sànkeët thîlsût} \quad \text{good at observing most}
\end{align*}

Examples in (8b) and (8c) show the superlative form of adjectives functioning as AA and PA, respectively.

(8b. khîi-koöñ thîlsût as an AA phrase

[\textsuperscript{pp} dēk [\textsuperscript{ap} khîi-koöñ thîlsût] khon nîi] child cheating most n.cl this "This most cheating child"

(8c. khîi-koöñ thîlsût as a PA phrase

[\textsuperscript{pp} dēk khon nîi [\textsuperscript{ap} khîi-koöñ thîlsût]] child n.cl this cheating most "This child is the most cheating"

2.2.3.2. Modifiers of Adjectives

Attributive and predicative adjectives can both be modified by intensifiers such as quantifiers and degree words. Some instances of
these elements are māk 'very', nītnōy 'a little', thiidiaw 'quite', cǐçcǐ 'really', etc. The degree words include the comparative morpheme kwāā and the superlative morpheme thīsūt, which have been illustrated with discussion in the previous section.

Shown in (9a) is an instance of the attributive adjective nārāk 'lovely, nice', modified by the intensifier māk.

(9a). [₅₃  dēk [₅₄  nārāk  māk]  khon  nī]  
child  lovely  very  n.cl  this  
"This very lovely child"

(9b) shows the intensifier māk modifying the predicative adjective nārāk 'lovely'.

(9b). [₅  dēk  khon  nī]  [₄₆  nārāk  māk]  
child  n.cl  this  lovely  very  
"This child is very lovely"

2.3. Attributive Adjectives

Attributive adjectives occur within the scope of the NP and after linking verbs. Their function is to modify head nouns in noun phrases and subjects of sentences.

Within a noun phrase, an attributive adjective co-occurs with a noun it modifies, a number, a noun classifier and a demonstrative. (10) shows the distribution of attributive adjectives in the scope of noun phrases. As attributive adjectives, they cannot follow a sequence of [number + noun classifier], [noun classifier + demonstrative], [number + noun classifier + demonstrative] or [noun classifier + demonstrative]. The misplacement of attributive adjectives does not yield the meaning as required.

(10a). Noun + Attributive Adjective + Number + Noun Classifier

[₅₆  dēk  nārāk  saām  khon]  
child  lovely  three  n.cl  
"Three lovely children"  
*[₅₆  dēk  saām  khon  nārāk]

(10b). Noun + Attributive Adjective + Noun Classifier + Demonstrative

[₅₆  dēk  nārāk  khon  nī]  
child  lovely  n.cl  this  
"This lovely child"  
*[₅₆  dēk  khon  nī  nārāk]
(10)c. Noun + Attributive Adjective + Number + Noun Classifier + Demonstrative

\[_{\text{NP}} \text{dèk nəarək səəm khon nīi}\]
child lovely three n.cl this
"These three lovely children"
\[_{\text{NP}} \text{dèk səəm khon nīi nəarək}\]

(10)d. Noun + Noun Classifier + Attributive Adjective + Noun Classifier + Demonstrative

\[_{\text{NP}} \text{səə tua too tua nīi}\]
shirt n.cl big n.cl this
"This big shirt"
\[_{\text{NP}} \text{səə tua nīi tua too}\]

(10)e. Noun + (Noun Classifier) + Attributive Adjective + Possessive marker + Possessor

\[_{\text{NP}} \text{dèk (khon) nəarək khooŋ chən}\]
child n.cl lovely of I
"My lovely child"
\[_{\text{NP}} \text{dèk khooŋ chən (khon) nəarək}\]

(10)f. Common Noun + Attributive Adjective + Comparative Marker + Pronoun/ Definite Noun + Noun Classifier + Demonstrative

\[_{\text{NP}} \text{khon caydiι kwəə raw khon nīi}\]
person kind than we n.cl this
"This person who is kinder than us"
\[_{\text{NP}} \text{khon khon nīi caydiι kwəə raw}\]

(10)g. Noun + Attributive Adjective + Superative Marker + Noun Classifier + Demonstrative

\[_{\text{NP}} \text{səə suəy thîlsət tua nīi}\]
shirt beautiful most n.cl this
"This most beautiful shirt"
\[_{\text{NP}} \text{səə tua nīi suəy thîlsət}\]

One interesting characteristics of attributive adjectives is that they do not modify a proper name and a pronoun which precede them, as shown in (11a) and (11b), respectively.

(11)a. \[_{\text{NP}} \text{sudəa}\] [Aa nəarək]
Thai name lovely
"Lovely Suda"
(11)b. * [ŋkʰ kháw] [nāārák]
    he/she/they lovely
    "Lovely him/ lovely her/ lovely them"

(11a) and (11b) are grammatical if nāārák is allowed to function as a predicative adjective, as illustrated in (11c) and (11d), respectively. Notice the meaning of the two items.

(11)c. [[ŋkʰ súdāa] [nāārák]]
    Suda lovely
    "Suda is lovely"

(11)d. [[ŋkʰ kháw] [nāārák]]
    he/she/they lovely
    "He/She is lovely"
    "They are lovely"

2.4. Predicative Adjectives

In this study, I propose that there are two types of predicative adjectives in Thai: Predicative Adjective 1 (PA 1) which only allows a noun phrase to precede it; and Predicative Adjective 2 (PA 2) which requires a complementized sentence or S' to follow it. My analysis is based on the structure of grammatical units which occur in the PA construction as well as their syntactic behavior. Presented in this section are characteristics of PAs of both types.

2.4.1. Complements of Predicative Adjectives

Predicative adjectives describe permanent states of or tell something about their subjects. That is, they describe persons, things, situations, etc. They say what persons or things are like or seem like. They give information about their subjects. The information includes quality, color, shape, size, age, temperature, distance, time and origin.

Syntactically, predicative adjectives require complements the type of which I will argue to be subjects of the constructions in which they occur. Grammatical elements which occur with these verb-like adjectives appear in the form of NP, S and S'. Most predicative adjectives allow these three to occur in the position preceding them. NP is the regular form. The S and S' forms are allowed to occur in this position only when they are focussed or emphasized.

(12a-b) show some examples of predicative adjectives which require noun phrases in the subject position immediately preceding them. Notice the meanings of the two constructions.

(12)a. [[ŋkʰ děk khon nān] [nāārák]]
    child n.cl that lovely
    "That child is lovely"
(12b. [[f² sīa tua nán] [f² too] shirt n.cl that big] 
"That shirt is big"

(12c) shows that S is not allowed to precede a predicative adjective. The construction does not convey the meaning as stated because dii 'good' requires a NP as its subject.

(12c. *[[f² khāw chūay khon con] [f² dii] he help person poor good] 
"That he helps poor people is good"

Construction (12c) will make sense only if dii 'good' functions as an adverb, meaning 'well'. Very often, adjectives and adverbs in Thai share the same form. We need to examine whether the word modifies a verb, thus functioning as an adverb, or whether it functions as a predicative adjective, similar to a verb. Thus construction (12c) will be grammatical, as shown in (12d), when dii functions as an adverb modifying the VP chūay khon con 'help poor people'. This adverb appears in two forms: simply dii (with yāŋ omitted as understood) or yāŋ-dii, with yāŋ as a morpheme marking adverb of manner. In this case dii and yāŋ-dii share the same meaning 'well'. It is thus obvious that (12d) is a sentence.

(12d. [[f² khāw chūay khon con (yāŋ-) dii] he help person poor adv: well] 
"He helps poor people well"

One way to maintain both the structure and the meaning of (12c) -- that is, to keep the word dii as a predicative adjective, not as an adverb of manner -- is to emphasize the S unit. (13) illustrates the emphatic pattern of the S form. The morpheme nā followed by a pause in this pattern serves to express emphasis. This morpheme can be omitted, but a pause will remain.

(13) CLAUSE + (nā) + PAUSE + Predicative Adjective

Following the emphatic pattern in (13), we can rearrange construction (12c), as shown in (14). Here S stands for a clause.

(14) [[f² khāw chūay khon con] nā PAUSE [f² dii]] he help person poor emp PAUSE good "That he helps poor people (emphasis) is good"

To have the unit S' in the position immediately preceding a predicative adjective causes the same problem as with the S form as illustrated above. (15a) shows that the resulting construction is not accepted if we allow S' to occur in the position preceding PA 2 dii
'good' to yield the meaning as stated.

(15a). *[[ŋ', thjį khąw chuy khon con] [ŋ dii]]
that he help person poor good
"That he helps poor people is good"

However, (15a) will turn to be fine if dii functions as an adverb of manner, meaning 'well' and modifying the VP chuy khon con 'help poor people'. In this way, dii must be part of S', not a predicative adjective. As adverbs of manner, dii and yāŋ-dii are interchangeably used. This is shown in (15b).

(15b). [ŋ', thjį khąw chuy khon con (yāŋ-)dii]
that he help person poor adv: well
"That he helps poor people well"

Construction (15a) will be grammatical with dii functioning as a predicative adjective only if the S' unit is emphasized, as shown in (15c) below. Notice that yāŋ-dii cannot be used as a predicative adjective here.

(15c). [[ŋ', thjį khąw chuy khon con] nà PAUSE [ŋ dii]]
that he help person poor emp PAUSE good
"That he helps poor people (emphasis) is good"
*"That he helps poor people well (emphasis)"
*[[ŋ', thjį khąw chuy khon con] nà PAUSE yāŋ -dii]

It can be observed that elements preceding predicative adjectives have a grammatical function like subjects because they are what predicates describe, tell about or talk about. Moreover, the combination of these elements and predicates yields complete meanings. In other words, the elements under investigation and predicates form constructions which are complete thoughts in themselves. Predicative adjectives take NP as a regular form in the position preceding them. The S and S' forms are accepted in this position only if they are emphasized. We will later demonstrate the sentencehood of these constructions, and, consequently, the subjecthood of elements both preceding and following predicative adjectives.

2.4.2. Co-occurrence of Predicative Adjectives with Temporal Verbs

Like regular verbs, some predicative adjectives allow some temporal verbs (Sookgasem 1990:64-103) to occur with them. The temporal verbs which can precede predicative adjectives are cā? 'future' tōŋ 'obligation', khoq(cā?) or ?āẗcā? 'probability' and kamaŋ 'progressive'. The temporal verbs which can follow some predicative adjectives or predicative adjective phrases are lǣw 'perfect' and dāy 'ability'. The limitation on such co-occurrence is due to the semantic property of the adjectives, particularly the evaluative and epistemic
adjectives. Shown in the following are some examples of PA 1 constructions with temporal verbs. In (16a) dìi 'good' functions as a PA 1 (which allows the NP khāw 'he' to precede it) and lxxw 'perfect', a temporal verb.

(16)a. [khāw [PA dìi lxxw]] [khun māy tōq tlan khāw]
   he good perfect you not oblig warn he
   "He has been good. You don't have to warn him"

In construction (16b), nāa-bìa 'boring' is a PA 1 and kamlāq 'progressive' a temporal verb. Both together form a predicative adjective phrase (PAP).

(16)b. [rāq nī [PA kamlāq nāa-bìa]]
   matter this progressive boring
   "This matter is being boring"

Similarly in construction (16c), chà?lāat 'wise' is a PA 1; cā? 'future' and dāqy 'ability' are temporal verbs.

(16)c. [khāw [PA cā? chà?lāat dāqy] thā khāw mīi
   he future wise ability if he have
   experience
   "He can be wise if he has experience"

Shown in (17a-b) are examples of PA 2 constructions. Here we have S' as a grammatical unit in the position following a PA 2. In construction (17a), ?aátcá 'probability' is a temporal verb and penpaydāq 'possible' a PA 2. Both form a PA phrase.

(17)a. [PA khōq penpaydāq] [s' thỳ fòn cā? tōk]
   probability possible that rain future fall
   "It is probable/ possible that it will rain" or
   "That it will rain is probable/ possible"

Construction (17b) has thùuk 'right, correct' as a PA 2 and lxxw 'perfect' as a temporal verb. Both form a PA phrase thùuk lxxw.

(17)b. [[PA thùuk lxxw] [s' thỳ khun thamaam kōt]]
   right perfect that you follow rule
   "It's been right that you follow the rule" or
   "That you follow the rule has been right"

2.4.3. Elements Following Predicative Adjectives

We have seen in the previous section that PAs permit a NP to occur preceding them in regular constructions. There are some predicative
adjectives which allow only S' to follow them. I call these adjectives 'PA 2'. This type of adjective includes epistemic adjectives and those which serve to express attitude or opinion. Following Givon (1984: 94-96), I call the latter type "evaluative adjectives". Shown below are some examples of adjectives in this group.

(18)a. Evaluative Adjectives

i. Regular adjectives
   dii 'good'
   mây dii 'not good'
   leew 'bad'
   mây leew 'not bad'
   thuûk 'right/ correct'
   phît 'wrong'
   ciç 'true'
   mây ciç 'not true'
   yûə 'terrible'
   yûam 'excellent' (slang)
   yûot 'excellent' (slang)
   yûotyûam 'excellent'

ii. Adjectivized elements (or verbs which undergo adjectivization)
   náa-tînên 'exciting'
   náa-sôncay 'interesting'
   náa-sônsân 'pitiful'
   náa-hêncay 'sympathetic'
   náa-klöa 'frightening'
   náa-bîa 'boring'
   náa-chînchom 'admirable/ should be admired' etc.

(18)b. Epistemic Adjectives
   penpaydâay 'possible'
   penpaymâydâay 'impossible'

   First let us investigate the distribution of Predicative Adjectives 2, which is our main concern. (19) shows a construction with the evaluative adjective dii 'good'. This adjective allows a NP to precede it.

(19) [H mîn rîn] nîl [H dii]
    matter this good
   "This matter is good"

(20a-b) illustrate the constructions with the epistemic adjective penpaydâay 'possible' with a NP immediately preceding it. Note that kân is a nominalizing morpheme. It always precedes a verb to form a noun.
We will now examine the syntactic characteristics of PA2. Predicative adjectives of this subtype share some characteristics with the verbs mīi 'exist', kēēt 'occur', dūumān 'seem' and praakōt 'appear' (Sookgasea 1992) in that they allow elements which they describe to occur in the position following them. The only form of these elements is S'. The evidence is shown in (21a).

(21)a. [[pa dii] [sg, thī khun chūay khon con]] good that you help person poor
   "It's good that you help poor people"

The meaning of (21a) will not hold if S' is replaced by S, as shown in (21b). Moreover, sentence (21b) is ill-formed.

(21)b. *[[pa dii] [sg khun chūay khon con]]
   good you help people poor
   "It's good that you help poor people"

Nor will the output make any sense if a NP replaces the S' element, as shown in (21c-d).

(21)c. *[[pa dii] [np khun]]
   good you
(21)d. *[[pa dii] [np khon con]]
   good person poor

The S' element cannot precede the evaluative PA 2 dii 'good' with the meaning as stated. This fact is shown in (21e).

(21)e. *[ [sg, thī khun chua ay khon con] [pa dii]]
   that you help person poor good
   "It is good that you help poor people"
   "That you help poor people is good"

Neither can the S element occur in the position preceding the PA 2 with the same meaning as that stated in (21e). Observe this fact in (21f).
(21)f. *[s khuan chu야 khon con] [ṭa dii]
you help person poor good
"It is good that you help poor people"
"That you help poor people is good"

However, the S and S' elements are allowed to precede PA 2 only if the whole construction is emphasized, as shown in the previous section. This fact is shown again in (22a-b). Notice the emphatic construction where the S and S' elements are followed by a sequence of the emphatic marker na, a pause and the PA 2 dii 'good'. Here we see that the meanings of (22a) and (22b) are the same.

(22a). *[s thi khuan chuя khon con] na PAUSE [ṭa dii]
that you help person poor emp PAUSE good
"That you help poor people (emphasis) is good"

(22b). *[s khuan chuя khon con] na PAUSE [ṭa dii]
you help person poor emp PAUSE good
"That you help poor people (emphasis) is good"

One interesting characteristics of Predicative Adjectives 2 which require S' to follow them is that they allow their modifiers or intensifiers to immediately follow them. In this manner, a construction appears with the word order as shown in (23).

(23) Predicative Adjective 2 < Modifier/ Intensifier < S'

An example of this construction is illustrated in (24). Here the adverb of degree thiidiaw 'quite' cannot occur after the S' element. Nor can it (thiidiaw) occur as part of the S'; otherwise, the resulting output will be ungrammatical. It makes no sense to have thiidiaw 'quite' modify the VP chuя khon con 'help poor people'.

(24) *[ṭa dii thiidiaw] [s thi khuan chuя khon con]
good quite that you help person poor
"It is quite good that you help poor people"

*[ṭa dii] [s thi khuan chuя khon con] thiidiaw]
*[ṭa dii] [s thi khuan chuя khon con thiidiaw]]

To sum up, the S' element follows either a PA 2 or a PA 2 phrase. After we have considered the characteristics of predicative adjectives, especially their syntactic behaviour and meanings, we will argue in the following section that the PA 2 constructions are sentences, not verb phrases.

2.4.4. Sentencehood of the Predicative-Adjectives 2 Constructions

Following the traditional grammarians who define the linguistic
term "sentence" as a grammatical construction which contains a subject
plus predicate and expresses a complete thought, we will argue that a
predicative-adjective construction in Thai is a sentence, not a predicate
phrase.

Let us first consider sentence (25a) below. Here the PA 2
constituent dīi combines with the S' element following it, yielding a
grammatical construction with a complete thought or a complete meaning.
This adjective requires an S' element, and nothing else, to be its
complement. Neither the PA 2 dīi alone nor the S' thī khun chūay khon
con alone can yield a complete thought because it is not the largest
possible syntactic construction nor the largest possible syntactic unit.
However, the combination of the PA 2 dīi and the S' element does yield
a complete thought or meaning, which is characteristic of a sentence.

(25)a. [[PA dīi] [S' thī khun chūay khon con]]

"It's good that you help person poor"

If the expletive man were used in (25a), it would be coreferential
with the S' element, as illustrated in (25b). Also notice that (25a) and
(25b) have the same meaning. This evidence shows that one characteristic
of the expletive man in Thai is optionality.

(25)b. [[NP man] PA dīi] [S' thī khun chūay
expletive good that you help
khon con
]

"It's good that you help poor people"

In (26a) we have a natural event in the S' element as the
complement of the PA 2 dīi.

(26)a. [[PA dīi] [S' thī fŏn tŏk]]

"It's good that the rain fell (= it rained)" or
"That the rain fell (= it rained) was good"

(26a) is complete in meaning without any nominal in the position
preceding the PA 2 dīi. This construction is ill-formed if a nominal is
inserted into this particular position. (26b) shows that the output is
ill-formed when a NP is inserted before the PA 2 dīi.

(26)b. *[[NP fŏn] PA dīi] [S' thī fŏn tŏk]]

rain good that rain fall

*[[NP kaan-tŏk] PA dīi] [S' thī fŏn tŏk]]

falling good that rain fall

(26c) is also incorrect when pronouns are inserted in the position
preceding the PA 2 dii 'good'.

(26)c. *[[NP khāw/chán/khun] [PA dii] [S' thī fūn tok]]
he I you good that rain fall

The insertion of the NP ?aakaḥt 'weather' in the position preceding
dii still results in an ill-formed sentence because this NP is not
coreferential with the event expressed by the S'element. This is shown
in (26d).

(26)d. *[[NP ?aakaḥt] [PA dii] [S' thī fūn tok]]
weather good that rain fall

However, the use of the expletive man 'it' in this position is
possible and optional even though its use in this particular construction
sounds somewhat awkward to some Thai native speakers, as shown in (26e).
The preference of most Thai native speakers seems to be construction
(26a) rather than (26e). This shows that not all constructions are
equally acceptable with the expletive man although the use of this
element is possible.

(26e) ?[[NP man] [PA dii] [S' thī fūn tok]]
'expletive good that rain fall'
"It's good that the rain fell (= it rained)"

To argue for the sentencehood of the construction in (26a) [dii
thī fūn tok], we need to consider its semantic representation which
reveals that the meaning of a sentence is decomposable into component
propositions. A proposition consists of a predicate and its arguments.
Both are semantic entities. According to Langacker (1972:95-96),
predicates are typically manifested in surface structure by verbs or
adjectives, while nominals normally manifest arguments. Here we have the
adjective dii 'good' as a predicate and the nominal in the S' form thī
fūn tok 'that the rain fell' as its argument. The function of this PA
2 is to evaluate its S' argument.

(27a) shows the propositional structure of the construction in
(27a). Here the whole S' is the argument of the PA 2 dii. The S'
argument itself is a proposition which consists of the predicate tok
'fall' and the argument fon 'rain'. Notice that the expletive man is
not an argument of the predicate dii 'good'.

(27)a. 

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<td>rain</td>
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Next the construction in (27b) can be described by means of a propositional structure, as shown in (27c).

(27)b. [[m man] [dìi lìxìw] [thì khun chuày expletive good perfect that you help khon con] ]

person poor

"It's been good that you helped poor people"

Notice that the expletive man does not exist as part of the propositional structure in (27c) because, as mentioned before, it is coreferential with the S' thì khun chuày khon con. Here the temporal verb lìxìw has a wider scope than the PA 2 dìi.

(27)c. 

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<td>lìxìw</td>
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<td>person</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
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"It's been good that you helped poor people"
The propositional structures of the dii constructions as illustrated above strongly support the argument that this particular construction is, in fact, a sentence, not a predicate or an adjective phrase.

2.4.5. Subjecthood of Elements Following Predicative Adjectives

Having argued that a predicative adjective construction is a sentence, not a phrase, I will further argue that an element following a predicative adjective or a predicative adjective phrase is actually a subject, not an object or a modifier, of a sentence in which it occurs. The arguments are presented in the following subsections.

2.4.5.1. The Use of Question and Answer

One way to argue that an element after a predicative adjective is the subject of a sentence is to ask a question with the question word ?à?ray 'what'. Notice that this question word occurs in the position of a preverbal subject only. (28a) shows a dialogue in which A expresses his attitude toward B's coming to see him. B does not hear his words well, so she asks him (A) a question. In this situation, A expresses his attitude without emphasis. That is why the PA 2 dii 'good' precedes its S' complement. When B asks A, she uses the subject-predicative adjective pattern. The position of the question word ?à?ray 'what' in the interrogative sentence shows that what A says as expressed in the S' form functions as a subject of the sentence. Finally, A answers. He repeats his assertion. Here we see that the S' form occurs in the emphatic pattern. That is, the S' subject precedes the PA 2 dii with the emphatic morpheme na and a pause located between the two units.

(28a). A: [S [Pa dii] [S', thî khun maa]]
   "It's good that you come"

   B: [S [Sp ?à?ray] [Pa dii]]
   "What is good?"

   A: [S [S', thî khun maa] nà PAUSE [Pa dii]]
   "That you come (emphasis) is good"

2.4.5.2. Advancement of Predicative Adjective 2 Phrases

One characteristic of a subject, according to Perlmutter and Postal (1974) as cited by Keenan (1972:319) is that a subject can be advanced. I will show in this section that a PA 2 or PA 2 phrases can also be advanced or topicalized.
To illustrate the advancement of a PA 2, I will first show the topicalization of a NP subject of a regular sentence. As we know, an element which is topicalized is emphasized or focussed. Notice the emphatic morpheme nà and the pause which follow it in the sentence structure. This is shown in (29a-c).

(29)a. No topicalization

\[
S [np \text{ phûucâtkaan}] [vp \text{ thamqaan nàk}] \\
\text{manager work hard}
\]

"The manager works hard"

(29)b. Topicalization

\[
S [np \text{ phûucâtkaan}] \text{ nà PAUSE [vp thamqaan nàk]} \\
\text{manager emp PAUSE work hard}
\]

"It is the manager who works hard"

Without the emphatic morpheme nà and a pause between the topicalized NP and a VP, the resulting sentence does not yield an emphatic meaning, as shown in (29c).

(29)c. \[
S [np \text{ phûucâtkaan}] [np \text{ thamqaan nàk}] \\
\text{manager work hard}
\]

"The manager works hard"

NOT "It is the manager who works hard"

(30a-b) shows topicalization of the PA 1 phrase nâ-klua mâak 'very frightening'. This requires that a NP subject precede it.

(30)a. No Topicalization

\[
S [np \text{ phxândin wây}] [pa \text{ nâ-klua mâak}] \\
\text{earthquake frightening much}
\]

"The earthquake is very frightening"

(30)b. Topicalization

\[
S [np \text{ phxândin wây}] \text{ nà PAUSE [pa nâ-klua mâak]} \\
\text{earthquake emp PAUSE frightening much}
\]

"It is the earthquake that is very frightening"

The meaning of (30b) will not hold if the emphatic morpheme nà and a pause after the NP phxândin wây 'earthquake' do not occur. This is illustrated in (30c).
(30c). \text{[s] [\text{phx\textendash}ndin w\textendash}y] [\text{p}a \text{n\textendash}klu\textendash} m\textendash}k]}\text{ earthquake frightening very}  

"The earthquake is very frightening"  
NOT "It is the earthquake that is very frightening"

Illustrated in (31a-c) is the advancement or topicalization of the S' element which follows a predicative adjective. Its syntactic behaviour is similar to that of the intransitive verb \text{tham\textendash}aan 'work' and the PA 2 \text{n\textendash}klu\textendash} 'frightening', as shown above.

(31a). No topicalization  
\text{[s] [\text{p}a \text{penpay\textendash}ay]} [\text{s'} th\textendash} f\textendash}n c\textendash}t\textendash}k]}\text{ possible that rain future fall}  
"It is possible that it will rain"

(31b) is a result of topicalization of the S' \text{th\textendash} f\textendash}n c\textendash}t\textendash}k 'that it will rain' in (31a).

(31b). Topicalization  
\text{[s} [s' th\textendash} f\textendash}n c\textendash}t\textendash}k] n\textendash} \text{PAUSE [p}a \text{penpay\textendash}ay]}\text{ that rain fut fall emp PAUSE possible}  
"That it will rain (emphasis) is possible"

The emphatic meaning in (31b) will not hold if the sentence does not follow the topicalization pattern, as shown in (31c).

(31c). \text{*[s} [\text{s'} th\textendash} f\textendash}n c\textendash}t\textendash}k] [\text{p}a \text{penpay\textendash}ay]}\text{ "That it will rain (emphasis) is possible"}

The evidence above thus supports the argument that the S' element after a PA 2 is actually a subject, not an object, of the sentence in which it occurs.

2.4.5.3. Independent Existence of Elements Following Predicative Adjectives

According to Keenan (1976:312-313), the entity that a basic subject (b-subject) refers to exists independently of the action or property expressed by the predicate. This is less true for non-subjects. Thus in sentence (32)

(32) A student wrote a poem

the existence of the poem is not independent of the act of writing, whereas the existence of the student is.

Turning to a sentence with a PA 2 in Thai, we see in (33) that the
event that you tell the truth, which appears in the form of S' (or which S' refers to), does exist independently of the evaluation that is expressed by the predicate dīi.

\[(33) \begin{array}{l}
\text{[s} [\text{dīi} \text{] [s', thī khun bōk khwaam-cīl]}} \\
\quad \text{good that you tell truth}
\end{array}\]

"That you tell the truth is good" or
"It is good that you tell the truth"

2.4.5.4. Dummy Subject in Predicative Adjective 2 Constructions

According to Li and Thompson (1976:467), the existence of a dummy subject in a language indicates that that language is of the subject-predicate type, not the topic-comment type. A dummy or empty subject category occurs in some languages such as it and there in English, il and ce in French and es in German. These dummy subjects are obligatory under certain circumstances.

In Thai the word man is used as a dummy subject. This subject is optionally used in a predicative-adjective 2 construction, as shown in some examples above and in example (34a) below. Notice that (34a) and (34b) have the same meaning. In this analysis, man is coreferential with the S' element which follows a PA 2.

\[(34a) \begin{array}{l}
\text{[s} [\text{man}_{i} \text{] [\text{dīi} \text{] [s', thī khun chūay khon con]_{i}]}} \\
\quad \text{expletive good } that \text{ you help person poor}
\end{array}\]

"It is good that you help poor people" or
"That you help poor people is good"

\[(34b) \begin{array}{l}
\text{[s} [\text{dīi} \text{] [s', thī khun chūay khon con]}
\end{array}\]

"It is good that you help poor people" or
"That you help poor people is good"

Without the S' element, the dummy subject man does not yield any meaning. It cannot occur in a sentence in isolation without the S' element, as shown in (34c); otherwise, the resulting string cannot be called a sentence since it does not contain a complete meaning.

\[(34c) \begin{array}{l}
*\text{[s} [\text{man}_{i} \text{] [\text{dīi}]]}
\end{array}\]

\#/? "It is good"

Man is a hyponym for the expletive man and the third person pronoun man. The expletive man requires that its coreference occur in the same sentence. However, the third person pronoun man requires that its coreference or antecedent occur in a preceding clause or sentence, not in the same clause or sentence in which it occurs. Observe this fact in (35), where the pronoun man is coreferential with the noun phrase nāqšī
lêm nîi 'this book’ in the preceding sentence.

(35)  A: [S [næŋ sîl lêm nîi]-i pen yâŋjây]
       book n.cl this be how
       "How is this book?"

       B: [S [IP man]-i [PA diî]]
           it
           [S [IP man]-i [PA nâ-sôncay]]
           it interesting
       "It (the book) is good. It is interesting"

To sum up, there exists a dummy subject in Thai in the form of expletive man. But this kind of subject is optionally used in a PA 2 sentence. This evidence supports the argument that Thai is a subject-predicate language. And since the expletive man is optional, it is very reasonable to treat the S’ element in such a sentence as a post-predicate subject.

2.4.5.5. Elements Following Predicative Adjectives 2 as Controllers of Coreferential Deletions

Keenan (1976:315) proposes that basic subjects are among the possible controllers of coreferential deletions and pronominalizations. His examples are given in (36a-b).

(36) a. John-i talked to Bill-j for awhile and then he-i,j
       left.
   b. John-i talked to Bill-j for awhile and then 0-i,tj
       left.

   Now let us consider the S’ element under investigation. (37a-b) show that the S’ element which follows the PA 2 nāa-wi?tok 'worrying' controls a coreferential deletion in a clause which immediately follows it.

(37)a. [S [PA nāa-wi?tok] [S, thî coon khâa tamruât
       worrying that thief kill policeman
       bóybôy]-i txx [S, thî coon khâa tamruât
       often but that thief kill policeman
       bóybôy]-i kôô mâyây thamhây tamruât
       often clause marker not make policeman
       thûk khon klua]}
       every n.cl frightened
       'That thieves often kill policemen is frightening, but
       it (= that thieves often kill policemen) does not make
every policeman frightened'
Sentence (37b) shows a deletion of the S' in the txx 'but' clause. Here, we find that the S' element in the first clause controls the deleted element. The whole sentence is still grammatical with the complete meaning.

(37)b. [ŋ [p nā-wî?tôk] [ŋ, thî coon khâa tamruât worrying . that, thief kill policeman bôybôy]i txx [0]i,t,j kÔÔ maydây often but clause marker not thamhây tamruât thûk khon klual] make policeman every n.cl frightened

"That thieves often kill policemen is worrying, but it (= that thieves often kill policeman) does not make every policeman frightened"

Again the evidence above shows that the S' element which follows a PA 2 phrase is the subject of a sentence in which it occurs.

2.4.5.6. Semantic Roles of Elements Following Predicative Adjectives 2

The functions of syntactic elements in sentences such as subject, direct object, indirect object and other oblique complements correspond to various semantic roles. While verbs subcategorize for complements, predicates define a set of specific roles, or semantic roles. "Semantic role" refers to the specific roles imposed on NPs by a given predicate. Linguists use different terms for the same or similar semantic roles. While Givon (1984:126-134) uses the terms Agent, Dative, Patient, Instrumental and Benefactive, Andrew (1985:67-70) uses the terms Agent, Patient (rather than Dative), Theme (rather than Patient), Instrumental and Recipient/Experiencer (rather than Benefactive).

Following Givon's (1984:139-140) hierarchy of access to subject and Andrew's (1985:67-70) semantic roles, I propose the hierarchy of access to subject in Thai as shown in (38). The definitions for the necessary terms used are somewhat adapted as follows.

"Agent" for an actor or a participant who does or causes something, possibly intentionally.

"Patient" for a conscious participant which the verb characterizes as having something happen to it, as being affected by what happen to it.

"Experiencer" for a participant who is characterized as aware of something or who perceives experience.

"Theme" for a participant which is characterized as being in a state or position, or as changing its state or position. He/it need not be acted upon by anything.

"Instrumental" for a nonliving participant that the Agent uses to act on the Patient.

"Locative" for a location of a participant, not the event or state as a whole.
(38) Agent > Patient > Experiencer > Theme/Instrumental > Locative

The subject hierarchy in (38) reads:

a. If the simple clause has an Agent argument, it will be the subject.

b. If the simple clause has no Agent but has a Patient argument, it will be the subject.

c. If the simple clause has no Agent nor Patient but has an Experiencer argument, it will be the subject.

d. If the simple clause has no Agent, no Patient and no Experiencer but has a Theme argument, it will be the subject.

or

If the simple clause has no Agent, no Patient and no Experiencer but has an Instrumental argument, it will be the subject.

e. If the simple clause has no Agent, no Experiencer, neither Patient nor Instrumental, but has a Locative argument, it will be the subject.

Predicates can be either verbs or adjectives. One predicate can contain one or more than one argument. For an argument to function as the subject of a sentence, we will follow the subject hierarchy, as shown above. (39a-d) illustrate the subjecthood of arguments.

(39)a. The Agent coon 'thief' is the subject.

\[\_{\text{coon}} \quad \text{khâa \ tamrùat \ duûay \ râ?bE\text{Et}}\]

"A thief killed a policeman with a bomb"

(39)b. The Patient tamrùat 'police' is the subject.

\[\_{\text{tamrùat}} \quad \text{thùûk \ khâa \ duûay \ râ?bE\text{Et}}\]

"A policeman was killed with a bomb"

(39)c. The Experiencer tamrùat 'police' is the subject.

\[\_{\text{tamrùat}} \quad \text{hèn \ coon} / \ râ?bE\text{Et}}\]

"A policeman sees a thief"

(39)d. The Instrumental râ?bE\text{Et} 'bomb' is the subject.

\[\_{\text{râ?bE\text{Et}}} \quad \text{thlamlaay \ sà?nàâmbin}\]

"A bomb destroyed the airport"

(39)e. The Theme sà?nàâmbin 'airport' is the subject.

\[\_{\text{sà?nàâmbin}} \quad \text{thùûk \ thlamlaay}\]

"The airport was destroyed by a bomb"
(39)f. The Locative prà?theêñtthay 'Thailand' is the subject.
[prà?theêñtthay suáy]
'Thailand-Loc beautiful
"Thailand is beautiful"

In the case of a sentence with an intransitive verb or a verb-like adjective, there is one predicate and one argument. It is this very argument which must function as the subject of the sentence, as illustrated in (40a-b). (40a) is an example of a sentence with the predicative adjective phít 'incorrect', which requires a NP subject. The semantic role of the argument which functions as a subject of this sentence is Theme.

(40)a. [s [PP khamtOdp khOÔ níí] [PA phít]]
  [answer n.çl this]-T incorrect
  "This answer is incorrect"

In sentence (40b), we have the PA 2 dîì 'good' with S' as its post-predicate subject. In terms of semantic role, I analyze the S' element thî fön tòk 'that it rained' as the Theme of its predicate dîì.

(40)b. [s [PA dîì] [s' thî fön tòk]]
  [good [that rain fall]-Th
  "It's good that the rain fell (=it rained)"

We have already seen that a sentence must contain a subject and a predicate to make a complete thought. In case there is more than one nominal in a sentence, the subject hierarchy will select one to be a subject of the sentence. This hierarchy supports my argument that the S' element following a PA 2 in Thai is the subject, not a direct object or a modifier, of the sentence in which it occurs.

3. Conclusion

This paper has presented an analysis of adjectives, using Crystal's (1985) definition of "Adjective". Having analyzed what are called adjectives in terms of form and meaning, morphological, syntactic and semantic characteristics as well as distribution, we have found that there are two types of adjectives: attributive and predicative. Predicative adjectives (PA) can be further classified into two subtypes PA1 and PA2. PA1 elements subcategorize for subjects in the position immediately preceding them. In contrast, PA2 elements require that their subjects be in the form of S' and that the subjects follow them. To argue that there are two types of PA in Thai, I present tests for sentencehood of constructions in which PA elements occur. The NPs preceding PA1 elements and the complementized sentences (S') following PA2 elements are finally shown by linguistic criteria to be subjects of the sentences in which they occur.
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