



A Contrastive Study of English and Thai Compounding and Lexical Blending

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A Contrastive Study of English and Thai Compounding and Lexical Blending.

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UNIVERSITÉ LUMIÈRE LYON 2

École doctorale : 3LA – LETTRES, LANGUES, LINGUISTIQUE ET
SCIENCES DU LANGUAGE, ARTS

Étude Contrastive Anglais- Thaï des Procédés de Composition et d'Amalgamation Lexicale

Parichart CHARERNWIWATTHANASRI

Doctorat de Lexicologie et Terminologie Multilingues et Traduction

Sous la direction de Vincent RENNER et Sombat KHRUATHONG

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Jury

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Doctorate of Multilingual Lexicology and Terminology
and Translation

Under the supervision of Vincent RENNÉ and Sombat KHRUATHONG

Presented and publicly defended on 24 November 2022

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RÉSUMÉ

Cette thèse vise à étudier les composés et amalgames lexicaux dans les langues anglaise et thaïlandaise afin d'examiner dans une perspective contrastive et croisée deux ensembles de composés nominaux et deux ensembles d'amalgames lexicaux. Cette thèse est composée de 10 chapitres décrits comme suit.

Chapitre 1 Introduction

Le chapitre 1 décrit la conception et les procédures de l'étude. Il est divisé en trois sections : la justification de l'étude, l'objectif de l'étude, et la méthodologie de recherche, la collecte et l'analyse des données.

L'objectif de cette thèse est de réaliser une analyse comparative des procédés de composition et d'amalgamation lexicale dans les langues thaïlandaise et anglaise. Dans cette étude, les données des deux langues ont été collectées manuellement à partir de dictionnaires de mots nouveaux. Il y a quatre ensembles de données :

(1) 333 noms composés thaïlandais ont été recueillis dans les trois volumes du Royal Thai Dictionary of New Words, un dictionnaire thaï standard publié par le Bureau de la Société royale. Les trois volumes du Royal Thai Dictionary of New Words ont été publiés respectivement en 2007, 2009 et 2011, afin de recueillir les nouveaux mots et les nouveaux sens du thaï actuel.

(2) 245 noms composés anglais ont été collectés à partir de l'Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW) publié en 1998 (Knowles and Elliott, 1997). L'ODNW couvre les mots nouveaux qui ont fait l'actualité au cours de la décennie et demie comprise entre le début des années 1980 et le milieu des années 1990.

(3) 37 amalgames lexicaux thaïlandais (sur 37. 104 mots) ont été collectés manuellement à partir des trois volumes du Royal Institute Dictionary of New words, publiés en 2007, 2009 et 2011, et du Royal Institute Dictionary of Coined Words (Neologisms), une version en ligne, publiée en 2016 par l'Office of the Royal Society qui est responsable du Royal Thai Dictionary (c'est-à-dire le dictionnaire officiel de la Thaïlande) disponible en ligne depuis 2019. Nous avons initialement l'intention d'utiliser uniquement les trois volumes du Royal Thai Dictionary of New words pour la collecte des données, comme pour

les composés nominaux thaïlandais, mais seulement deux amalgames furent trouvés, ce qui n'était pas adéquat pour un aperçu de ce phénomène morphologique en thaï contemporain.

(4) 100 amalgames lexicaux anglais ont été collectés manuellement à partir de trois dictionnaires différents : 1) l'Oxford Dictionary of New Words (Knowles and Elliott, 1998), 2) *20th-century words : the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years* (Ayto, 1999), et 3) l'Oxford English Dictionary (OED). Nous avons de même initialement l'intention de collecter uniquement les amalgames lexicaux de l'Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW), qui est la source des composés nominaux anglais de notre corpus ; cependant, le nombre d'unités obtenues était insuffisant. Par conséquent, nous avons consulté les ouvrages *20th-century words : the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years* (Ayto, 1999), et *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED) pour trouver davantage de amalgames lexicaux apparus entre la fin du 20^{ème} siècle et le début du 21^{ème} (1990-2010).

Pour l'analyse des données, nous nous sommes focalisée sur deux aspects des composés et des amalgames lexicaux dans les langues thaï et anglaise :

- 1) d'abord la classification formelle,
- 2) puis les caractéristiques sémantiques de ces unités.

Deux ensembles de données sur les noms composés en thaï et en anglais ont été analysés pour examiner le nombre et les structures des éléments attestés dans les noms composés, la typologie sémantique des composés (au premier chef, la division entre composés coordinatifs et composés subordonatifs), leur fonctionnement en termes de tête sémantique et les décalages métaphonymiques qui peuvent être détectés (c'est-à-dire les différents degrés d'opacification, en distinguant composés littéraux et composés figuratifs). Les résultats dans les deux langues ont été examinés afin de déterminer les similitudes et les différences entre les différents composés nominaux. Deux ensembles de données sur les amalgames lexicaux en thaï et en anglais ont de même été analysés afin de déterminer les catégories lexicales entrant en jeu dans le phénomène d'amalgamation, les différents types de combinaisons de catégories lexicales, les différents modèles d'accourcissement lexical, les différents types de chevauchement de segments et de troncation phonologique, ainsi que les différents types de centricité sémantique (c'est-à-dire la localisation de la tête sémantique) et les décalages métaphonymiques. Tout comme les ensembles de données sur les composés

nominaux, les résultats de l'analyse des amalgames lexicaux dans les deux langues ont été comparés afin d'examiner les similitudes et les différences.

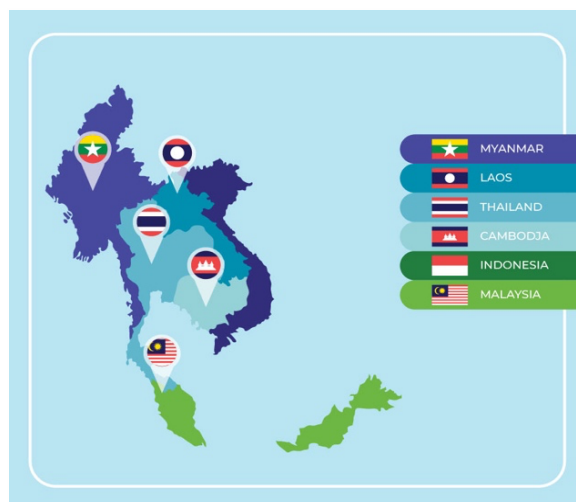
À la fin de l'étude, les composés et les amalgames lexicaux de chaque langue ont été étudiés d'un point de vue onomasiologique et concurrentiel.

Chapitre 2 Introduction à la langue thaïe

Le chapitre 2 présente la langue thaïe et ses principales caractéristiques linguistiques qui sont nécessaires à la présente étude en tant qu'informations de base notamment pour les lecteurs non thaïs, ainsi que les fondements des procédés morphologiques de la composition nominale et de l'amalgamation lexicale en thaï.

Le Royaume de Thaïlande est le 50ème plus grand pays du monde, et est divisé en 77 provinces politiques, Bangkok faisant office de capitale du pays (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2017). La Thaïlande est située au centre de l'Asie du Sud-Est, et est bordée par le Myanmar, la mer d'Andaman, la République démocratique populaire lao, le Cambodge, la Malaisie et le golfe de Thaïlande, comme le montre la figure 1.

Figure 1 La Thaïlande et ses voisins



En Thaïlande, le thaï standard est la langue standard au niveau national, et il est accepté à l'échelle nationale comme langue officielle, lingua franca locale, langue d'enseignement, langue des matières scolaires, langue religieuse et langue littéraire (Prasithrathsint, 2005 : 51). Le thaï ne s'écrit pas en lettres romaines comme l'anglais. Les mots et les phrases thaïs

sont écrits dans leur propre alphabet (par exemple, ก ข ค ง จ ฉ ช). Il existe 80 symboles dans le système d'écriture thaïlandais. Ils sont répartis en 44 consonnes, 32 voyelles et 4 tons, comme illustré sur le clavier de l'ordinateur dans la figure 2.

Figure 2 le clavier de l'ordinateur en thaï



Source : www.apple.com

Dans l'écriture thaïlandaise, les caractères sont placés horizontalement, de gauche à droite, pour former des syllabes, puis des mots et enfin des phrases. Les graphèmes voyelles peuvent être placés au-dessus, au-dessous, avant ou après les consonnes (par exemple, ปี /pi:/ "année", ปู /pu:/ "crabe", ปา /pa:/ "jeter" et เท /the:/ "verser"). Les phrases sont écrites sans espace entre les mots (par exemple, ดิฉันเป็นคนไทย /dì chǎn pen kon t'hai/ "Je suis thaïlandaise.").

Les principales caractéristiques de la langue thaïe sont résumées comme suit :

1. Le thaï est une langue isolante. La plupart des unités lexicales thaïes originales sont monosyllabiques, et un pourcentage élevé de mots polysyllabiques provient d'emprunts étrangers, notamment les langues indiennes classiques, le pali et le sanskrit dans un premier temps, puis des emprunts à l'anglais.

2. Le thaï est une langue tonale. Il existe cinq tons dans le thaï standard : le ton moyen (ā), le ton grave (à), le ton descendant (â), le ton aigu (á) et le ton montant (ǎ), qui sont représentés dans le système de transcription par un accent sur la première voyelle de la syllabe. Le symbole tonal est placé au-dessus de la lettre du mot, comme dans le mot บ้าน

/bâ:n/ "une maison". Chaque syllabe a un ton, et cela affecte le sens des mots, surtout dans les mots d'une syllabe comme le montre l'exemple ci-dessous.

Tonalité	Tonalité moyenne	Tonalité grave	Tonalité descendante	Tonalité haut	Tonalité montante
Marque de tonalité	ā	à	â	á	ǎ
Exemple thaïlandais	กา khā: (à venir)	กา khà: (un galanga)	กา khâ: (un esclave)	กา khá: (à vendre)	กา khǎ: (des jambes)

3. Au niveau de la syllabe, il y a au moins trois éléments phonologiques : une attaque, un noyau et un ton. Les formes des syllabes thaïes peuvent être résumées comme suit (Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom, 2009) :

C1 (C2) V^T (C3)

C1 = toute consonne

C2 = /w/, /l/, /r/

V = toute voyelle

T = Tonalité

C3 = /p/, /t/, /k/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /j/, /w/

4. Le thaï est une langue classificatrice, qui utilise différents classificateurs pour compter différents types d'objets. En thaï, les classificateurs sont placés après les chiffres. Ils sont une composante obligatoire des phrases nominales contenant des chiffres. Par exemple, /tua/ est utilisé pour compter les animaux, comme indiqué dans l'exemple.

ฉันเลี้ยงปลาสามตัว /tɕʰǎn.lian.plā:.sǎ:m.tua/				
/tɕʰǎn/	/lian/	/plā:/	/sǎ:m/	/tua/
Je	alimenter	des poissons	trois	CLS
J'ai trois poissons.				

5. Le thaï est une langue de type Sujet-Verbe-Objet dans laquelle les catégories grammaticales telles que le nombre, le cas, le temps, l'aspect et le mode ne sont pas marquées par une flexion morphologique ; les marquages sont implicites, et leur identification dépend des environnements syntaxiques.

6. En termes de processus de formation des mots, comme en anglais, l'affixation, la reduplication, la composition, l'amalgamation lexicale, la troncation et l'acronymie sont tous utilisés pour construire de nouveaux mots. L'emprunt et le renversement structurel sont courants en thaï, comme dans d'autres langues.

Chapitre 3 Les composés nominaux en thaï

Le chapitre 3 décrit la structure des composés nominaux en thaï. L'analyse se base sur 333 noms composés recueillis dans les trois volumes du Royal Thai Dictionary of New Words. Tous les noms composés ont été sélectionnés manuellement, et ils ont été analysés afin de présenter une image détaillée de leurs principales caractéristiques formelles et sémantiques. Le processus de composition est très productif en thaï. Dans cette étude, la composition nominale en thaï est définie comme un processus de formation de mots qui se compose généralement d'au moins deux constituants. Dans cette étude, les noms composés qui ont été recueillis sont constitués d'au moins deux lexèmes de catégories lexicales différentes, mais l'unité résultante est un nom. Le nombre d'éléments dans les composés va de deux à cinq éléments lexémiques, et les structures des noms composés sont variées ; nous avons relevé jusqu'à 36 modèles provenant d'une variété de catégories lexicales différentes, dont les cinq principales sont [Nom-Nom], [Nom-Adjectif], [Nom-Verbe], [Nom-Nom-Nom] et [Nom-Verbe-Nom]. Le résumé de la classification formelle des composés nominaux thaïlandais est illustré ci-dessous.

Tableau 1 Résumé de la classification formelle des composés nominaux thaïlandais

Classification formelle des composés nominaux en anglais						
Nombre d'éléments			Mots sources	Glossaire	Signification	%
	deux éléments	/lû:kmá:j/	/lû:k/ + /má:j/	des descendants – un arbre	dentelle	66,67
	trois éléments	/rá:nsàdùaksú:/	/rá:n/+sàdùak/+sú:/	un magasin- pratique – acheter	un commerce	27,63

	quatre éléments	/bâ:npà:mũaŋ thũm/	/bâ:n/ + /pâ:/ + /mũaŋ/ + /thũm/	une maison-une forêt -cité-non civilisée	un pays non- développé	5,40
	cinq éléments	/k h â :ná:mró : . ná:mchā:/	/khâ/ + [ná:mró:n] + [ná:mchā :]	un coût-l'eau- chaude- l'eau - du thé	de l'argent du thé / pot-de- vin	0,30
	Total					100%
5 combinaisons lexicales majeures des entrées	N-N	/thũŋthálē:/	/thũŋ/ + /thálē:/	un sac – la mer	un duffle bag	36,63
	N-ADJ	/khō:ŋkàw/	/khō:ŋ/ + /kàw/	un truc- vieux	une antiquité	15,01
	V-N	/kòʔòk/	/kò/ + /ʔòk/	s'accrocher - la poitrine	une robe sans bretelles	10,81
	N-N-N	/ŋēnkōnthũŋ/	/ŋēn/ + /kōn/ +/ thũŋ/	l'argent- un bas - un sac	un dollar de fond	9
	N-V-N	/jā:thā:lép/	/jā:/ + /thā:/ + /lép/	un médicament - peindre -les ongles	un vernis à ongles	9
	Total					80,45

Du point de vue sémantique, les composés nominaux thaïlandais sont classés en deux catégories principales, à savoir les composés subordonnés et les composés coordonnés. La plupart des composés nominaux thaïlandais sont subordonnés, tandis que seuls quelques-uns d'entre eux sont des composés de type coordonné. La position de la tête se trouve canoniquement à gauche, comme en français. Très peu d'entre eux ont la tête à droite. Le nombre de composés sémantiquement transparents est élevé, mais il est intéressant de noter que dans de nombreux noms composés, l'un des éléments est utilisé de manière métaphorique ou métonymique tandis que l'autre reste littéral ; en outre, le nombre de noms composés opaques, dans lesquels les deux éléments ne sont pas interprétés littéralement, est remarquablement élevé. Le résumé de la classification sémantique des noms composés thaïlandais est illustré ci-dessous.

Tableau 2 Résumé de la classification sémantique des composés nominaux thaïlandais

Classification formelle des composés nominaux en thaï						
Type de composé			Mots sources	Glose	Signification	%
	Subordonatif	/khǒnmên/	/ k h ǒ n / + /mên/	un poil - un porc-épic	une plume d'oie	97,89
	Coordinatif	/kòtbàtkòtmă:j/	/kòtbàt/ + /kòtmă:j/	une charte - une loi	une charte et une loi	2,11
	Total					100%
Nombre de têtes du composé nominal thaïlandais	une tête	/sàná:m/	/sà/ + /ná:m/	un canal - l'eau	une piscine	94,89
	deux têtes	/kòtbàtkòtmă:j/	/ k ò t b à t / + /kòtmă:j/	une charte – une loi	une charte et un loi	2,11
	sans tête	/kǝʔòk/	/kǝ/ + /ʔòk/	s'accrocher – la poitrine	une robe sans bretelles	3
	Total					100%
Position de la tête du composé nominal thaïlandais	gauche	/ŋā:chá:ŋ/	/ ŋ ā : / + /chá:ŋ/	un travail – un éléphant	un méga-projet	92,79
	droite	/kâlâmdô:k/	/ k à l à m / + /dô:k/	un chou – une fleur	un chou-fleur	1,80
	Total					94,89 %
Déplacements métafthonymiques des composés nominaux thaïlandais	transparence des deux éléments	/thǔŋnō:n/	/ t h ǔ ŋ / + /nō:n/	un sac - dormir	un sac de couchage	62,47
	transparence de l'élément tête	/wājdik/	/wāj/ + /dik/	l'âge - tard dans la nuit	une personne âgée	12,61

transparence de l'élément non tête	/khî:lép/	/khî:/ + /lép/	un excrément - un ongle	de la saleté sur les ongles	10,21
opacité des deux éléments du composé	/dò:kmá:jlèk/	/dò:kmá:j/ + lèk/	un fleur – une acier	une femme qui est forte et patiente pour gérer et affronter avec la difficulté	11,41
Total					100%

Chapitre 4 Les composés nominaux en anglais

Le chapitre 4 décrit la façon dont les composés nominaux sont structurés en anglais. L'analyse se base sur 245 noms composés qui ont été recueillis dans l'Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW), publié en 1998. Tous les noms composés anglais ont été sélectionnés manuellement, et ils ont été analysés afin de présenter une image détaillée de leurs principales caractéristiques formelles et sémantiques.

La composition est un moyen très productif de créer de nouveaux mots en anglais. En anglais, ce procédé morphologique permet la création de formes très variées de composés nominaux, en fonction de règles telles que l'orthographe, l'accentuation et les types spécifiques d'adjectifs dont se composent les composés, lesquels fonctionnent comme des éléments modificateurs. Sept modèles comportant deux à trois éléments de noms composés anglais sont présentés pour ce qui est de la structure interne. Les trois premiers sont [Nom-Nom], [Adjectif-Nom] et [Verbe-Nom]. Le résumé de la classification formelle des composés nominaux anglais est illustré ci-dessous.

Tableau 3 Résumé de la classification formelle des composés nominaux anglais

Classification formelle des composés nominaux en anglais				
Nombre d'éléments		Unités	Signification	%
	deux éléments	step aerobics	le step	97,14
	trois éléments	airport fiction	la littérature de gare	2,86
	Total			100%
5 combinaisons lexicales majeures des entrées	N-N	animal companion	un animal de compagnie	67,34
	ADJ-N	dental dam	une digue dentaire	24,53
	V-N	waitperson	un.e serveur/serveuse	1,21
	V-V	cook-chill	cuisson et refroidissement	0,081
	N-ADJ	cash-back	remise différée	0,081
	Total			93,25

Au niveau sémantique, l'anglais a deux types principaux de composés nominaux : les composés subordinatifs et les composés coordinatifs. En anglais, la position de la tête se trouve canoniquement à droite ; dans de rares cas, l'anglais permet également à l'élément le plus à gauche de fonctionner comme tête sémantique. Le nombre de composés transparents est plus élevé que celui des composés opaques, qui ont été soumis à un processus de métonymisation et/ou de métaphorisation. Il y a aussi parfois combinaison d'éléments littéraux et figuratifs ; certains noms composés combinent la transparence du membre-tête et l'opacité du membre non-tête tandis que certains autres noms composés combinent l'opacité de l'élément-tête et la transparence du membre non-tête. Le résumé de la classification sémantique des composés nominaux anglais est illustré ci-dessous.

Tableau 4 Résumé de la classification sémantique des composés nominaux anglais

Classification formelle des composés nominaux en anglais				
Type de composé		Unités	Signification	%
	Composés subordinatifs	banoffi pie	une tarte au banoffi	98,78
	Composés coordinatifs	wolf-dog	un hybride entre un loup et un chien	1,22
	Total			100%
Nombre de têtes des composés	Composés à une tête	date rape	un viol par une connaissance	94,28
	Composés à deux têtes	wolf-dog	un hybride entre un loup et un chien	1,22
	Composés sans tête	bodice-ripper	un roman sentimental	4,48
	Total			100%
Position de la tête du composé nominal anglais	gauche	year out	une année de césure	0,81
	droite	jelly shoes	des chaussures méduse	93,46
	Total			94,28
Déplacements métaphonymiques des composés nominaux anglais	transparence des deux éléments	home cinema	un home cinéma	67,34
	transparence de l'élément de tête	snail mail	le courrier escargot	3,67
	transparence de l'élément non tête	lipstick lesbian	une lesbienne d'apparence glamour	6,93
	opacité des deux éléments du composé	safe haven	une zone protégée	17,55
	Total			100%

Chapitre 5 Une comparaison des composés nominaux en thaï et en anglais

Le chapitre 5 présente une analyse contrastive des composés nominaux dans les langues anglaise et thaïlandaise. Dans ce chapitre, les classifications formelles et sémantiques des

composés nominaux sont discutées pour les langues thaïe et anglaise afin de mettre en lumière les ressemblances et les distinctions basées sur le corpus de données.

La comparaison de la composition nominale en thaï et en anglais montre un certain nombre de dissemblances marquées entre les deux langues. Les noms composés thaïlandais peuvent être distingués des noms composés anglais dans la mesure où ils présentent généralement des types de motifs plus variés, tant en termes de nombre d'éléments (jusqu'à cinq) que de combinaisons de motifs lexicaux (utilisation d'un plus grand nombre de non-noms). Les composés thaïlandais peuvent également être caractérisés par une influence extérieure plus forte que dans le cas de l'anglais : ils peuvent contenir des éléments étrangers (par exemple le pali et le sanskrit) et adopter des modèles de construction qui ne reflètent pas les normes natives (comme la présence de la tête sémantique à droite, qui n'est normalement pas attendue en thaï). En dépit de leurs différences qualitatives, nous avons constaté que le thaï et l'anglais partagent un certain nombre de constructions de base : N-N, N-ADJ, N-ADV, V-N, V-V.

Sur le plan sémantique, le thaï et l'anglais font tous les deux appels aux deux principaux types de composés nominaux : les composés subordonnés et les composés coordonnés. Il est à noter que les proportions des différents types sémantiques de noms composés dans les deux langues sont remarquablement similaires : 98% pour les constructions subordonnées et 2% pour les coordonnées ; il n'y a aussi dans les deux cas qu'un très petit nombre de structures subordonnées de type attributif. Les deux langues présentent un contraste typologique important en ce qui concerne la position de la tête sémantique : la tête d'un nom composé thaïlandais est canoniquement à gauche alors que la tête d'un nom composé anglais est à droite.

La majorité des composés nominaux en thaï et en anglais sont transparents, mais le nombre de composés sémantiquement figuratifs est plus élevé en anglais qu'en thaï. Il existe des composés en thaï et en anglais dont l'un des membres est utilisé au sens figuré tandis que les autres restent au sens propre. Le thaï présente un pourcentage trois fois plus élevé de composés avec une tête transparente et des éléments non-tête figuratifs, ainsi qu'un nombre presque deux fois plus élevé de composés avec une tête opaque et des éléments non-tête transparents.

Chapitre 6 L'amalgamation lexicale en thaï

Le chapitre 6 décrit comment les amalgames lexicaux sont créés en thaï. L'analyse de 37 amalgames lexicaux en thaï montre que l'écrasante majorité d'entre eux sont le résultat de la fusion de deux mots sources, et une minorité d'entre eux sont créés à partir de trois éléments. Les structures des amalgames lexicaux en thaï sont variées, avec 6 modèles différents : 66% de constructions [N-N], 9% de constructions [ADJ-N], 6% de constructions [N-V], 6% de constructions [V-N], 6% de constructions [ADJ-ADJ], et 3% de constructions [ADJ-V]. Tous les amalgames sont créés dans deux catégories lexicales uniquement : les noms et les adjectifs. Les schémas d'accourcissement lexical des amalgames binaires se répartissent en trois catégories principales : 46% de type ABD, 43% de type AD, et 6% de type ACD. Les amalgames à trois éléments sont composés de types ABDF et ABCDF. La plupart des amalgames lexicaux en thaï ne sont pas caractérisés par un chevauchement de phonèmes. Seules de rares unités (8,57%) montrent un chevauchement à la graphique et phonique. Aucune d'entre elles ne présente de chevauchement au niveau uniquement phonique ou graphique, comme cela peut être le cas pour l'anglais ou le français. Lorsqu'ils sont fusionnés, les mots sources ne sont tronqués qu'à deux endroits différents : à la limite de la syllabe (dans 65% des cas) et à la limite entre l'attaque et le noyau (33%). La plupart des amalgames lexicaux en thaï sont des amalgames subordonnés relationnels dont la tête se trouve canoniquement à droite ; seulement quatre d'entre eux ont la tête à gauche (dans la classe des amalgames à tête unique). Tous les amalgames de l'ensemble des données sont littéraux ; il est impossible de trouver des unités figuratives.

Chapitre 7 L'amalgamation lexicale en anglais

Le chapitre 7 décrit la création des amalgames lexicaux en anglais. L'analyse est basée sur un échantillon de 100 amalgames lexicaux qui ont été collectés manuellement à partir de trois dictionnaires : 1) l'Oxford Dictionary of New Words (Knowles and Elliot, 1998), 2) *20th-century words : the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years* (Ayto, 1999), et 3) l'Oxford English Dictionary (OED). Nous avons initialement l'intention de collecter uniquement les amalgames lexicaux de l'Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW), qui est la source des composés nominaux anglais collectés précédemment ; cependant, le nombre d'unités obtenues était insuffisant. En conséquence, nous nous sommes tournés vers *20th-century words : the story of the new words in English over the last hundred*

years (Ayto,1999) et Oxford English Dictionary (OED) pour trouver plus de amalgames lexicaux apparus au 20^{ème} siècle et au début du 21^{ème} (1900-2010). L'ensemble de données est analysé afin de fournir une étude détaillée des principales caractéristiques formelles et sémantiques.

L'examen de 100 amalgames en anglais a démontré la variété des principales caractéristiques formelles et sémantiques. Les amalgames lexicaux en anglais semblent utiliser typiquement deux éléments, et ceux-ci sont limités à cinq catégories lexicales : les noms (91%), les adjectifs (4%), les verbes (3%), les adverbes (1%), et les pronoms (1%). Les structures des amalgames lexicaux anglais sont variées, avec jusqu'à 12 modèles : [N-N], [ADJ-N], [N-ADJ], [V-N], [ADJ-ADJ], [N-V], [V-N], [ADV-ADV], [V-V], [PRON-N], [PRON-PRON], [INTERJ-N] et [Préfixe-N]. Les schémas d'accourcissement lexical se répartissent en six catégories : le type AD, le type ABD, le type ACD, le type AC, les constructions ABCD haplogiques, et le type ACB (structure sandwich). La moitié des unités lexicales de l'ensemble des données présente un chevauchement à trois niveaux différents : graphico-phonique (39%), graphique seulement (13%), ou phonique seulement (2%). Du fait de l'acte d'accourcissement, les mots sources sont divisés à cinq endroits différents : à la limite de la syllabe (75% des cas), à la limite entre l'attaque et du noyau (22% des cas), à la limite entre le noyau et la coda (1%) des cas, et à l'intérieur d'une coda complexe (1%). Du point de vue sémantique, la majorité des amalgames lexicaux anglais n'ont qu'une seule tête, tandis qu'une minorité d'entre eux ont deux têtes. Dans la classe des amalgames à une seule tête, la position de la tête se trouve canoniquement à droite, mais, de manière remarquable, un quart d'entre eux ont la tête à gauche, alors qu'une telle construction est rarissime dans les constructions composées. La majorité des amalgames lexicaux trouvés sont des amalgames subordonnés relationnels. Bien qu'il y ait eu quelques cas où des mots sources avec une interprétation figurative (métaphorique), la grande majorité des amalgames dans cet ensemble de données reste littérale dans son interprétation.

Chapitre 8 Une comparaison des amalgames lexicaux en thaï et en anglais

Le chapitre 8 rapproche dans une perspective contrastive deux ensembles de 37 unités lexicales thaïlandaises et de 100 unités lexicales anglaises identifiées comme des amalgames lexicaux, qui sont définis comme les résultats d'un processus de formation de mots impliquant la fusion de deux ou plusieurs mots, avec la perte d'une forme phonique ou graphique dans différents schémas d'accourcissement, et qui implique également une

combinaison de formes et une combinaison de significations. Les classifications formelles et sémantiques des amalgames lexicaux en thaï et en anglais sont discutées et illustrées par des exemples afin de mettre en lumière les similitudes et les différences sur la base des données recueillies.

La comparaison de l'amalgamation lexicale en thaï et en anglais montre un certain nombre de dissemblances marquées entre les deux langues. Qualitativement, l'anglais présente une plus grande variété de catégories lexicales de sortie, de types de combinaisons de catégories lexicales de mots-sources, de modèles d'accourcissement lexical, et un plus grand nombre de types de chevauchement de segments et de fractionnement phonologique. Ces résultats confirment l'hypothèse de Renner (2019), selon laquelle l'anglais présente un degré élevé de jeu de mots amalgamés. En outre, les règles de formation des amalgames lexicaux en anglais ne sont pas strictes. En revanche, les règles de l'amalgamation en thaï sont strictes, doivent suivre une contrainte phonologique en raison de l'influence du processus de formation des mots dans les langues pali et sanskrit.

D'un point de vue quantitatif, un certain nombre de différences significatives ont aussi été constatées. Premièrement, les amalgames lexicaux thaïlandais ont tendance à préférer le type ABD d'accourcissement lexical, alors que l'anglais tend à favoriser le type AD. Deuxièmement, une grande majorité des amalgames thaïlandais ne présentent pas de chevauchement de segments, et très peu d'entre eux présentent un chevauchement graphique et phonique, alors qu'environ la moitié des amalgames anglais présentent un chevauchement de segments (dans ses trois types : chevauchement graphique et phonique, chevauchement graphique uniquement, et chevauchement phonique uniquement). Enfin, tous les amalgames thaïlandais du corpus d'étude sont composés de deux unités transparentes, alors que les amalgames anglais combinent une variété de mots sources sémantiquement transparents et non transparents.

Le thaï et l'anglais ne partagent qu'une seule caractéristique, à savoir la position de la tête des amalgames subordonnés dans les deux langues. Il est surprenant de constater que la majorité des amalgames lexicaux thaïlandais ont une tête sémantique à droite, ce qui est similaire à la situation des amalgames anglais. On aurait pu s'attendre à ce que les amalgames subordonnés en thaï soient canoniquement à gauche, comme les composés, mais cette hypothèse n'est confirmée par l'analyse de l'ensemble des données thaïes, en raison de l'impact des langues pali et sanskrit sur les amalgames lexicaux.

Chapitre 9 Concurrence entre composition et amalgamation lexicale en anglais et en thaïlandais

Le chapitre 9 s'intéresse à la concurrence entre les composés et les amalgames lexicaux en thaï et en anglais sur la base de quatre ensembles de données (c'est-à-dire les composés nominaux thaïlandais, les composés nominaux anglais, les amalgames lexicaux thaïlandais et les amalgames lexicaux anglais). D'après les données recueillies, on peut constater que le nombre de composés dans les deux langues est beaucoup plus élevé que celui des amalgames lexicaux si l'on compare le nombre de mots recueillis dans les dictionnaires des ensembles de données. Cependant, certaines opérations de formation des mots peuvent être explorées d'un point de vue concurrentiel, mettant face à face les composés et les amalgames lexicaux dans les deux langues.

Les composés nominaux en thaï et en anglais semblent être assez similaires d'un point de vue formel, mais les aspects formels de l'amalgamation tendent clairement à se différencier de ceux de la composition. L'amalgamation est principalement une technique d'accourcissement en thaï, alors qu'elle peut également, dans de nombreux cas, avoir une valeur ludique et/ou iconique en anglais, la fusion des formes évoquant la fusion des significations.

Du point de vue de la concurrence onomasiologique, dans les deux langues, la composition est généralement le choix par défaut pour combiner au moins deux mots, mais il existe un certain nombre de facteurs linguistiques qui augmentent la probabilité que l'amalgamation lexicale soit choisie plutôt que la composition. Au niveau formel, le nombre de mots sources, le nombre de syllabes et le chevauchement des segments jouent un rôle important dans les deux langues. Au niveau sémantique, l'amalgame tend à être favorisé en thaï et en anglais lorsque les unités sont coordonnées et impliquent une hybridité conceptuelle.

Chapitre 10 Conclusion

Le chapitre 10 clôt la dissertation avec le résumé de l'étude et quelques remarques finales. La composition dans les deux langues semble avoir la même fonction, mais l'amalgamation ne semble pas avoir la ou les mêmes fonctions dans les deux langues. Il s'agit simplement d'une technique d'abrègement en thaï, alors qu'elle peut également avoir une valeur ludique et/ou iconique en anglais.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Rationale of the study

Nowadays, there are many new words and expressions, known as neologisms, that are usually created as language is a social phenomenon that evolves in parallel with society. Every day, neologisms are coined or presented to express new items and ideas in society or to rename an old concept as a result of innovation, advances in science and cultural and technological changes, including social and political trends, and they may become common or disappear due to a lack of use (Mohamed, 2019).

In the Thai language, in pre-modern periods, vocabulary enrichment was typically brought through traditional loans from Khmer or Mon intermediates, subject to assimilation processes in those languages first, or from Pali Buddhist sources, i.e., terms initially employed in religious contexts came to be utilized more broadly (Diller *et al.*, 2008). In the twentieth century, in the context of modernity, which necessitated lexical enlargement, neologisms have been coined through official institute action in order to avoid using direct borrowing from foreign languages, especially English and other Western languages. Diller *et al.* (2008) mention that in the context of nationalistic or aesthetic sensibilities that discouraged direct borrowing from English or other Western languages, neologisms were made out of Indic (mostly Sanskrit) morphemes to encode the Western-based notions. According to the Office of the Royal Society, which is responsible for entering new words into the Royal Institute Dictionary of Coined Words, there are 73,734 neologisms that have been coined into the Thai language, and they have been categorized into fifteen categories. Law, science, geography, computer and information technology, and physical technology are the top five categories.

In the English language, the vocabulary is predicted to grow by at least 850 new words each year, so neology is an essential aspect of the English language (Fang, 2021). As time passes, the English language absorbs, rejects, and adapts new terminology. It is continually renewing itself by borrowing, coining, and combining words to describe new ideas and advancements. Changes in social and technology, political and economic advancements, new methods of working, leisure and sport, fashion and popular music, medical, psychology, ecology, and even new sorts of crime all contribute to the invention of new words to convey new ideas in

the English language. Also, there are dictionaries of new words published by the Oxford University Press. The Oxford Dictionary of New Words was first published in 1991, and a new edition was issued in 1997. In the process of word formation, a neologism is often created by combining existing words and morphemes through compounding, blending, and affixation (Mohamed, 2019). This is confirmed by the study by Omirbekova (2017), who found that compounding, blending and derivation are the most productive processes to coin neologisms in English. Some examples from her study are the words ‘silver goal’ and ‘salad dodger’ formed through compounding, the words ‘orthorexia’ and ‘e-vast’ created through derivation, and the words ‘babyccino’ and ‘permalancer’ coined through blending.

According to Diller *et al.* (2008), previously, there were the studies of Thai-English comparisons such as on phonology (See Kruatrachue, 1960), on syntax (See Chaiyaratana, 1961), on pronominalization (See Chomaitong, 1976), on definiteness (See Lamchote (1971), on aspect (See Noochoochai, 1978), and on intonation (See Kanchanathat, 1978). Other studies include Ariyapitipun (1988), Meemeskul-Martin (1984), Palmer (1969), Richards (1968), Schmidt (1988), Suwattee (1981), and Van Syoc (1964), who conducted practical studies involving error analysis, translation problems, or difficulties Thai speakers experience with specific elements of English. However, studies of Thai-English comparisons on morphology focused on the word-formation processes have rarely been found.

The present study, thus, focuses on a contrastive study of Thai-English neologisms created through two word-formation processes: compounding and lexical blending. This is because it is challenging to expose the resemblances and differences of compounding and lexical blending in the English and Thai languages despite the fact that the two languages belong to completely different language families.

1.2. The objectives of the study

The objectives of this doctoral study are to conduct a comparative analysis of nominal compounding and lexical blending in the Thai and English languages and to explore these two word-formation processes from a competitive standpoint.

1.3. Research questions

The three main research questions which will be addressed in this dissertation are:

- 1) What is the diversity of nominal compounding in Thai and English?
- 2) What is the diversity of lexical blending in Thai and English?
- 3) How do compounding and lexical blending compete in the Thai and English languages?

1.4. Research methodology

1.4.1. Data collection

In the study, the data of both languages were collected manually from dictionaries of new words in the twentieth century. There are four different sets of data:

Set 1: 473 Thai compound nouns have been collected from the three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New Words; a standard Thai dictionary published by the Office of the Royal Society. The three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New words were published in 2007, 2009 and 2011 respectively, in order to collect new words and new senses in present-day Thai.

Set 2: 247 English compound nouns were collected from the Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW) published in 1998 (Knowles and Elliott, 1997). ODNW covers new words which have been in the news in the decade and a half between the beginning of the 1980s and the mid-1990s.

Set 3: 37 Thai lexical blends were collected from the three volumes of The Royal Institute Dictionary of New words, which were published in 2007, 2009 and 2011, and the Royal Institute Dictionary of Coined Words (Neologisms), an online supplement which was published in 2016 by the Office of the Royal Society which is responsible for the Royal Thai Dictionary (i.e. the official dictionary of Thailand) and has been made available online since 2019. I intended to use the three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New words for

data collection, in the same way as for Thai nominal compounds, but only two blends were found, which was not adequate to carry out a quantitative analysis.

Set 4: a sample of 100 English lexical blends were collected manually from three different dictionaries: 1) the Oxford Dictionary of New Words (Knowles and Elliott, 1997), 2) 20th-century words: the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years (Ayto, 1999), and 3) the Oxford English Dictionary (OED). I initially intended to collect only the lexical blends of the Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW), as I did for English nominal compounds in the data set; the number of units obtained was, however, insufficient. Consequently, I went to 20th-century words: the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years (Ayto, 1999), and 3) the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) to collect more lexical blends that appeared in the 20th century and the early 21st century (1990-2010).

1.4.2 Data analysis

The data were analyzed in order to present two aspects of compound nouns and lexical blends in the Thai and English languages -- 1) their formal classification, and 2) their semantic characteristics --, and then to examine the two processes in a comparative analysis.

Two data sets of compound nouns in Thai and English were analyzed to examine a variety of semantic features: number and structures of elements attested in the compound nouns, types of compounds (e.g., coordinative compounds and subordinative compounds), headedness, and metaphonymic shifts of compounds (i.e., different degrees of opacification: literal compounds and figurative compounds). The findings were examined to find out the similarities and differences of nominal compounding in the two languages.

Two data sets of lexical blends in Thai and English were analyzed to determine a number of their characteristic features: lexical inputs, types of lexical input combinations, patterns of lexical shortening, types of segment overlap and phonological splitting, headedness, and metaphonymic shifts. As for the data sets of nominal compounds, the findings were compared to examine the similarities and differences of lexical blending in the two languages.

In the last step of the study, compounding and lexical blending in each language were explored to look at a competitive standpoint: the two processes can be said to compete to create new words.

1.5. Transcription of Thai words in the present study

The romanization of the Thai language, that is, the representation of the language in Latin character, is done in a variety of ways. These include transliteration and transcription systems. The Royal Thai General System of Transcription, the official scheme established by the Royal Thai Institute, is the most visible system in public space. Since 1999, the Office of the Royal Society has revised the principle of romanization for native Thai words, allowing non-Thai people to read Thai words as closely as possible to their original pronunciation or spelling without the use of tonal symbols and other symbols indicated in the transcription. Some examples are the words จันทร = chan, พระ = phra, and แก้ว = kaeo (Office of the Royal Society, 1999).

However, in the present study, Thai words were transcribed using the International Phonetic Association (IPA) standard, which was adapted from the Handbook of the International Phonetic Association (1999). Table 1.1 shows the consonants, and Table 1.2 and Table 1.3 illustrate the vowels.

Table 1.1 Consonants and Glides for initial consonants¹

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p p ^h b ป ผ บ พ ภ		t t ^h d ฏ ต ฐ ฏค ท ฒ ณ ด น ต			k k ^h ก ข กข อ	ʔ
Nasal	m ม		n ณ น			ŋ ง	
Fricative		f ฟ ฟ	s ซ ศ ษ ส				h ห ฮ
Affricate				tʃ tʃ ^h จ ฉ ช ฌ			

¹ The description of Thai alphabets and their pronunciation is described in Chapter 2, Section 2.2.

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Trill			r ร				
Approximant					j ญ ย	w ว	
Lateral Approximant			l ล พ				

Source : Handbook of the International Phonetic Association (1999)

Table 1.2 Consonants and Glides for final consonants

	Labial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Other
Stop	/-p/ บ ป ภ พ ฟ	/-t/ ด จ ช ฌ ฏ ฐ ท ฒ ต ถ ฑ ฒ ศ ษ ส		/-k/ ก ข ก ฃ	/-ʔ/ อ
Nasal	/-m/ ม	/-n/ น ญ ณ ร ล พ		/-ŋ/ ง	
Glide	/-w/ ว		/-y/ ย		

Source : Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009)

Table 1.3 Consonant clusters in Thai

ปฺร-/	กฺว-	ตฺร-	กฺร-
pr-/	/tr-/	/kr-/	/kw/

Source : Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009)

Table 1.4 Vowels in Thai

Single vowels		Diphthongs	
Short	long	Short	long
อะ /a/	อา /a:/	เียะ /ia/	เีย /ia:/
อิ /i/	อิ /i:/	เือะ /ua/	เือ /ua:/
อุ /u/	อุ /u:/	เัวะ /ua/	เัว /ua:/
อู /u/	อู /u:/		
เอะ /e/	เอ /e:/		
เอาะ /ɛ/	เอา /ɛ:/		
แอะ /ɛ/	แอา /ɛ:/		
เอาะ /ɔ/	เอา /ɔ:/		
โอะ /o/	โอา /o:/		

Source : *Handbook of the International Phonetic Association (1999)*

Additionally, in the transcription of Thai words in this study, five tones are transcribed using the classic tonal symbols: mid tone (ā), low tone (à), falling tone (â), high tone (á), and rising tone (ǎ). In the case of the examples of Thai phrases or sentences given in the present study, the dot (.) is used to separate words for a readability reason for non-Thai readers since there is no space between words in Thai phrases or sentences, as in the sentence ฉันเลี้ยงปลาสามตัว /tɕʰhǎn.lìǎŋ.plā:.sǎ:m.tua/, which means ‘I have three fish’.

Chapter 2

Introduction to the Thai Language

Chapter 2

Introduction to the Thai Language

This chapter describes the Thai language and its characteristics that are essential for the present study as a background knowledge for non-Thai readers, and as a foundation for the understanding of Thai nominal compounding and lexical blending. The chapter consists of:

- an introduction of the Thai language
- a list of characteristics of Thai language
- a discussion of word-formation processes in Thai

2.1. Introduction of the Thai Language

Thai is a national language of Thailand. The country is located in the center of Southeast Asia. It is bordered in the west and the northwest by Myanmar, in the southwest by the Andaman Sea, in the east and the northeast by Laos People's Democratic Republic, in the southeast by Cambodia, and in the south by Malaysia and the Gulf of Thailand. Covering an area of approximately 514,000 square kilometers, Thailand is the 50th largest country in the world, most nearly equal in size to Spain. Thailand is divided into 77 political provinces with Bangkok serving as the capital of the country (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2017).

Map 1: Thailand on a world map



Source : Google maps

Thai is a daughter language of Tai, which is the most widespread language family in Southeast Asia. The Tai language family is taken as a major sub-branch of Kam-Tai within the greater grouping Tai-Kadai. Tai speakers were once thought to have originated from China and migrated southward, but today the border area between northern Vietnam and China's Guangxi province is regarded as a more likely origin (Goddard, 2005). From the eighth century AD Tai speakers began to migrate westward and southward to what corresponds to present-day Thailand. The spelling "Thai" is used for the national language of Thailand and for some regional varieties in that country, while "Tai" is used for the wider Tai subfamily of Tai-Kadai, and also in the names of some specific varieties (Smyth, 2002). Thai, the official language of Thailand, is the most important language in the Tai-Kadai family, which also includes Laos, Shan, which is spoken in northern Myanmar, and some 15 million speakers of Zhuang, which is spoken in southwestern China. Almost all Tai-Kadai languages share common features as shown in the table below (Goddard, 2005). Despite common structural features, Tai languages are often mutually unintelligible because of phonological and lexical differences.

Table 2.1: Common features of Tai-Kadai Languages

	Tai-Kadai Languages
Lexical tone	+
Case marking	—
Classifier	+
Serial verbs	+
Verb-final	+
Prepositions	+
Noun-adjective order	+

Source : Goddard, 2005

Today, languages belonging to the Tai-Kadai language family are spoken by an estimated 85 million people in Southeast Asia in an area extending from Thailand to Laos, Vietnam, China, Myanmar, and India (Goddard, 2005). See Map 2 below.

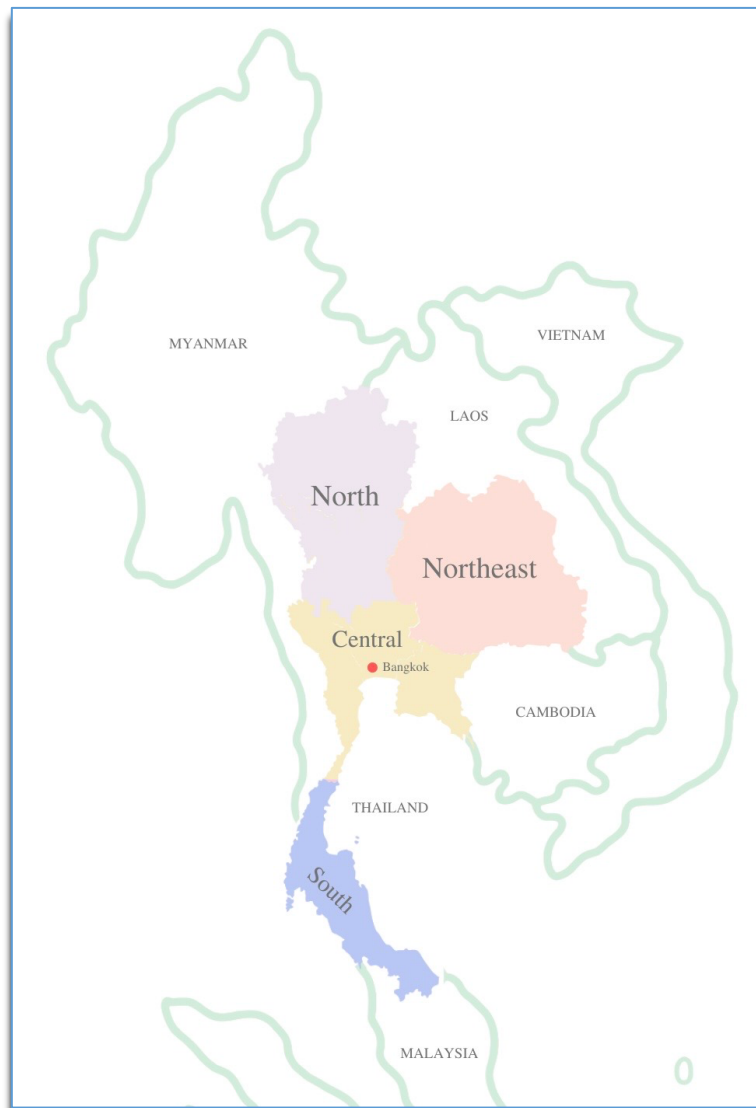
Map 2: Area of the Tai-Kadai language family spoken in Southeast Asia



Source : Goddard, 2005

In Thailand, the language of the central region, where Bangkok is located, is regarded as standard Thai, which is used and understood widely throughout the country because of its use in schools, in the mass media, in government communication, and for official purposes. Within Thailand, there are four major dialects, corresponding to the southern, northern, north-eastern, and central regions of the country, as illustrated in Map 3.

Map 3: Thailand and the four regions



Source : Office of the Royal Society, 2007

The dialects spoken in Thailand are different from the standard language in terms of their phonology, morphology, syntax, or lexicon, but they are all mutually intelligible (Anakasiri, 1981). The list below contains examples of words from different dialects:

Table 2.2: Examples of words from the 4 dialects

	Standard	South	North	Northeast
to lie	/kō:hòk/ โกหก	/khî:hòk/ จี๊หก	/khî:teû:/ จี๊จู้	/khî:túa/ จี๊ตุ้ว
to miss	/khídhũŋ/ คิดถึง	/wǎŋwít/ หวังเหวิด	/khú:dhũ:ŋ/ คืดถึง	/khídhô:d/ คืดฮอด
to go back home	/klàbbâ:n/ กลับบ้าน	/lò:bbâ:n/ หลบบ้าน	/píkâ:n/ ปึกบ้าน	/mīabâ:n/ เมียบ้าน
coconut	/máphrá:w/ มะพร้าว	/lû:kphrá:w/ ลูกพร้าว	/mápâ:w/ มะป้าว	/bàkpâ:w/ บักป้าว
pineapple	/sàbpàrót/ สับปะรด	/jā:nàt/ ยาหนด	/mà:kkhánàt/ หมากคะหนด	/bàknàt/ บักหนด

2.2. Characteristics of the Thai language

The characteristics of Thai language can be summarized as follows:

1. Thai is an isolating language. Most of the original Thai lexical units are monosyllabic, and a high percentage of polysyllabic words come from foreign borrowings, particularly from the classical Indian languages, Pali and Sanskrit (Thonglor, 2007).
2. The written Thai language was initiated by King Ramkhamhaeng, the third King of the Sukhothai period (1275-1317). It is believed that the first historical record of the Thai writing system was inscribed on the stone monument in 1292. The Sukhothai dialect is the ancestor of present-day Thai (Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom, 2009). There are 76 symbols in the Thai writing system divided into consonants (44), vowels (28), and tones (4). The alphabetical symbols are illustrated below.

Graphic 1: 44 Thai alphabet

ก	ข	ฃ	ค	ฅ	ฆ	ง	จ	ฉ	ช	ซ
/k/	/k ^h /	/k ^h /	/k ^h /	/k ^h /	/k ^h /	/ŋ/	/tɕ/	/tɕ ^h /	/tɕ ^h /	/s/
ฌ	ญ	ฎ	ฏ	ฐ	ฑ	ฒ	ณ	ด	ต	ถ
/tɕ ^h /	/j/	/d/	/t/	/t ^h /	/t ^h /	/t ^h /	/n/	/d/	/t/	/t ^h /
ท	ธ	น	บ	ป	ผ	ฝ	พ	ฟ	ภ	ม
/t ^h /	/t ^h /	/n/	/b/	/p/	/p ^h /	/f/	/p ^h /	/f/	/p ^h /	/m/
ย	ร	ล	ว	ศ	ษ	ส	ห	ฬ	อ	ฮ
/j/	/r/	/l/	/w/	/s/	/s/	/s/	/h/	/l/	/ʔ/	/h/

The Thai alphabet consists of 44 basic consonant symbols pronounced as 21 sounds. There are several sounds which can be represented in writing by one of several letters as illustrated below.

Table 2.3: Letters with the same pronunciation

Letters	Pronunciation
ข ฃ ค ฅ ฆ	/k ^h /
ซ ส ศ ษ	/s/
ฉ ช ฌ	/tɕ ^h /
ฐ ฑ ฒ ถ ฑ ฐ	/t ^h /
ผ พ ภ	/p ^h /

The choice of letter for any particular word is not arbitrary, it depends on the tone of the syllable. Putting it the other way around, the choice between alternative ways of spelling the same sound helps indicate the tone.

Thai vowels are categorized into two groups: single and diphthong vowels. The system of single vowels in Thai has both short and long vowels, making a total of 18 vowel sounds. The symbols of single vowels are presented below:

Graphic 2: Single vowels

<p>ะ</p> <p>/a/</p>	<p>า</p> <p>/a:/</p>	<p>ิ</p> <p>/i/</p>	<p>ี</p> <p>/i:/</p>	<p>ุ</p> <p>/u/</p>	<p>ู</p> <p>/u:/</p>
<p>เ-ะ</p> <p>/ɛ/</p>	<p>เ-า</p> <p>/ɛ:/</p>	<p>เ-ิ</p> <p>/ɔ/</p>	<p>เ-ี</p> <p>/ɔ:/</p>	<p>โ-ะ</p> <p>/o/</p>	<p>โ-า</p> <p>/o:/</p>
<p>ุ</p> <p>/u/</p>	<p>ู</p> <p>/u:/</p>	<p>เ-ะ</p> <p>/e/</p>	<p>เ-า</p> <p>/e:/</p>	<p>เ-อ</p> <p>/ɤ/</p>	<p>เ-อ</p> <p>/ɤ:/</p>

The vowel length is significant in Thai since it can distinguish the meaning of words. Some examples of contrastive pairs are given as follows:

/pā/	to mend
/pā:/	to throw
/dù/	to blame
/dū:/	to watch
/khāt/	to bite
/khā:t/	to be torn

In Thai, there are also the diphthong vowels which consist of more than one single vowel, making a total of 6 vowel sounds, including 4 vowel letters as illustrated in Graphic 3 and 4 respectively.

Graphic 3: Long vowels

เียะ	เีย	เือะ	เือ	ัวะ	ัว
/ia:/	/ia:/	/ua:/	/ua:/	/ua:/	/ua:/

Graphic 4: Letter vowels

ำ	ำ- / ำ-	ำ	ำ	ำ	ำ	ำ
/am/	/aj/	/aw/	/ru/	/ru:/	/lu/	/lu:/

In Thai writing, characters are placed horizontally, from left to right, to form syllables, words, and sentences. Vowel graphemes are written above, below, before, or after the consonant they modify, although the consonant is always pronounced first when the syllable is spoken.

สี	/sǐ:/	color
ปู	/pū:/	crab
เท	/thē:/	to pour
ขา	/khǎ:/	leg

Thai words and sentences are written in their own unique alphabet, and sentences are written without spaces between the words. The writing system has undergone little change since its introduction, so modern Thai scholars can read inscriptions from the Sukhothai era (Timyam, 2015). Examples of Thai sentences are presented below:

Graphic 5: Examples of sentences written in Thai

ในวัฒนธรรมไทยคงมีสัตว์เพียงไม่กี่ชนิดที่มีความผูกพันกับคนไทย
มากไปกว่าช้าง เห็นได้จากจิตรกรรม ฝาผนังในวัดโบราณต่าง ๆ ที่
รูปช้างพร้อมออกรบหรือไม่ว่าจะมองไปที่ไหนก็จะเห็นช้างเป็น
สัญลักษณ์ ที่สื่อถึงความเป็นไทยอยู่แทบทุกที่

‘There can be few animals more closely associated with Thai culture than the elephant. From the battle-ready giants depicted in ancient temple murals to the twin elephants found on the logo of one of Thailand’s most popular brews, the elephant is ubiquitous.’

Source : Gough, 2016.

3. Thai is a tonal language. The meaning of each syllable is determined by the pitch at which it is pronounced. There are five tones in standard Thai, which are represented in the transcription system by an accent over the first vowel in the syllable. They are:

mid tone (ā)

low tone (à)

falling tone (â)

high tone (á)

rising tone (ǎ).

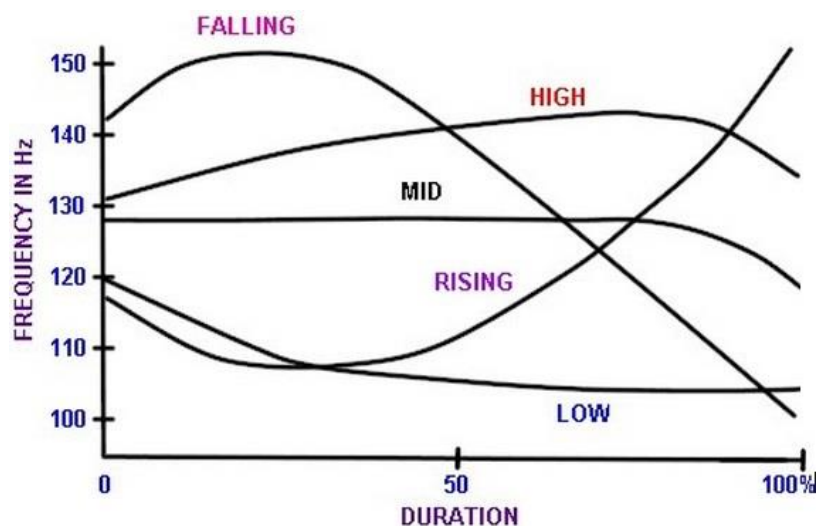
The symbols of tones are illustrated below.

Graphic 6: Symbols of tones in Thai

—	’	ˊ	ˋ	ˆ
ā	à	â	á	ǎ
mid tone	low tone	falling tone	high tone	rising tone

The tonal shapes are illustrated in the following graph.

Figure 3 Shape of standard Thai tones



Source 1: Pittayaporn, 2007

4. In Thai, a syllable consists of three components: consonant, vowel, and tone. All syllables must contain a vowel sound, and they may begin and/or end with a consonant sound. An illustration of the syllabic structure of Thai is given below:

CV	มา	/mā:/	to come
CCV	ปลา	/plā:/	fish
CVC	รูป	/rû:p/	picture
CCVC	กลาง	/klā:ŋ/	middle

Additionally, there are other syllables or words that are only composed of consonant letters as CC and CCC. The vowel sound omitted in writing. Some examples are:

CC	กก	/kòk/	to cuddle
	คน	/khōn/	human

CCC กลม /klōm/ round

Sometimes, it is quite difficult to segment the syllables when there is no context. For example, the word ‘ตากลม’ can be read as /tā:. klōm/ ‘round eyes’, or it can be pronounced as /tā:k. lōm/ ‘to expose to the wind’.

5. One same Thai word may convey several meanings, and it can function in different ways depending on its position in the sentence, as shown in following examples:

(1) tehăn **tòk** tàpū: (Thai)
I hammer nail
‘I hammered nails.’

(2) tehăn lǎ: **tòk** (Thai)
I sharpen thin bamboo strips
‘I sharpen thin bamboo strips.’

(3) tehăn sù: khâ:wtòk (Thai)
I buy popped rice
‘I bought popped rice.’

It can be seen that the word ‘tok’ in sentence (1) is a verb, while it is an object noun in sentence (2). In sentence (3), the verb ‘tok’ ‘break’ was combined with the noun kwao ‘rice’ to form a compound noun (kwaotok = ‘rice + break’ = popped rice).

6. Thai is a classifier language, which uses different classifiers to count different types of objects. Classifiers in Thai are placed after numbers. They are an obligatory component of noun phrases containing numerals. In both English and Thai, a bottle, a bag and a glass are container nouns which may be added to turn mass nouns such as water, sugar and milk into countable expressions; in Thai these measure words are regarded as classifiers. Thai differs from English in that it uses classifiers for countable nouns such as students, cats and cars, where English simply places the number before the noun. A classifier is used to count every

noun in Thai. For example, /khōn/ is used for counting people, /tūa/ for animals, and /an/ for small objects. Additionally, measure words such as *kilo*, *inch* and *month*, and containers such as *bottle*, *bowl* and *bag* also function as classifiers. The list below shows three classifiers used in sentences.

(1)	mī:	dèk	hâ:	khōn
	have	child	five	CLS
	‘There are five children.’			

(2)	tehăn	líaj	plā:	să:m	tūa
	I	feed	fish	three	CLS
	‘I have three fish.’				

(3)	pî:tehā:i	mī:	fājtehék	sì:	ʔān
	brother	have	cigarette lighter	four	CLS
	‘A brother has four cigarette lighters.’				

7. The Thai language has been defined as a subject prominent (subject-predicate) language where the word order is typically Subject-Verb-Object. The Thai language also features, as listed by Sudmuk (2005):

- a lack of conjugated verb forms indicating person or tense (numbers might be added)
- a lack of inflected noun forms indicating number, gender, and case
- a lack of articles and indefinite determiners
- a lack of case forms of pronouns
- a lack of copula in the Thai translation of an English predicate adjective construction (e.g., I am beautiful. > tehăn(I) sūai(beautiful))

However, like many other Southeast Asian languages, there is a complex pronoun system in Thai, which reflects gender, age, social status, the formality of the situation and the degree of familiarity between speakers (Smyth, 2002).

2.2.1. The Influence of Pali and Sanskrit on the Thai Language

The Pali and Sanskrit languages play an important role on the Thai language although Pali, Sanskrit and Thai belong to different language families: Thai to the Tai-Kadai family, and Pali and Sanskrit to Indo-European languages. This is because Pali and Sanskrit were utilized in Buddhism, which has had a great impact on Thai people and Thai culture. In other words, Pali is used to write the scriptures of the Hinayana School in Buddhism, while Sanskrit is employed as a tool to write Brahmanism scripture belonging to the Maharana School in Buddhism. Pali and Sanskrit were already used in Thai inscription when King Ramkhamhaeng created the Thai script in 1283. Pali and Sanskrit words are widely used in both spoken and written Thai on different occasions such as daily life, formal occasions, special terminology of certain disciplines, and royal language. It can be said that if Pali and Sanskrit were deleted from Thai, the vocabulary of Thai may be inadequate on its own (Penpala, 1998).

Pali and Sanskrit have left two legacies in the Thai language. Firstly, the Thai alphabet has a number of duplicate letters that originate from Pali and Sanskrit. Among the 44 Thai letters, 35 are from Pali and Sanskrit, and among the 28 vowels, 14 are also from Pali and Sanskrit.

Graphic 7: Letters in Pali, Sanskrit, and Thai

Pali	Sanskrit	Thai
ก	ก	ก
ข	ข	ข
-	-	ฃ
ค	ค	ค
-	-	ฅ
ฆ	ฆ	ฆ
ง	ง	ง
จ	จ	จ
ฉ	ฉ	ฉ
-	-	ช
ณ	ณ	ณ
ญ	ญ	ญ
-	-	ฎ
ภ	ภ	ภ
ฐ	ฐ	ฐ
ฒ	ฒ	ฒ
ณ	ณ	ณ
-	-	ด
ต	ต	ต
ถ	ถ	ถ
ท	ท	ท
ธ	ธ	ธ
น	น	น
-	-	บ
ป	ป	ป
ผ	ผ	ผ
-	-	ฝ
พ	พ	พ
-	-	ฟ
ภ	ภ	ภ
ม	ม	ม
ย	ย	ย
-	-	ร
ล	ล	ล
ว	ว	ว
-	ศ	ศ
-	ษ	ษ
ส	ส	ส
ห	ห	ห
ฬ	ฬ	ฬ
-	-	อ
-	-	ฮ
°	°	-

Secondly, Thai borrowed a large number of words from Pali and Sanskrit. Pali and Sanskrit words are very similar both in written form and pronunciation, but Thai has included more Sanskrit words than Pali words. This is because Sanskrit was introduced in Thailand before Pali was (Penpala, 1998).

Nowadays Pali and Sanskrit languages still have an influence on the Thai language. Although English becomes very influential, Pali and Sanskrit words are still used more often. Therefore, Pali and Sanskrit have a vital role to coin new words to replace English words in formal Thai language, such as the word ‘โลกาภิวัตน์’ /lō:kā:phíwáth/ replacing ‘globalization’, and the word ‘อัตลักษณ์’ /ʔàttā:lák/ replacing ‘identity’ -- these two words were created from roots from the Pali and Sanskrit languages.

2.3. A discussion of word-formation processes in Thai

Since Thai is an isolating language, most Thai words are monosyllabic, and they are used freely as free morphemes covering all types of parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Examples of Thai words, which consist of free morphemes, are shown below:

Nouns:	/má:/	horse
	/mê:/	mother
	/mót/	ant
Verbs:	/kīn/	eat
	/kít/	think
	/rák/	love
Adjectives:	/nǎ:w/	cold
	/ṇô:/	fool
	/phèt/	spicy

Originally, in the era of Sukhothai (1275-1317), Thai words were monosyllabic, and polysyllabic words were introduced because of Sanskrit, Pali, and Khmer borrowings.

There are five major types of complex word formation: affixation, reduplication, compounding, doublet formation, and blending. They are described below.

2.3.1. Affixation

One type of complex word consists of a root and an affix. A root is usually a free morpheme. Most prefixes and suffixes found in Thai are originally from Sanskrit, Pali, or Khmer (Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom, 2009).

2.3.1.1. Prefixation

A prefix appears before the root of a complex word. According to Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009), prefixes in Thai are divided into five functional categories.

First, some prefixes modify the meaning of the root:

/ʔà/ = not

/ʔàthām/	(PFX2 + right)	unrighteous
/mǎjsǔaj/	(PFX + beautiful)	not beautiful

/ʔànú/ = lesser, minor

/ʔànúphānrājā:/	(PFX + wife)	minor wife, mistress
/ʔànúśānjā:/	(PFX + agreement)	convention
/ʔànúprājò:k/	(PFX + sentence)	subordinate clause

/máhă:/ = great

/máhă:rā:tchā:/	(PFX + king)	great King
/máhă:phāj/	(PFX + ganger)	great danger
/máhă:thê:ph/	(PFX + deity)	great deity

² PFX is used as an abbreviation of the word 'PREFIX'.

/râ:d/ = royal

/râ:dtɛhájā:n/	(PFX + vehicle)	royal vehicle
/râ:dtɛháhídā:/	(PFX + daughter)	princess
/râ:dtɛháhû:t/	(PFX + ambassador)	royal envoy

/thō:/ = far

/thō:râ:lê:k/	(PFX + number)	telegraph
/thō:râ:să:n/	(PFX + message)	facsimile
/thō:râ:keò:ŋ/	(PFX + phone)	megaphone

Secondly, some prefixes indicate the class to which the base noun belongs:

/nák/ - for person

/nákphû:t/	(PFX + speak)	speaker
/nákbin/	(PFX + fly)	pilot
/nákmuaj/	(PFX + boxing)	boxer

/mēŋ/ - for creature with eight or more legs; but not for octopus

/mēŋmūm/	(PFX + angle)	spider
/mēŋpòŋ/	(PFX + bloated)	scorpion
/mēŋkwā:w/	(PFX + deer)	stag beetle

/rō:/ - for building

/rō:lâkhōn/	(PFX + film)	theatre
/rō:rôd/	(PFX + car)	garage
/rō:nā:/	(PFX + farm)	farm shack

Thirdly, some prefixes are attached to non-nominal roots to create nouns. There are only two prefixes in this group, which are /kâ:n/ and /khwā:m/. /kâ:n/ is used to form an activity noun

with a verbal root, while /khwā:m/ is used to form an abstract noun from an adjective or verbal root:

/kā:n/

/kā:nkīn/	(PFX + to eat)	eating
/kā:nplē:/	(PFX + to translate)	translation
/kā:nsà:dē:ŋ/	(PFX + to perform)	performance

/khwā:m/

/khwā:mdī:/	(PFX + good)	goodness
/khwā:mtehûa/	(PFX + bad)	badness
/khwā:mteĩŋ/	(PFX + true)	truth

Sometimes a contrast is found between a root with /kā:n/ and /khwā:m/. The word with /kā:n/ refers to an action, while the word with /khwā:m/ refers to a more abstract concept such as /kā:ntā:j/ 'dying' and /khwā:mtā:j/ 'death'.

Fourthly, some prefixes are placed before verbs or adjectives, or sometimes nouns, to produce adjectival words. There are four prefixes given here as examples: /nâ:/, /teāj/, /tehâ:ŋ/, and /khî:/.

/nâ:/ is placed before a verb or an adjective and means 'worthy of' or 'inducing to':

/nâ:rāk/	(PFX + love)	lovely
/nâ:rāmkhā:n/	(PFX + annoy)	annoying
/nâ:klūa/	(PFX + fright)	frightening

/teāj/ is placed before an adjective to convey the meaning to indicate a personality of oneself.

/teājdī:/	(PFX + good)	kind
/teājdām/	(PFX + black)	unkind, mean
/teājkwâ:ŋ/	(PFX + wide)	generous

/tɛhâ:ŋ/ is always placed before a verb and refers to having a characteristic of doing something.

/tɛhâ:ŋphû:t/	(PFX + to speak)	talkative
/tɛhâ:ŋsǎŋkè:t/	(PFX + to observe)	observant
/tɛhâ:ŋkhīt/	(PFX + to create)	creative

/khî:/ literally means ‘excrement’. This word is used as a prefix to convey negative connotation. The prefix /khîi/ is always placed before a verb, an adjective, or a noun.

/khî:khūj/	(PFX + to talk)	boastful
/khî:kō:ŋ/	(PFX + to cheat)	cheating
/khî:pràtɛòb/	(PFX + to flatter)	flattering

Finally, the prefixes /jà:ŋ/ and /dō:j/ are placed before adjectives to produce adverbs as they mean ‘having the qualities of’ or ‘in a manner that’, like *-ly* in English. The prefix /dō:j/ is similar to /jà:ŋ/, but it is more often used in writing.

/jà:ŋ/

/jà:ŋsà:ŋòb/	(PFX + calm)	calmly
/jà:ŋsǔ:ŋ/	(PFX + high)	highly
/jà:ŋsà:nùak/	(PFX + joy)	joyfully

/dō:j/

/dō:jtrōŋ/	(PFX + direct)	directly
/dō:jrūam/	(PFX + general)	generally
/dō:jpòkkàtì/	(PFX + usual)	usually

2.3.1.2. Suffixation

Suffixes, which are placed after the root to create abstract nouns, are also found in Thai, but they are much rarer than prefixes. The list of common suffixes is given below:

/sà:t/ - discipline, study, science, knowledge

/phā:să:sà:t/	(language + SFX3)	linguistics
/pràwàtsà:t/	(peofile + SFX)	history
/pê:tsà:t/	(doctor + SFX)	medicine

/kā:n/ is also a suffix referring to something related to work:

/thúrákā:n/	(errand + SFX)	general affairs
/kitteàkā:n/	(work + SFX)	business
/wíthī:kā:n/	(method + SFX)	procedure

/kō:n/ - agent

/phíthī:kō:n/	(ceremony + SFX)	master of ceremony
/phē:sàttehákō:n/	(pharmacy + SFX)	pharmacist
/wā:thájákō:n/	(music instrument + SFX)	conductor

/phâph/ - state, condition

/sàhâphâph/	(combine + SFX)	union
/sântìphâph/	(peaceful + SFX)	peace
/sě:rī:phâph/	(free + SFX)	liberty

/níjōm/ - popularity

/tchâ:tníjōm/	(nation + SFX)	nationalism
/thūnníjōm/	(capital + SFX)	capitalism

³ SFX is used as an abbreviation of the word 'SUFFIX'.

/sǎṅkhōmníjōm/	(social + SFX)	socialism
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/phān/ - equipment, implement, paraphernalia

/phālittàphān/	(to produce + SFX)	product
/khē:mī:phān/	(chemical + SFX)	chemical product
/sùkkhàphān/	(hygiene + SFX)	sanitary ware

/kām/ - action

/kā:jjākām/	(body + SFX)	acrobatics
/wā:thākām/	(speech + SFX)	discourse
/tēō:rākām/	(robber + SFX)	robbery

2.3.2. Reduplication

Reduplication is a process of repetition of the root, and it is employed to add various meanings to a word, such as softness, intensity, and plurality (Yule, 2006). In Thai, reduplication takes the root and its tone, and repeats it exactly. Some reduplications, often of adjectives, add emphasis, softness, approximation, or comparative meaning to the root:

/dī: dī:/	(good + good)	very good
/châ: châ:/	(slow + slow)	very slow
/rê:w rê:w/	(fast + fast)	very fast

There is also reduplication of nouns or classifiers to indicate plurality, but the number of nouns which can be reduplicated for this purpose is limited:

/dèk dèk/	child child	children
/sǎ:w sǎ:w/	girl girl	girls, young ladies
/wān wān/	day day	days

Some reduplications also appear with certain onomatopoeic words to indicate a succession of sounds or events:

/phrâm phrâm /	sound of continuous falling rain
/sù: sù:/	sound of heavy rain
/tík tík/	sound of a clock

Furthermore, there is another type of reduplication that takes the root and assigns it an emphatic high tone, irrespective of the inherent tone of the root, and uses this modified form as the first constituent of the reduplicated word. This type of reduplication emphasizes the meaning of the root and is used by women more frequently than men (Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom, 2009). The syllable with the emphatic high tone is stressed and underlined in the examples below:

/dì: dī:/	(?? + good)	really good
/ják jāk/	(?? + difficult)	really difficult
/ŋo: ŋō:/	(?? + stupid)	really stupid

Another common type of reduplication is formed by taking the initial consonant or a consonant cluster from the root and adding a different ending to it. For example, from the word /ciŋcaŋ/ ‘true’, the initial consonant /c/ is separated from the ending /-iŋ/, and a different ending /-aŋ/ is added to make a reduplicated form /ciŋ caŋ/ ‘seriously’. The root may appear before or after the copied form, depending on the word. The ending or the copied form is totally arbitrary:

/wō:jwāj/	(outcry + ??)	boisterous / to shout
/pl̥:tpl̥:n/	(?? + to enjoy)	to be amusing
/khrō:ŋkān/	(?? + work)	business
/ŋù:kjā:/	(?? + medicine)	medicine
/l̥:tl̥:/	(excellent + ??)	superb

2.3.3. Compounding

Compounding is a process of joining two roots to produce a new single form. This combining process is very common in languages such as German and English (Yule, 2006). This process is very common also in the Thai language to form new words with one new meaning. In general, the meaning of a compound is not the same as the simple sum of the meaning of its parts. The meaning can be entirely different from its parts, or the meaning can be partially linked to its parts.

On the basis of the relationship between the meaning of a compound and that of its constituents, two major types of compounds can be found, which are endocentric compounds and exocentric compounds. They are distinguished on the basis of whether or not the core meaning of the compound is similar to the meaning of one part. In other words, endocentric compounds have one word functioning as a semantic head of the compound (Singnoi, 2000). One example of a Thai endocentric compound is the word /májkwà:t/, which joins /máj/ 'stick' and /kwà:t/ 'to sweep', referring to a broom, i.e., a kind of a stick used to sweep the floor. Conversely, exocentric compounds do not have a semantic head; both words are typically equally important, such as the word /pà:k kâ:/, which combines /pà:k/ 'mouth' and /kâ:/ 'crow', and which means a pen.

Generally, compounds in Thai have the head on the left and non-head elements on the right:

/khōndū:/	(person + watch)	audience
/jānō:nlàb/	(medicine + lie +sleep)	sleeping pills
/khōnkhàbrót/	(person + drive + car)	driver

However, some compounds with the head on the right are also found in Thai. Most compounds in this group are composed of source words borrowed from Pali and Sanskrit. When two words are compounded, there is a rearrangement of sounds between two words, through an operation of doubling of the final sound of the first compounding element and the insertion of a vowel. Examples are given below:

Table 2.4: Right-headed compounds in Thai

Compound words	Source words	Meaning
/rátthàsà:t/	/rát + sà:t/ (state + study/science)	political science
/phū:mípràtê:t/	/phū:m + tê:t/ (land + view)	landscape
/sàwàtdìphâp/	/sawad + phaap/ (happiness + status)	safety
/tê:ppábùt/	/tê:p + bùt/ (god + son)	the son of God

Two headed compounds are also found in Thai. The two members are simply combined to form new words in the language typically described as ‘coordinate compounds’. See some examples below.

/rû:pphâp/	(picture-photo)	picture
/khăjmān/	(wax-fat)	fatty issue
/phǐwnăŋ/	(skin-leather)	skin
/phô:mě:/	(father-mother)	parents
/phûamīa/	(husband-wife)	married couple

Furthermore, headless compounds are also found in Thai. They express no head. Some headless compounds may present total unpredictability in terms of semantics. The only way to link the compound to the meanings of its compounding elements is probably by tracking its etymology and historical context. Several examples are given below:

/phǐ:sûa/	(ghost-shirt)	butterfly
/lû:ksûa/	(child-tiger)	boy scout
/hăŋsûa/	(tail-tiger)	helm

/lû:knám/ (child-water) mosquito larva

In Thai, various categorial types of compounds in Thai can be found: nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Compound nouns in Thai will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

Compound Nouns	/khruâṅbîn/	(engine + fly)	airplane
	/nâmkhě:ŋ/	(water + hard)	ice
Compound Verbs	/pājhă:/	(to go + to find)	to go to see
	/tə̀abkhâj/	(to catch + fever)	to have a fever
Compound Adjectives	/dû:dũṅ/	(naughty + to pull)	stubborn
	/wǎn jēn/	(hard + strong)	strong
	แข็งแรงแง		

Also, various categorial structures can be found, as shown below:

N+N	/ŋɔ̃:ndũuan/	(money + month)	salary
N+V	khruâṅbîn/	(engine + fly)	airplane
N+ADJ	/nâmkhě:ŋ/	(water + hard)	ice
N+PREP	/khâṅnô:k/	(person + out)	outsider
V+N	/tə̀abkhâj/	(to catch + fever)	have a fever
V+V	/pājhă:/	(to go + to find)	go to see
V+ADJ	/dû:thù:k/	(to look + right)	to insult
ADJ+V	/dû:dũṅ/	(naughty + to pull)	stubborn
ADJ+ADJ	/wǎn jēn/	(sweet + cold)	shaved ice

2.3.4. Doublet formation

A doublet is a type of word-formation process which occurs productively in Thai. It is a process of saying or repeating the same thing twice over in different words. The formation process of doublets is very similar to compounding, and it is sometimes called ‘compounding’. The only difference is that, generally, two or more free morphemes, which are of the same part of speech, and convey similar meaning, are joined to have a new word which emphasizes the meanings of the constituents more clearly, as in /jàj tō:/ (big + large) ‘huge’, /lék nó:ŋ/ (small + little) ‘very little’, and /rák khra:j/ (love + desire) ‘to love’.

Doublets are formed in order to avoid ambiguity or misunderstanding of monosyllabic words since the same word may have several different meanings when it stands alone in different contexts. The word /khàt/ below is a good example.

/khàt/ to polish

/khàtthũ:/ (to polish + to rub) to scrub

/khàt/ to oppose

/khàtkhwă:/ (to oppose + to obstruct) to stop

Another reason is that there are many homophones in the Thai language. It is difficult to know the exact meaning when that word is used separately. Thus, forming doublets with similar meaning indicates the precise definition of the words. Some examples are:

ค่า /khâ:/ cost

/khâ:ŋuad/ (cost + installment) installment

ฆ่า /khâ:/ to kill

/khâ:fān/ (to kill + to chop) to kill

มัน /mân/ stable

/mânkhōŋ/ (stable + to endure) stable/secure

หมั่น /mân/ to engage

/mânmă:j/ (to engage + to intend) to engage

The last reason is that as Thai is a tonal language, many Thai words contain the same consonant and vowel sounds with a slight difference in tone, so the meanings of words are varied. Consequently, in case of mishearing, the listeners may not understand the message clearly. Doubled words, therefore, are essential to emphasize the meaning of words precisely.

เสื่อ /sùua/ mat

/sùuasàt/ (mat + mat) mat

เสื้อ /sûa/ upper garment

/sûaphâ/ (upper garment + cloth) clothes

คำ /khām/ word

/thôjkhām/ (speech + word) statement/saying

ค่ำ /khâm/ night

/khâmkhū:n/ (night + night) night-time

In Thai the forms of doublets fall into three categories. The first is synonymous doublets. Two synonyms are combined to obtain a new word with no change in meaning. Some examples are shown below:

/sǔaj ñām/ (beautiful + beautiful) very beautiful

/sâw sò:k/ (sad + unhappy) very sad

/sáb sǐn/ (wealth + property) assets

/kháb khê:b/ (tight + narrow) narrow

The second is antonymous doublets, which consist of two words with opposite meanings. Unlike synonymous doublets, the semantics of antonymous doublets may not be compositional:

- the meaning of the whole is similar to that of the first word:

/khàt lǔa/	(lack + remain)	not enough, to lack
/təhǔa dī:/	(bad + good)	not good, bad

- the meaning of a whole is similar to that of the second word:

/thét tēīŋ/	(false + true)	factual, true
/khū:n wān/	(night-time + day-time)	day

- the meaning of a whole is an addition of those of the two source words:

/phū:jàj phu:nó:j/	(older person + younger person)	everyone
/pə:təpə:t pìtəpìt/	(open + close)	open and close repeatedly

- the meaning of the whole is opaque:

/sùk dīb/	(ripe + raw)	eve
/pāj pāj mā:mā:/	(go + come)	finally

Thirdly, interestingly, not only two roots can be associated into a doublet, but also reduplicated words and compounds can be formed as synonymic doublets. Some examples are:

/lûm lûm dō:n dō:n/	uncertain, inconsistent
/lûm/	basin
/dō:n/	highland
/pāj pāj mā: mā:/	finally
/pāj/	go
/mā:/	come

/thó:ŋrâj thó:ŋnā:/ farmland

/thó:ŋ rāj/ (field + farm) paddy

/thó:ŋ nā:/ (field + farm) paddy

/ʔjù:dī: kīndīn / to live well

/ʔjù: dī:/ (live + well) to live well

/kīn dīn/ (eat + well) to live well

/khōnjāk khōntēōn/ the poor

/khōn jāk/ (person + hard) the poor

/khōn tēōn/ (person + poor) the poor

2.3.5. Blending

Blending is a process of fusing two separate forms to produce a single new word. Typically, blending is accomplished by taking only the beginning of one source word and joining it to the ending of the other source word. In Thai, blending only occurs with source words borrowed from Pali and Sanskrit. In general, two words can be blended only when /ʔ/ is the initial consonant of the second source word. There is a change of either the final syllable of the first word, or the first syllable of the second word in different ways.

In a first case, the final vowel of the first source word and the initial consonant of the second source word are deleted:

Table 2.5: Blends in Thai

Blended words	Source words	Meaning
/máhō:lā:n/	/máhă:/+ /ʔō:lā:n/ (great + grand)	enormous
/phútthōwâ:t/	/phútthá:/+ /ʔō:wâ:t/	the speech of the Buddha

	(Buddha + speech)	
/pràtchā:kō:n/	/pràtchā:/+/?ā:kō:n/ (people + revenue)	population
/teĩtānā:kān/	/teĩtānā:/+/?ā:kān/ (to imagine + action)	imagination
/sùkhāphībā:n/	/sùkhā/ + /?āphībā:n / (toilet + to treat)	sanitation

In the second case, the final vowel of the first source word and the initial consonant of the second source word are deleted; but before the two source words were blended, the first vowel of the second source word is changed from:

/a/ to /a:/

/i/ to /e:/

/u/ to /u:/ or /o:/.

Blended words	Source words	Meaning
/pràtchā:thíbpātāj/	/pràtchā:/ + /?āthíbpātāj/ (people + sovereignty)	democracy
/máhě:sī:/	/máhā:/ + /?īsī:/ (great + woman)	a wife of the king
/nájō:bā:j/	/nájā/ + /?ūbāj/ (significance + device)	policy
/rā:tchínī: ?ùpāthām/	/rā:tchínī:/ + /?ùpāthām/ (queen + sponsor)	queen's patronage

In the last case, when there is nikhahit '(͡)', which is the symbol used in Pali and Sanskrit languages written on the consonant to replace the sound /aŋ/ and /am/ as in ण̎ /sāṇ/ and ण̎ /ṣāṇ/

/tɛ^hum.num/, on the first source word, the symbol ‘(ฌ)’ is changed to /m/ to begin the second word while the initial consonant of the second source word is deleted:

Blended words	Source words	Meaning
สมาคม /sà mā:khōm/	ฌ + อาคม /sǎŋ/ + /ʔā:khōm/ (prompt + to go)	association
สโมสร /sà mōsǎ:n/	ฌ + โอสร /sǎŋ/ + /ʔō:sǎn/ (prompt + meeting)	club

Nowadays, blended words in Thai cannot be identified easily because they were formed with Pali and Sanskrit elements, which are used harmoniously in the Thai language. In other words, the characteristics of Pali and Sanskrit are not taught much in school, so it is difficult for the new generation of speakers to recognize them.

2.3.6. Clipping

Clipping is extremely productive in Thai. It is a process which shortens a longer word. The first syllable of the original word is usually retained, but sometimes it is the last one. Sometimes there is a punctuation sign (๑) called /pājǎ:n nǒ:j/ which is added to some clipped words to indicate the process of shortening.

/hā:ŋ/	/hā:ŋsàbpàsǐnkhá:/	department store
/thō:/	/thō:rásàb/	to telephone
/phrá/	/phrásǎŋ/	monk

There are also clipped words which retain the first two syllables of the original word. This is because the first syllable already exists in the language. For example, the word /na.yokra:ttamontri:/, which means ‘Prime Minister’, was clipped as /na.yok/, and not only the first syllable /na:/, because it means ‘a rice field’. Sometimes the two retained syllables

can represent the meaning of a whole word clearly, such as the word /le:kha:/, clipped from /le:kha.nuka:n/, which means ‘a secretary’.

2.3.7. Abbreviation

Acronymy, which is another way to shorten longer words, creates new words by taking the initial letters of a set of words. English uses such acronyms as CD (< compact disk) or laser (< light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation). Acronyms are pronounced either as separate letters, or as new single word (Yule, 2006). Thai acronyms are read as a series of consonant letters with the unmarked vowel /ɔ:/⁴, and the dot ‘.’ is placed behind each letter.

Full words	Acronyms	Meaning
พุทธศักราช /phútthásàkkàrà:t/	พ.ศ. /phɔ: sɔ:/	the Buddhist calendar year
กิโลกรัม /kilò:krām/	ก.ก. /kɔ: kɔ:/	kilogram
โรงพยาบาล /rō:ŋpájā:bān/	ร.พ. /rɔ: phɔ:/	hospital
นักศึกษา /náksu̯ksǎ:/	น.ศ. /nɔ: sɔ:/	university student
จดหมาย /tɕòdmǎ:ŋ/	จ.ม. /tɕɔ: mɔ:/	letter

⁴ In Thai, all letters are read individually with the unmarked vowel /ɔ:/ such as /kɔ:/ for /k/, /khɔ:/ for /kh/, and so on.

2.3.8 Other types of lexical enrichment in Thai

2.3.8.1 Borrowing

The Asian region in which China has substantial influence is known as the “Sinophere.” Likewise, the “Indosphere” marks a region heavily influenced by India. The unique location of Thailand makes it part of both these influential nations. Thailand’s long history of trade with European powers and neighboring countries has provided the Thai language to become rich with words adopted from all parts of the globe (Suthiwan and Tadmor, 2009).

Throughout its history, Thai has borrowed many words from other languages. The earliest loans are from Middle Chinese. Borrowing from Mon-Khmer started after the migration of Tai into Southeast Asia in the XX century and continued for many centuries. Indic languages, especially Pali and Sanskrit, have contributed a very large body of loanwords in all semantic fields but especially in the sphere of religion. Later Thai borrowed from Near Eastern and European languages, as well as from vernacular Chinese languages. Examples of words borrowed from various languages are displayed below (Suthiwan and Tadmor, 2009).

Table 2.6: Words borrowed from various languages

Languages		
Pali	/sùrĭjā:/	sun
	/pàtsă:wá/	to pee
	/sănpHàt/	to touch
Sanskrit	/lô:k/	world
	/pā:jú/	storm
	/mê:k/	cloud
Mon-Khmer	/tè/	to kick
	/sămǒ:/	anchor
	/bānlú/	to arrive, to complete

Languages		
Chinese	/n̄:j/	butter
	/tā:w/	stove
	/pà:/	forest
Hindi	/sàbù:/	soap
	/bùrì:/	cigarette
	/wē:lā:/	time
Malay	/kràdà:t/	paper
	/sùrà:w/	mosque
	/lō:mā:/	dolphin
French	/kāfē:/	coffee
	/khū:pō:ŋ/	coupon

At the beginning of the 21st century, English is unquestionably the language with the greatest lexical influence on Thai. English, instead of Pali and Sanskrit languages, has played an important role in the Thai lexicon, covering a wide range of vocabulary in different domains such as science and technology, food and drinks, clothes and fashion, games and gambling, education, art recreation, medical sciences, music and dancing, and persons and positions (Loharat, 2009).

The acceptance of English words into the Thai language is done via speaking and writing among a variety of classes and educational levels. The borrowed words are written in Thai script, using Thai letters to transliterate English phonemes and spelling. The characteristics of English borrowed words can be summarized as follows:

1. Some English words are transferred directly with very little or no change.

/bā:/	bar
/ʔē:/	air
/khrī:m/	cream

/khlínìk/ clinic

/khē:/ care

2. Some English words are transferred with phonological changes and adaptation.

- Weak syllables are reduced.

retire /rúthāj/

metre /mé:t/

cashier /khê:ttehīa/

- Syllables composed of a consonant cluster are not permissible in the Thai phonological system. A vowel /a/ is added to separate the cluster.

spring /sàprīŋ/

stew /sàtū:/

steak /sàtèk/

- Some English initial consonants, which do not exist in Thai, have to be changed into close Thai phonemes.

–

English: /g/ /v/ /z/ /ʃ/ /tʃ/ /dʒ/

Thai: /k/ /w/ /s/ /tɕ^h/ /tɕ/ /j/

gang /k'é:ŋ/

visa /wī:sâ:/

zigzag /síksê:k/

shampoo /tehē:mpū:/

furniture /f̃r:nítẽr:/

jean /jē:n/

- Some English final consonants are replaced by other consonants.

English: /l/ /Ø/ /ʃ/ /tʃ/ /dʒ/

Thai: /n/ /t/ /t/ /t/ /t/

bill /bīn/

bath /bà:t/

brush /bràt/

coach /khó:t/

- English final clusters of two or three consonants are reduced to a single consonant.

English: /-kt/ /-ns/ /-st/ /-pt/ /-lk/ /-lm/ /-lv/ /-kst/

Thai: /-k/ /-n/ /-t/ /-p/ /-n/ /-m/ /-w/ /-k/

test /thê:t/

text /thék/

script /sàkhríp/

film /fīm/

switch /sàwìt/

- There is a change of vowel phonemes where the diphthongs and triphthongs ended by close vowels /i/ and /u/ are generally reduced to simple vowels. In English loanwords, the diphthongs and triphthongs are changed into:

English: /ai/ /ɔi/ /au/ /iu/ /aiə/ /ei/ /eə/ /ou/ /ɔə/

Thai: /aj/ /ɔj/ /aw/ /iw/ /aj/ /e:/ /ɛ:/ /o:/ /ɔ:/

necktie	/nê:kthāj/
boy	/bō:j/
view	/wīw/

The English diphthongs /ai/ and /au/ followed by a final consonant are also pronounced with the simple vowels /a/ or /aa/ followed by the semi-vowels /j/ and /w/ to close syllables. The final consonants of original English words are omitted in the pronunciation.

design	/dī:sā:w/
down	/dā:w/
gown	/kā:w/

- As Thai is a tonal language, tones are assigned automatically, according to the pronunciation and to the syllable-type of the borrowed words. Tone marks are not used in the written form of borrowed words, but their pronunciation follows the Thai rules of orthography. The high tone seems to be the favorite tone for English loanwords.

grade	/krè:t/
foot	/fút/
office	/ʔóffīt/
graph	/krá:p/
pleat	/plî:t/

3. There may be a process of hybridization, in which an English word and a Thai word are combined.

/pū:nsī:mēn/ /pū:n^{Thai} + sī:mēn^{English}/
(cement + cement)
‘cement’

/jāmsàlàd/	/jām ^{Thai} + sàlàd ^{English} /
	(salad + salad)
	‘salad’

/phūaŋrì:d/	/phūaŋ ^{Thai} + rì:d ^{English} /
	(bunch + wreath)
	‘wreath’

/r̄jô:t/	/r̄ ^{Thai} + jô:t ^{English} /
	(boat + yacht)
	‘yacht’

/rótbàt/	/ró ^{Thai} + bàt ^{English} /
	(vehicle + bus)
	‘bus’

4. Some other English loanwords are clipped and now appear preferably in their shorter form:

/mō:sā:j/	/mō:t̄sā:j/	motorcycle
/khō:m/	/khō:mp̄hīwt̄:/	computer
/líp/	/líp̄sátik/	lipstick
/bè:t/	/bè:tm̄intân/	badminton
/ʔē:/	/ʔē:khō:nditchān/	air-conditioner

2.3.8.2 Flipping

Flipping is a special form of morphological wordplay known in Thai as /kham phuan/, literally as ‘flipped words’. The process usually applies to a bisyllabic word or a bimorphemic word, and switches the vowels and tones of the two syllables/morphemes.

The tone pattern may or may not change. Flipped words are formed for the purpose of rhyming, to concealing vulgar words, and sometimes to play for fun. See examples below:

/sǐ: dē:ŋ/	<=>	/sɛ:ŋ dī:/
‘red’		‘good light’
/rɔ:ŋ hâj/	<=>	/ráj hô:ŋ/
‘cry’		‘without a room’
/nó:ŋ rák/	<=>	/nák ró:ŋ/
‘beloved younger sister or brother’		‘singer’

2.4. Conclusion

Thai is an isolating language in which grammatical categories, such as number, case, tense, aspect, and mood, are not marked by morphological inflection; they are implicit, and their identification depends on syntactic environments. Most Thai words are composed of a simple single immutable syllable. Thai words are assembled into larger forms by affixation, reduplication, doubling, compounding, blending, clipping and acronym. Borrowing and flipping are also found in the Thai language.

Chapter 3

Nominal Compounding in Thai

Chapter 3

Nominal Compounding in Thai

This chapter examines how nominal compounds are structured in Thai. The analysis is based on 333 compound nouns which have been collected from the three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New Words, a standard Thai dictionary published by the Office of the Royal Society. The three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New words were published in 2007, 2009 and 2011 respectively, in order to collect new words and new senses in present-day Thai. All compound nouns were selected manually for the present study, and they were analyzed in order to present a detailed picture of their main formal and semantic characteristics.

3.1. Definition of Compounding in Thai

The concept of compounding in different languages has been defined differently, and a number of criteria for the concept have also been proposed and applied differently in different languages. It seems that the study of compounding is further complicated due to the fact that compounds in some languages are accepted, but they would not be accepted as compound units in other languages (Bauer, 2006).

In Thai, a compound is considered as a complex word which consists of at least two free morphemes (Iwasaki and Ingkapirom, 2009, Thonglor, 2007, Timyam, 2015). It is a process of word formation based on the combination of two or more words in open lexical classes, which appears as an independent word in the language. The most common first constituent is a noun. Common second constituents are nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Compounding is considered a clear-cut lexical process: compounds are lexemes that derive from two or more simpler lexeme and tend to have idiosyncratic meaning so that they must be entered in dictionaries (Singnoi, 2000).

The structure of Thai compounds is varied with many possible combinations as described in Chapter 2 (See Section 2.3). There are favorite patterns of compounding in Thai such as Noun-Noun, Noun-Verb, and Noun-Adjective. Thai compounds structurally belong to noun compounds, verb compounds, and adjective compounds.

However, it is not always easy to predict the type of compound by simply examining the type and order of the constituents. The semantic relationship between the constituents within

a compound can also vary widely. The second constituent may modify the first, or the first may modify the second. Sometimes there is no modification relationship, and the compound elements are on an equal footing (coordinate compound). Also, the relationship between the meaning of component parts and the meaning of a compound as a whole may vary; the meaning of a compound may be identical to the sum (literal compounds), or may be completely different (figurative compounds).

Compounds in Thai can be also semantically divided into the endocentric and exocentric types. The meaning of an endocentric compound can be retrieved by combining the meaning of each compounding element; a subtype of their head is denoted. On the contrary, the meaning of an exocentric compound is beyond the meaning of its elements; it has idiomatic meaning which cannot be predicted from its components' meaning. Apart from these two types, there is a group of Thai compounds in which the semantics represents the sum of the meaning of each constituent part; because of its specific coordinative interpretation, each part contributes equally to the compound's meaning, with no head denoting the central sense (Timyam, 2015).

3.2. Formal Classification of Thai Compound Nouns

In the dictionaries of new words used for data collection, 333 compound nouns were found. 66.67% of the units were composed of two elements, 27.33% of three elements, 5.40 % of four elements and 0.30% of five elements.

Table 3.1: Number of elements in Thai compound nouns

	Frequency	%
2 elements	222	66.67
3 elements	91	27.33
4 elements	19	5.70
5 elements	1	0.30
Total	333	100

3.2.1. Binary compound nouns

From the 333 compound nouns in the data collection, it was found that 67% are composed of two elements, which is thus the major type of compound nouns in Thai. Among them, 36% consist of two nominal constituents, 14% of them are composed of a noun and an adjective, and 10% are from a noun and a verb. Also, there are other minor structures as displayed in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: The Lexical Structure of Binary Compound Nouns

	Structure	Frequency	%
1	Noun + Noun	122	36.93
2	Noun + Adjective	50	15.01
3	Noun + Verb	36	10.81
4	Noun + Preposition	7	2.10
5	Verb + Noun	6	1.80
6	Verb + Verb	1	0.30
		222	66.67

Table 3.2 shows all the structures of compound nouns with two elements. The findings show that the majority of compound nouns in the data collection are composed of a noun and a noun, a noun and an adjective, and a noun and a verb. The respective examples of the six groups of lexical structures are presented below.

(1) N-N

ถุงทะเล	/thŭŋthálē:/	bag-sea	‘a duffle bag’
ตู้เพลง	/tû:phlēŋ/	cabinet-song	‘a music box’
นมผึ้ง	/nōmphîŋ/	milk-bee	‘honeycomb’

(2) N-ADJ

จอแบน	/tɛ̌wːbɛːn/	screen-flat	‘a flat screen’
นมเปรี้ยว	/nõmpɾiːaːw/	milk-sour	‘yoghurt’
ของเก่า	/khǎːŋkàw/	thing-old	‘antique’

(3) N-V

ขนมอบ	/khànõmʔòp/	dessert-to bake	‘pastries’
ถุงนอน	/thũŋnõːn/	bag-to sleep	‘a sleeping bag’
กรงขัง	/krõŋkhǎŋ/	cage-to imprison	‘a jail’

(4) N-PREP

กางเกงใน	/kāːŋkēːŋnāj	pant-in	‘underwear’
หนองใน	/nǎːŋnāj/	pus-in	‘syphilis’
สภาล่าง	/sàphāːlāːŋ/	council-below	‘House of Representatives’

(5) V-N

เกาะอก	/kòːʔòk/	to cling-breast	‘a strapless dress’
ยกทรง	/jók̚sõŋ/	to lift-form	‘a brassiere’
ผัดซีอิ้ว	/phàtsīːʔíw/	to fry-soy sauce	‘a dish of fried noodles with soy sauce’

(6) V-V

จุ่ม	/cím cùm/	to dip-to immerse	‘a hot pot’
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From the examples of lexical structures above, it can be seen that binary compound nouns in Thai are not only composed of two nouns, but they are also combined with a noun and another word from different lexical categories such as an adjective, a verb, or a preposition. For example, there is a number of compound nouns relating to names of food whose non-

head elements indicate methods of cooking and ingredients. Most of these sequences are composed of N-V, like in the example (3).

Also, there is a certain number of compound nouns that are composed of a verb and a noun as illustrated in the examples (5). The verb-headed patterns allow their non-head to have a grammatical relation with the head verbs of the VERB-OBJECT type.

Only one Thai nominal compound, the example (6) found in the data set, is composed of two verbal constituents. This compound structure is comparatively less productive. The word *cîm cùm* is composed of *cîm* ‘dip’ and *cùm* ‘immerse’, which is the name of a Japanese dish, like *sukiyaki* (a hot pot), in which vegetables and meat are dipped in boiling water until they are cooked, and then they are immersed in different types of sauce before being eaten.

3.2.2. Compound nouns with three elements

It was found that there are 27 % of compound nouns which are composed of three elements, and are thus known as complex compounds that are very possible and quite common in Thai. The structures of compound nouns with three elements are shown in Table 3.3. The most productive types of compound nouns with three elements are N-N-N, N-V-N and N-N-ADJ.

Table 3.3: The Structures of Compound Nouns with Three Elements

	Structure	Frequency	%
1	Noun + Noun + Noun	30	9.00
2	Noun + Verb + Noun	30	9.00
3	Noun + Noun + Adjective	11	3.30
4	Noun + Noun + Verb	6	18.01
5	Noun + Verb + Adjective	2	0.60
6	Noun + Number + Noun	2	0.60
7	Noun + Noun + Adverb	1	0.30
8	Noun + Noun + Preposition	1	0.30

	Structure	Frequency	%
9	Noun + Noun + Number	1	0.30
10	Noun + Adverb + Noun	1	0.30
11	Noun + Adjective + Adjective	1	0.30
12	Noun + Adjective + Noun	1	0.30
13	Noun + Adjective + Verb	1	0.30
14	Noun + Preposition + Noun	1	0.30
15	Verb + Verb + Verb	1	0.30
16	Verb + Noun + Verb	1	0.30
		91	27.33

From the lexical structures in Table 3.3, when looking at the constituents carefully, it was found that 27% of three element compound nouns in the data set can be separated into two groups:

- 1) nominal compounds which consist of the juxtaposition of three independent lexemes, and
- 2) nominal compounds which come from the juxtaposition of an existing compound with a third lexeme. When considering the latter group, it can be seen that the compound nouns are all subordinative, and they have a hierarchical structure, which can be either right-branching or left-branching. Table 3.3 displays the distribution of the units in the data collection.

Table 3.4: The distribution of nominal compounds with three elements

	Frequency	%
Nominal compounds with three independent lexemes	67	20.21
Nominal compounds with the juxtaposition of an existing compound with a third lexeme	24	7.20
right-branching	18	5.40
left-branching	6	1.80

	Frequency	%
Total	91	27

3.2.2.1. Nominal compounds consisting of three independent lexemes

In the data set, there are 20.12 % of nominal compounds that are composed of three independent lexeme elements. The most productive types of compound nouns with three lexemes are N-N-N, N-V-N, N-N-ADJ, and N-N-V. The examples are given below.

(7) N-N-N

เงินก้นถุง	/ŋōnkōnthŭŋ/
	money-bottom-bag
	‘bottom dollar’
หนังกลางแปลง	/naŋkla:ŋple:ŋ/
	movie-center-plot of land
	‘outdoor theatre’

(8) N-V-N

ยาทาเล็บ	/jā:thā:lép/
	drug-to paint-nail
	‘nail varnish’
ฝายชะลอน้ำ	/fǎ:jchálō:ná:m/
	dam-to slow down-water
	‘check dam’

(9) N-N-ADJ

เสื้อคอกลม	/sŭa:khō:klōm/
	upper garment-neck-round

‘T-shirt’

อาหารจานด่วน /ʔā:hă:ncā:ndùan/
food-dish-urgent
‘fast food’

(10) N-N-V

เสื้อเอวลอย /sūa:ʔēwlɔ̌j/
shirt-waist-to float
‘cropped shirt’

แพทย์ทางเลือก /phê:thā:ɣlûak/
doctor-way-to choose
‘alternative medicine’

3.2.2.2. Nominal compounds formed with the juxtaposition of an existing compound with a third lexeme

In this group of compounds, made up of an existing binary compound and a lexeme, there is a hierarchical structure that can be right-branching or left-branching.

5.40 % of them show a combination of a lexeme and a compound with a right-branching structure with one single element as the head and two elements as modifiers. See the examples below.

(11) N-[N-N]

ฝนดาวตก /fǒndā:wtòk/
rain-[star-fall]
rain-meteor
‘meteor shower’

(12) N-[V-N]

อาหารสำเร็จรูป

/ʔā:hă:nsămrètrû:p/

food-[to complete-picture]

food-instant

‘instant food’

(13) N-[V-V]

ค่าคุ้มครอง

/khâ:khúmkrõ:ŋ/

cost-[to guard-to govern]

cost-protect

‘protection racket’

(14) N-[N-ADJ]

ชาวสีม่วง

/chā:wsĩ:mûaŋ/

person-[color-purple]

person-purple

‘a gay person’

1.8 % of them illustrate the following pattern: a left-branching structure with a right-hand-side head, and then this whole complex structure is itself modified by a third element.

(15) [N-N]-N

หัวหน้าทัวร์

/hũa:nâ:tũa:/

[head-face]-tour

leader-tour

‘a tour leader’

(16) [N-N]-ADJ

เจ้าภาพหลัก

/câwphâ:plàk/

[fellow-picture]-main

host-main

‘a main host in the event’

(17) [N-V]-ADJ

คำตอบสุดท้าย

/khāmtò:psùtthá:j/

[word-to answer]-final

response-final

‘a final conclusion’

(18) [V-N]-V

รองเท้าแตะ

/rõ:ŋtháwtè/

[to support-foot]-to touch

shoes-touch

‘sandals or slippers’

3.2.3. Compound nouns with four elements

Compound nouns in Thai can be modified to become more complex. They are further combined with all lexical categories or other compounds to produce longer compounds. In the data set, only 5.70% of compound nouns with four elements can be found. There are various structures as illustrated in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: The Structures of Compound Nouns with Four Elements

	Structures	Frequency	%
1	Noun + Noun + Noun + Noun	5	1.50
2	Verb + Noun + Verb + Noun	3	0.90
3	Noun + Verb + Verb + Verb	2	0.60
4	Noun + Noun + Noun + Adjective	1	0.30
5	Noun + Noun + Verb + Noun	1	0.30

	Structures	Frequency	%
6	Noun + Noun + Verb + Adjective	1	0.30
7	Noun + Verb + Noun + Adjective	1	0.30
8	Noun + Adjective + Verb + Noun	1	0.30
9	Noun + Adjective + Noun + Noun	1	0.30
10	Noun + Preposition + Verb + Noun	1	0.30
11	Noun + Preposition + Noun + Noun	1	0.30
12	Verb + Noun + Noun + Noun	1	0.30
		19	5.70

The compound nouns with four elements are also analyzed similarly to three-element compounds to see if they are composed of four lexemes, or they are formed by existing compounds. It was found that, among the 5.70% of in the data set, the constituents of four-element compounds can be categorized into four groups: 1) nominal compounds which consist of four independent lexemes, 2) nominal compounds which come from the juxtaposition of an existing compound with two independent lexemes, 3) nominal compounds which are the combination of two independent lexemes with the juxtaposition of an existing compound, and 4) an existing compound with another existing compound. The details of each group and the examples are presented as follows.

3.2.3.1. Nominal compounds consisted with four independent lexemes

Nominal compounds consisting of four independent lexemes can be found in the Thai language, but just only 0.30% of the units are composed in this way, as illustrated in the example below.

(19) N-N-N-ADJ

บ้านป่าเมืองเถื่อน /bâ:n.pà:.mūaŋ.thuɛn/

house-forest-city-uncivilized

‘undeveloped country’

The word /bâ:n.pà:.mūaŋ.thùn/ is only one unit that shows a combination of four lexemes to form a compound noun. This word may be considered as a combination of two compounds as /bâ:n.pà:/ ‘uncivilized city’ + /mūaŋ.thùn/ ‘uncivilized city’ used in a spoken language, but in the written language, it is never found that it is used separately. It can be thus claimed that the word /bâ:n.pà:.mūaŋ.thùn/ consists of four lexeme.

3.2.3.2. Nominal compounds consisting in the juxtaposition of an existing compound with two independent lexemes

It was found that 2% of compound nouns with four elements in the data set are found in the pattern of an existing compound combined with two independent lexemes. This illustrates that the left-branching structure is the head of a whole compound, which is modified by two modifiers. See examples below:

(20) [V-N]-V-N

รองเท้าหุ้มข้อ

/rõ:ŋthá.whûm.khõ:/

[to support-feet] - to cover-ankle

shoes-to cover-ankle

‘brogans’

(21) [N-V]-V-V

รถไถเดินตาม

/rótthăj.dõ:n.tā:m/

[car-to plough] - to walk-to follow

tractor-to walk-to follow

‘tiller’

3.2.3.3. Nominal compounds combining two independent lexemes with an existing compound

Another way to form compounds with four elements was found in the data set: the combination of two independent lexemes with an existing compound. The findings reveal that 1.20% are found with this pattern that displays the right-branching structure which is a modifier of the second element. See the examples below.

(22) N-PRRP-[N-N]

คนในเครื่องแบบ	/khōn.nāj.khrûaŋbè:p/
	person-in- [outfit-form]
	person-in-uniform
	‘soldier or police officer’

(23) N-V-[N-N]

สายรัดข้อมือ	/sǎ:j.rát.khō:mū:/
	srting-fasten-[joint-hand]
	srting-fasten-wrist
	‘wristband’

3.2.3.4. Nominal compounds combining an existing compound with another existing compound

2.70% of compound nouns with four elements are found in the pattern compound-compound, which is the most productive pattern of the compound nouns with four elements. The constituent ‘compound’ can be any type of nominal compound, and the compound-compound output can express semantic relations between the two main constituents exactly as N-N compounds do. Examples are shown below.

(23) [N-N]-[N-N]

กฎบัตรกฎหมาย	/kòtbàt.kòtmǎ:j/
	[regulation-card]-[regulation-warrant]
	charter-law
	‘charter and law’

(24) [N-V]-[N-ADJ]

กระโปรงบานขาสั้น	/kràprō:ŋbā:n.khǎ:sân/
	[skirt-to open out]-[leg-short]
	eight-panel skirt]-[shorts]
	‘secondary-school students’

Also, one constituent ‘compound’ can be any type of compound, like a compound verb, and the whole output compound is a noun as illustrated in the example (25) given below.

(25) [N-N]^N -[V-N]^V

น้ำยาฟอกขาว	/ná:myā:.fô:kkhǎ:w/
	[water-drug]-[to clean-white]
	chemical solution-whiten
	‘bleach’

3.2.4. Compound nouns with five elements

It is not common to find compound nouns with five elements. The more complex a compound, the less commonly it is found. It was found in only one word (0.30%) from all of compound nouns collected. Consider the word below.

(26) N-[N-ADJ]^N -[N-N]^N

ค่าน้ำร้อนน้ำชา	/khâ:.ná:mró:n.ná:mchā:/
	khâ-[ná:mró:n]-[ná:mchā:]

cost-[water-hot = 'hot water']-[water-tealeaf = 'tea']

‘a sum of money offered to bribe someone’

The word /khâ:.ná:mró:n.ná:mchā:/ is a right-branching structure constructed of the N-[N-ADJ]-[N-N] type, which metaphorically means a sum of money offered to bribe someone, especially the government officers. It was believed that the kind of money was intently offered to someone to pay for coffee or tea after negotiation in order to get a special treatment or to do some business faster.

3.2.5. Overview

333 compound nouns in Thai are constructed through the use of various grammatical categories. A majority of compound nouns have a head noun. However, there are also other compound nouns which do not have a noun as their first member. It is interesting to note that some nominal compounds in Thai are composed of verbal constituents and other parts of speech such as an adjective. The summary of their constructions is shown in Table 3.6

Table 3.6: The Summary of Nominal Compounding Constructions

	Structures	Frequency	%
	<u>5 major structures</u>		
1	Noun + Noun	122	36.63
2	Noun + Adjective	50	15.01
3	Noun + Verb	36	10.81
4	Noun + Noun + Noun	30	9.00
5	Noun + Verb + Noun	30	9.00
	<u>4 minor structures</u>		
6	Noun + Noun + Adjective	11	3.30
7	Noun + Noun + Verb	6	1.80
8	Verb + Noun	6	1.80

	Structures	Frequency	%
9	Noun + Noun + Noun + Noun	5	1.50
	<u>marginal structures</u>		
10	Verb + Noun + Verb + Noun	3	0.90
11	Noun + Verb + Adjective	2	0.60
12	Noun + Number + Noun	2	0.60
13	Noun + Verb + Verb + Verb	2	0.60
14	Noun + Preposition	1	0.30
15	Noun + Adverb	1	0.30
16	Verb + Verb	1	0.30
17	Noun + Noun + Adverb	1	0.30
18	Noun + Noun + Preposition	1	0.30
19	Noun + Noun + Number	1	0.30
20	Noun + Adverb + Noun	1	0.30
21	Noun + Adjective + Adjective	1	0.30
22	Noun + Adjective + Noun	1	0.30
23	Noun + Adjective + Verb	1	0.30
24	Noun + Preposition + Noun	1	0.30
25	Verb + Verb + Verb	1	0.30
26	Verb + Noun + Verb	1	0.30
27	Noun + Noun + Noun + Adjective	1	0.30
28	Noun + Noun + Verb + Noun	1	0.30
29	Noun + Noun + Verb + Adjective	1	0.30
30	Noun + Verb + Noun + Adjective	1	0.30
31	Noun + Adjective + Verb + Noun	1	0.30

	Structures	Frequency	%
32	Noun + Adjective + Noun + Noun	1	0.30
33	Noun + Preposition + Verb + Noun	1	0.30
34	Noun + Preposition + Noun + Noun	1	0.30
35	Verb + Noun + Noun + Noun	1	0.30
36	Noun + Noun + Adjective + Noun + Noun	1	0.30
		333	100

From the constructions displayed in Table 3.6, it is concluded that nominal compounds in Thai can be categorized into two main groups; 1) noun-noun compounds, and 2) synthetic nominal compounds, which show a grammatical relation between a noun and a verb, like the patterns N-V, N-V-N and V-N.

3.3. Semantic Classification of Thai Compounds

There are several criteria of semantic classification of compounds that have been proposed in previous studies of compounding. According to Bisetto & Scalise (2005), the classification of compounds is uniquely and consistently based on the possible grammatical relations holding between the two constituents of a compound, which are basically the relations that hold in syntactic constructions, which are:

- (1) coordination, with formations whose constituents are connected by ‘and’ and which have two heads
- (2) subordination, with a hierarchical argumental relation between the head and the non-head constituents
- (3) attribution, with a hierarchical non-argumental relation between the head and the non-head constituents.

Each type may be endocentric with a lexical head or exocentric without a lexical head (Bisetto & Scalise, 2005). The work of Arnaud & Renner (2014) singles out only two main types in noun-noun compounding, which are coordination, and subordination, the latter with

two main subclasses: attributive and relational compounds. They do not focus on the concepts of endocentricity and exocentricity in their classification.

In the analysis of the semantic classification of Thai compound nouns constructed through the use of various grammatical categories in this study, the classification argued for by Arnaud and Renner (2014) was adopted, with a main binary division in nominal compounding between subordinative and coordinative items. The distribution of types of compound nouns in Thai is shown in Table 3.7

Table 3.7: the Distribution of Types of Compound nouns in Thai

	Frequency	%
Coordinate compounds	7	2.10
Subordinate compounds	326	97.89
Total	333	100

3.3.1. Subordinate Compounds

Subordinate compounds are defined as compounds in which there is a hierarchical relation between the head and the non-head. According to the findings in the present study, an overwhelming majority (326 units or 98%) of nominal compounds in Thai are subordinate, with only one head. This finding is remarkable in itself because the proportion between subordinate and coordinate items is very similar to that given by Berg (2009) for English compounds.

Internal word ordering is rather constrained for subordinate compounds in Thai because the left-hand constituent is generally the most important element, which corresponds to the paraphrase *the NIN2 is an NI*, as shown in the given examples.

- (27) ขนมถาด /khànm̌.tà:t/
 dessert-tray
 ‘dessert put on a tray while baking or steaming’

- (28) ข้าวกล่อง /khâ:w.klò:ŋ/
 rice-box
 ‘ready-to-eat rice packed in boxes.’

The Thai subordinate compounds in the data set can be classified into two categories: attributive compounds and relational compounds. The proportion of the number of two subtypes is presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: The Distribution of Subtypes of Subordinate Compounds

	Frequency	%
Subordinate compounds		
Attributive	10	3.00
Relational	316	94.89
	326	97.89

3.3.1.1. Attributive Compounds

In an attributive compound, the non-head acts as a modifier of the head to show some resemblance. In Thai, there are 3.68% of subordinative attributive, which can be found in two different ways depending on the position of the head.

- An N_1N_2 is an N_1 that is like an N_2 .

- (28) กระเทยควาย /^{head}kwàt̃:j.khwā:j/
 transvestite buffalo
 ‘male transvestite’
 (= a transvestite who is strong like a buffalo)
- (29) กุหลาบหิน /^{head}kūlā:p.hĩn/
 rose stone
 ‘stone rose’
 (= a rose which is like stone)

- An N₁N₂ is an N₂ that is like an N₁.

(30) กระโปรงกางเกง /kràprō:ŋ.kā:ŋkē:ŋ^{head}/
 skirt-pants
 ‘culottes’
 (= pants which are like a skirt)

(31) กะลาหัว /kàlā:.hǔa:/
 coconut shell-head
 ‘skull’
 (= a head which is like a coconut shell)

From the data set of subordinative attributive compounds, left-headed units were found to be more numerous than right-headed units (3% vs 0.60%).

3.3.1.2. Relational Compounds

96.31% of Thai compound nouns examined in this study are relational, with a head element that conveys the main meaning, and a non-head element that modifies or describes its relation in certain aspects to the head.

(32) ขนเม่น /khǒn.mên/
 hair-porcupine
 ‘quill’

(33) ก๊ับข้าวถุง /kàpkhâ:w.thǔŋ/
 food-bag
 ‘food packed in small bags for selling’

(33) น้ำมันปลา /ná:mmānplā:/

oil-fish
'fish oil'

3.3.2. Coordinative Compounds

Coordinative compounds are those compounds whose elements can be interpreted as being joined by 'and'. Both elements are heads. There is no hierarchy between the constituents. They also belong to the same lexical category, and they are co-hyponyms. Coordinative compounds seem to be common in Southeast Asia (Bauer, 2009). However, in this study, only 2% of that data set are coordinate compounds, as shown below.

(34) กฎบัตรกฎหมาย /kòtbàt.kòtmǎ:j/

charter-law

'charter and law'

(35) เงินถุงเงินถัง /ŋǝnthũŋ.ŋǝnthāŋ/

money-in-a-bag-money-in-a-bucket

'a lot of money'

(36) แม่บ้านแม่เรือน /mê:bâ:n.mê:rũan/

housekeeper-housewife

'a woman who is very good at cooking and doing
housework'

(37) กระโปรงบานขาสั้น /kràprō:ŋbā:nkhǎ:sân/

opened-out skirt shorts

'high school students'

From the examples (34) – (37), some items can be analyzed as showing a logical addition of the constituents, as in /kòtbàt.kòtmǎ:j/, which indicates that an N1N2 is an N1 plus an N2, or as showing a semantic relation of synonymy, as in /ŋǝnthũŋ.ŋǝnthāŋ/ and /mê:bâ:n.mê:rũan/.

There are also coordinative compounds which are composed of two and three verbal constituents, but the whole unit is a noun, as shown in the examples (38) and (39).

- (38) จุ่ม /cǐm.cùm/
dip-immerse
‘a hot pot’ i.e. sukiyaki (a Japanese dish)
- (39) อาบน้ำ /ʔà:p.ʔòp.nûat/
bathe-stream-massage
‘a massage parlor’

The word /cǐm.cùm/ can also be analyzed as showing a logical addition of the constituents to indicate that an V1V2 is an object with which V1-ing plus V2-ing are taking place. The compound /ʔà:p.ʔòp.nûat/ is composed of three verbs [V₁-V₂-V₃]_N to indicate the actions of the people who work at a massage parlor, so this word metonymically acts to name the workplace. The finding is similar to that in the study by Singnoi (2000), where it was found that certain noun compounds in Thai are composed of verbal constituents. Two or three verbs coordinate in naming something that involves an activity indicated by action verbs or a state indicated by adjective/stative verbs. However, this type of compounds is not typical and productive.

3.3.3. Headedness of Thai Compound Nouns

The issue of the identification of the head in compounding is of particular interest since the position of morphological heads differs from one language to another. Generally, nominal compounds in Thai have the head on the left, having modifying constituents on the right, except those which are coordinate compounds, and those which have no head (Singnoi, 2000).

In this study, the analysis of headedness of all compound nouns in Thai is focused on (1) the existence of the head, (2) the number of heads and the position of the head. The identification of the head also covers metaphonymic heads, which are not interpreted literally, as in a compound like “/hǔa:.dām/” (head-black: someone whose head is black = ‘Asians’). The

compounding element “/hǎa:” in this case is metaphonymic (‘a blackhead is not a head’), but it is still a (secondary) head element to which the modifier “/dām/” attaches. Table 3.9 shows the distribution of the number and position of the head.

Table 3.9: The distribution of the number and position of heads

	Frequency	%
One-headed compounds	316	94.89
Left-headed compounds	309	92.79
Right-headed compounds	6	1.80
Two-headed compounds	7	2.10
Headless compounds	10	3.00
Total	333	100

The findings show the distribution of the three groups which were found: 94.30% of one-headed compounds, 2.10 % of two-headed compounds (coordinative units described in Section 3.1.2), and 13.60% of headless compounds. Among one-headed compounds, it was found that 92.79% have the head on the left, while 2.10% are right-headed compounds. The description and the examples of left-headed compounds, right-headed compounds and headless compounds are described as follows.

3.3.3.1. Left-headed Compounds

It can be seen that the majority of Thai compound nouns have the head on the left. Subordinate left-headed compounds are divided into two subtypes: 90.39 % of relational subordinate compounds, and 2.40% of attributive compounds. The distribution of the number of occurrences is presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: The distribution of types of left-headed compounds

	Frequency	%
Left-headed compounds		
Relational	301	90.39
Attributive	8	2.40
Total	309	92.79

Examples of nominal left-headed compounds are presented below in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Examples of left-headed compounds

Compound	Class	Head	Gloss
/sà.ná:m/	REL	L	pond-water = ‘a pool’
/krōŋ.khǎŋ/	REL	L	cage-imprison = ‘a jail’
/tìk.ráfá:/	REL	L	building-very high = ‘a skyscraper’
/tūa:.nǒ:n/	ATT	L	body-worm = ‘a pavement’ (i.e. a body which is like a worm)
/ŋā:n.chá:ŋ/	ATT	L	work-elephant = ‘a mega-project’ (i.e. a project which is as big as an elephant)
/kwàt̃:j.khwā:j/	ATT	L	transvestite-buffalo = ‘a strong transvestite’ (i.e. a (male) transvestite, a transvestite who is as strong as a buffalo)

In these examples, a categorial test of the type ‘an N1N2 is an N1’ can be used to identify the first constituent as the head of the compound. For example, in the compound /sà.ná:m/ (pond-water), /sà/ is the head of the compound, to indicate the place with water where people swim.

3.3.3.2. Right-headed Compounds

Only 1.80 % of subordinative right-headed compound nouns were found in the data set, and they can be either relational or attributive compounds, as shown in Table 3.12 below.

Table 3.12: The distribution of types of right-headed compounds

	Frequency	%
Right-headed compounds		
Relational	5	1.50
Attributive	1	0.60
Total	6	1.80

Examples of nominal right-headed compounds are presented below in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Examples of right-headed compounds

Compound	Class	Head	Gloss
/phútthá.phā:.nít/	REL	R	Buddhist-commerce = ‘Buddhist commercials’
/kràthŋ.thūa:/	REL	R	Kathin ⁵ -tour = ‘a group of people travelling to the temple to present Kathins to the monks’
/kàlām.dò:k/	REL	R	cabbage-flower = ‘cauliflower’
/kràprō:ŋ.kā:ŋkē:ŋ/	ATT	R	skirt-pants = ‘culottes’

As mentioned in Chapter 2, most Thai compounds which are composed of source words borrowed from Indic languages, like Pali and Sanskrit, have their head on the right. In the

⁵ Kathin is the name of the yellow robe offered to the monks. Thai people usually travel to the temples before Buddhist Lent Day to offer kathins to the monks, for them to use during the rainy season.

present study, very few compounds in Thai are right-headed. It is explainable by different reasons as follows:

- Firstly, the word /phútthá.phā:nít/ is composed of source words borrowed from Pali and Sanskrit, so its head is on the right, as based on the word-formation rules of the borrowed languages.

- Secondly, the word /kràthín.thūa:/ is a hybrid compound, which is a mix of Thai (kràthín) and English (thūa: [= tour]). A word borrowed from English acts as the head, while a Thai word acts as a modifier. It is the English right-headed pattern which has been borrowed here.

- Thirdly, a compound like /kàlām.dò:/ is loan translation whereby the semantic components of the original English units have been literally translated into Thai. This is explainable by the fact that nowadays many English words are borrowed, including multiword units, and they are translated while keeping the word structure of the donor language.

- Lastly, a compound such as /kràprō:ŋ.kā:ŋkē:ŋ/ is composed of Thai words, but the head is on the right. Also, this word is attributive, that is an N1N2 is an N2 which is like an N1. This can be explained by the fact that the word /kràprō:ŋ.kā:ŋkē:ŋ/ was coined and entered into a dictionary in 2009 as a new innovation, and it may be predicted that the word was translated from English language by redefining its definition as ‘trousers that look like a skirt’, and the translation in Thai may be written based on the structure of language donor. Another prediction is that it may be denoted from the appearance of this lower-garment that really looks like a skirt, so the word ‘kràprō:ŋ’ may be considered that it is an keyword to put on the left as other common compounds.

Graphic 8: Excerpt from the dictionary

/kràprō:ŋkǎ:ŋkē:ŋ/ n. trousers that look like a skirt

กระโปรงกางเกง น. กางเกงที่ดูเหมือนกระโปรง เช่น ไปเที่ยวคราวนี้เราใส่
กระโปรงกางเกงกันดีไหม ดูเรียบร้อยแต่ก็สะดวก. คมม.
กระเปรง, กะเปรง.



พจนานุกรมคำใหม่ เล่ม ๒ ฉบับราชบัณฑิตยสถาน

3.3.3.3. Headless Compounds

Headless compounds present semantics that are totally unpredictable. The only way to link the compound to its meaning is by tracking its etymology and historical context. It is occasionally seen that a small number of compounds seem to present one or more of the semantic relations.

In the present study, in addition to one- and two-headed compound nouns, 2.11% of compound nouns in which there is no head are also attested in Thai. Most of them are of the V-N type, where the noun is an object of the verb. Other minor structures are also found: ADJ-N, N-V and N-N. All headless compounds in the data set are shown below.

(40) V-N

เกาะอก	/kòʔòk/	to cling-breast	a strapless dress
รวมมิตร	/rūammít/	to mix-friend	name of a Thai dessert which is combined with a variety of fruit
ยกทรง	/jóksoŋ/	to lift-body	shape brassiere
ผัดกระเพรา	/phàtkàphrāw/	to fry-basil	a dish of meat sautéed with fresh basil
ผัดซีอิ้ว	/phàtsī:ʔíw/	to fry-soy sauce	a dish of noodles fried x with meat, vegetable, and soy sauce

(41) ADJ-N

ครึ่งเสี้ยว	/khrîŋsî:aw/	half-quarter	crescent
หน้าห้อง	/nâ:hô:ŋ/	front-room	secretary

(42) N-V

แกนนำ	/kē:nnām/	axle-lead	backbone
ก้นกรอง	/kônkrō:ŋ/	buttock-sift	cigarette butt

(43) N-N

กะลาหัว	/kâlā:.hũa:/	coconut shell-head	body; skull
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From the compound nouns presented above, it can be seen that although neither the left nor the right hand-side element is the head of the compound, they contain the sum of the meaning of the constituents. For example, the compound in (40), /kò.ʔòk/, is a kind of upper garment without shoulder straps, but it clings tightly on the breasts or a person's chest.

3.3.4. Metaphtonymic Shifts

Semantically a compound in Thai is typically highly transparent when it is coined, but once it has been accepted into the vocabulary, it may become arbitrary as any single lexical word (Singnoi, 2000). Noun compounds in Thai vary in semantic transparency. In Thai, there are many compounds in which one of the elements is metaphorically or metonymically used while the other remains literal.

In the present study, the collected compounds have differing degrees of opacification. Certain members of compounds are transparent whereas a number of others are not. 96.99% of compound nouns in the data set, excluding headless compounds, can thus be classified into four fundamental types. The distribution of four types is presented in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14: The distribution of the four types of semantic transparency/opacity

	Frequency	%
transparency of both elements	208	62.47
transparency of the head element	42	12.61
transparency of the non-head element	34	10.21
opacity of both elements of the compound	39	11.41
Total	323	96.99

The details and examples of each type are described as follows.

3.3.4.1. Transparency of all elements of the compound

Transparent compounds convey the meaning directly from each element, and the whole meaning can be figured out by an analysis of their parts or morphemes. From examined compound nouns, 62.47% of them are literal and transparent. Table 3.15 shows the examples of compound nouns in this group.

Table 3.15: Transparent compounds

Compound	Class	Head	Gloss
/thũŋ.nõ:n/	REL	L	bag-sleep 'sleeping bag'
/kã:ŋkẽ:ŋ.chã:w.khǎw/	REL	L	pants-hill tribe 'tribal pants'
/kòtbát.kòtmǎ:j/	COR	-	charter-law 'charter and law'
/mê:bâ:n.mê:rũan/	COR	-	housekeeper-housewife 'a woman who is very good at doing housework and cooking'

The compound nouns in Table 3.15 are totally literal. The semantic transparency of compounds was evaluated separately in relation to each constituent. Each one appears literally in the paraphrase of the compound: for example, for the compound ‘/kā:ŋkē:ŋ.chā:w.khǎw/’ (pants-hill tribe), "the tribal pants are pants of the hill tribe".

3.3.4.2. Transparency of the head member, opacity of the non-head member

In Thai, noun compounds differ in their semantic transparency. There are compounds in Thai in which one of the elements is used figuratively or metonymically while the other is used literally. In the present study, it was found that 10.21% of the collected units are composed of a transparent head and a figurative non-head element. The examples of compound nouns in this group are shown below.

(44) ข่าวโคมลอย

/khà:w.khō:m.lō:j/

news-floating balloon

‘rumor, unfounded news’

(45) งานช้าง

/ŋā:n.chá:ŋ/

work-elephant

‘a mega project’

(46) กะเทยควาย

/kàthō:j.khwā:j/

transvestite-buffalo

‘masculine transvestite’

From the examples given, it can be seen that the head element is interpreted literally, while the non-head element goes through the process of metaphor for compounds like the example (44) /khà:w.khō:m.lō:j/ and (45) /ŋā:n.chá:ŋ/. The non-head element of the example (46) /kàthō:j.khwā:j/ is interpreted metonymically to conceptualize the meaning of the unit.

3.3.4.3. Transparency of the non-head member, opacity of the head member

There are 10.21% of compound nouns in the data set composed of an opaque head and transparent non-head elements.

(47) มารศาสนา

/mā:nsà:tsànǎ:/

devil-religion

‘a person who always mocks religion’

(48) ²ຈີເລີບ

/khî:.lép/

excrement-nail

‘nail dirt’

(49) พ่อเมือง

/phô:.m̄iaŋ/

father-city

‘provincial governor’

From the examples given above, it can be concluded that the non-head elements are interpreted literally, while the head elements go through the process of metaphor.

3.3.4.4. Metaphonymic compounds: Opacity of both elements of the compound

Thai has a large number of lexical units which cannot be interpreted literally. There is no straightforwardly predictable semantic relationship between the constituents. There are also a number of Thai metaphorical and metonymic compounds that allow people to communicate their intended meaning as well as conceptualize the world around them. In the data set of Thai nominal compounds, 11.41% of the examined units appear unpredictable in their compositional interpretation that denote an entity which does not result from their

constituents. All elements of the compounds are opaque; they have also gone through the process of figurativeness in two degrees: metonymy and metaphor. See the examples below.

(50) ดอกไม้เหล็ก

/dò:kmá:j.lèk/

flower-steel

‘a woman who is strong and patient to handle and cope with difficulty’

(51) ขาใหญ่

/khǎ:.jàj/

leg-big

‘a client who always buys many products at a particular shop’

(52) เจ้าโลก

/câw.lô:k/

the great one-world

‘genitals’

From the examples (50), it can be seen that the head element of each compound, which literally refers to a plant, metaphorically refers to a person, and the non-head element conceptualizes the characteristics to modify the head element. Additionally, as shown in the examples (51)-(52), there are compound nouns composed of figurative elements that denote the entity metonymically.

3.4. Conclusion

The process of compounding is very productive in Thai. The number of elements in compounds goes from two to five lexeme elements, and the structures of compound nouns are varied, up to 36 patterns from a variety of different lexical categories, the top five of which are [N-N], [N-ADJ], [N-V], [N-N-N], and [N-V-N]. The position of the head can canonically be found on the left. Very few of them have the head on the right. Semantically, the number of transparent compounds is high, but interestingly many compound nouns exist in Thai where one of the elements is used metaphorically or metonymically while the other

remains literal; in addition, the number of opaque compound nouns where both of elements are not interpreted literally is remarkably high.

Chapter 4

Nominal Compounding in English

Chapter 4

Nominal Compounding in English

This chapter examines how nominal compounds are structured in English. The analysis is based on 245 compound nouns which have been collected from the Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW) published in 1998. This dictionary covers new words which have been in the news in the decade and a half between the beginning of the eighties and the mid-nineties. All compound nouns were selected manually for the present study, and they were analyzed in order to present a detailed picture of their main formal and semantic characteristics.

4.1. Definition of Compounds in English

Compounding is the most productive means to create new words in English. Compounds are viewed as entities formed by a process of compounding, which is a process of putting two lexemes together to form a larger word with certain predictable qualities. There are numerous patterns of compound formation, which can be distinguished on the basis of formal and semantic criteria. Compounds systematically combine words of certain categories; they display certain predictable stress patterns, and they are interpreted in principled ways.

Compounding is usually defined as the creation of words made up of two lexemes. Compounds are often different from phrases by having the morphological structure of single words. In English, the stress pattern in compounds is often seen as a compound status indicator. The structures of compounds may be recursive, as illustrated by the compound *technology transfer office*, which combined the compound *technology transfer* and the lexeme *office*; that is, a compound can be an element in another compound, which can be analyzed as a series of binary structures (Bauer, 2009). Similarly, in the definition of Lieber and Stekauer, a compound is defined as a combination of two or more lexemes; however, it is better to say that the term *lexeme* should be specific enough to exclude affixes, but it should be broad enough to include the roots, stems and free words (Lieber & Stekauer, 2009). Also, this definition matches with Plag's conceptualization that compounding is defined as the combination of two elements, the first of which is either a root, a word or a phrase, the second of which is either a root or a word (Plag, 2018). As defined by Kavka (2009), a compound is a word formed by the combination of two or more simplex words that represent

a larger lexeme than is commonly and traditionally believed, and that represents a syntactically and semantically distinct unit that is fully variable in the current context. However, it is not easy to identify a satisfying and universally applicable definition of compounds. This is because the elements that make up compounding in some languages are not free-standing words, but rather stems or roots. Another reason is that there is no a clear distinction between compound words, derived words or phrases (Lieber & Stekauer, 2009). In English, there is no certain structure for word formation in both phrases and compounds. This is because their morphosyntax is not different. For instance, both phrases and compounds do not have an inflectional ending on an adjectival first element. In English, both adjectives and nouns can be modifiers in noun phrases. The structure N-N is not always a compound. It is ambiguous to identify the differences between phrases and compounds in English. Stress, however, can be a criterion to classify phrases and compounds. For example, when main stress is on the first element, it is a compound, whereas it is a phrase when the stress is on the second one. The second criterion is semantic. That is, the meaning of all the words in a compound cannot be separately reduced while the meaning of the words in a phrase can be interpreted separately. Because of complex lexemes, the criterion, however, does not work to identify the status of compound. Plenty of opaque compounds are not semantically clear to a greater or lesser degree.

In this study, the compound words that have been collected were chosen based on the list of criteria to be considered the characteristics of English nominal compounding as follows:

(1) The lexicon classifies compounds as units created by compounding, which is the process of joining two or more lexemes to create a larger word with a new connotation and predictable qualities.

(2) An affix cannot be inserted into a compound because compounds are uninterruptable units, according to syntactic atomicity.

(3) The stress falls on the left element for compounds, but in case of an A-N construction, right-most stress is accepted for compounds if they are composed of a relational adjective.

(4) Compounding can be regarded as the formation of words through the combination of lexemes that are written in solid, hyphenated, or spaced form.

(5) There is the possibility of modifying NN constructs into $[N[A+N]]$ or $[[A+N]N]$, but the adjective cannot be sub-modified by *very*, *rather*, *so*, etc.

(6) Nominal compounds are formed with words belonging to various lexical categories, but the whole unit is a noun.

4.2. Formal Classification of Compound Nouns in English

Generally, a compound noun in English is a grammatical structure in which nouns are linked together, or they are formed with words belonging to various lexical categories such as a noun and a noun (e.g. family business), a verb and a noun (e.g. waitperson), or an adjective and a noun (e.g. greenhouse).

In the dictionary of new words used for data collection, the 245 identified compound nouns consist of combinations of different lexical categories, with two to three elements. Regarding the number of elements of compound nouns in the data set, 97.14% consist of two elements, and only 2.86% compose of three elements as presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: The number of elements of English compound nouns

	Frequency	%
2 elements	238	97.14
3 elements	7	2.86
Total	245	100

4.2.1 Binary compound nouns

The majority of identified compound nouns in the data set combines with two elements, which is the major type of compound noun in English. The constituents are, however, not always two nouns, they may also belong to various lexical categories as presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Lexical Structure of Binary Compound Nouns

	Structure	Frequency	%
1	Noun-Noun	165	67.34
2	Adjective-Noun	65	26.53
3	Verb-Noun	3	1.21
4	Verb -Verb	2	0.81
5	Noun-Adverb	2	0.81
6	Adjective-Adjective	1	0.40
		238	97.10

All structures of compound nouns with two elements in Table 4.2 show that there is a high preference for a noun plus a noun (67.34%) and an adjective plus a noun (26.53%). There are also other minor structures such as a verb and a noun, a verb and a verb, a noun and an adverb and an adjective and an adjective. The respective examples of the six groups of lexical structures are presented below.

(1) N-N

Noun-noun compounds form the most productive type of compound in English, which can be seen in the results of the data collection, with more than a half of the total number of collected units, or about 67.34%.

acquaintance rape	‘a rape committed by an acquaintance’
step aerobics	‘aerobics involving stepping’
juice box	‘a box containing juice’
animal companion	‘a companion which is an animal’
bail bandit	‘a bandit committing a crime while on bail awaiting trial’

(2) ADJ-N

It is intricate to identify compound nouns in an ADJ-N construction depending on the rules such as orthography, stress, and types of adjective that the compounds consist of, and which work as modifying elements. There are 26.53% of compound nouns that are composed of an adjective and a noun. In this study, an ADJ-N construction is accepted if the nouns are combined with adjectives as the first element characterized as following:

- relational adjectives, written with a solid or spaced spelling and stressed on the leftmost compounding element:

functional food /'fʌŋkʃ(ə)n(ə)l fu:d/

‘a foodstuff which contains additives specially designed to promote health and longevity’

recreational drug /rɛkrɪ'eɪʃənl drʌg/

‘a drug regarded as a source of pleasure and enjoyment for one's leisure moment’

dental dam /'dɛnt(ə)l dam/

‘a piece of latex held over the mouth as a barrier against infection in oral sex’

- relational adjectives, written with a solid or spaced spelling and stressed on the rightmost element:

ecological footprint /i:kələdʒɪkl 'fʊtprint/

‘something which has had a permanent (and damaging) effect on the surrounding environment’

- non-relational adjectives, written with a solid spelling and stressed on the leftmost element:

commonhold /'kɒmənɦəʊld/

‘a system of freehold tenure of a unit within a multi-occupancy building, but with shared responsibility for common service’

downshifter /'daʊnʃɪftə/

‘a person who makes a change of career or lifestyle to a mode that is less pressured and demanding’

hardcore /'hɑ:dkɔ:/

‘a type of fast, harsh music, especially techno’

(3) V-N

There are compound nouns whose first element is analyzed as a verb, and the second element as a noun. See examples below:

scratch card ‘a card that someone has to scratch’

‘a card to be scratched away by someone to reveal a symbol indicating whether a prize has been won in a competition’

waitperson ‘someone waiting on restaurant patrons’

‘a person who serves a visitor in a restaurant’

In some cases, it is unclear whether one should analyze the first element as a verb or a noun. Some examples are given below:

spell-check V-N ‘a check of the proper way to spell’

or N-N ‘a check of the spell(ing)’

helpdesk V-N ‘a desk to help people’

or N-N ‘a desk to offer help’

escape key V-N ‘a key to escape from something’

or N-N ‘a key used for an escape from something’

Given that it seems possible to paraphrase them using two nouns, it would seem more logical to conclude that they combine a noun with another a noun, rather than a verb and a noun. Because of the ambiguity, these three units can be classified as a special category, V/N-N.

(4) V-V

In the study, only 0.81% of compound nouns found consist of two verbs. Like verbal compounds combining two verbs, they can be interpreted as units in which the first verb denotes the manner in which the action denoted by the second verb is performed. Some compound nouns consisting of two verbal elements can be interpreted in a similar way as the verb-verb coordinate compounds mentioned by Renner (2008):

<i>cook-chill</i>	to X and then to Y to cook and then to chill ‘the process of pre-cooking and refrigerating foods for reheating later’
<i>kick-start</i>	to X and then to Y to kick and then to start ‘a way to start by kicking forcefully’

(5) N-ADV

Compounds which combine a noun and an adverb are also attested in English (e.g. hanger-on, passer-by). In the study, only two compound nouns or 0.81% combining a noun and an adverb are found in the data set. It is a bit difficult to explain how this kind of compound nouns has been formed. Maybe they were formed through compounding, or they were created through other morphological processes, like conversion. Consider the three examples below:

cash-back /'kʌʃbʌk/

‘a free facility offered by a retailer whereby a customer may withdraw a limited amount of cash when making a credit or debit purchase, the amount of which is added to the bill’

year out /'jiə aot/

‘a period of one academic year taken as a break from formal education by a student between leaving school and taking up a place at college or university’

A careful analysis is needed to decide if these two words are compounds. These two words are included in the data set as compound units because these two items consist of two lexemes that are inseparable, and they show the characteristics of left-hand stress pattern of English compounds, and they are clearly not right-headed compounds.

(6) ADJ-ADJ

There is one compound noun in the data set which is composed of an adjective and an adjective.

new romantic

‘a follower of a British youth cult and fashion of the early eighties which combined elements of punk and glam-rock to form a style’

4.2.2 English compound nouns with three elements

In the study, there are only 2.86 % % of compound nouns with three elements found in the examined units. In this study, only 7 compound nouns consist of 3 nominal constituents (N-N-N). They are formed into two different patterns, as described in next sections.

4.2.2.1 Nominal compounds consisting of three lexemes

Only one compound is combined with three lexemes.

technology transfer office

technology-transfer office

4.2.2.2 Nominal compounds formed with the juxtaposition of an existing compound with a lexeme

There are 6 compound nouns that come from the juxtaposition of an existing compound with a lexeme, and the occurrence of recursiveness with left-branching. There is not any occurrence of recursiveness with right-branching found in the data set.

barfly jumping	[bar-fly]-jumping
keyhole surgery	[key-hole]-surgery
set-top box	[set-top]-box
airport fiction	[air-port]-fiction
stakeholder economy	[stake-holder]-economy
lipstick lesbian	[lip-stick]-lesbian

4.2.3 Spelling

As compounds can be written in three different ways, in a solid, hyphenated, or spaced form, some compounds in ODNW have two different spellings (e.g. *road-kill* and *roadkill*, *bank assurance* and *bankassurance*, *news group* and *newsgroup*), but most compound nouns prefer one spelling. In the data set, it was found that the majority of compound nouns collected in the ODNW are written with a space. The numbers and percentages of the different spellings are shown in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Proportions of the different forms of spelling

	Spelling	Frequency	%
1	Hyphenated	26	10.61
2	Solid	40	16.42
3	Spaced	179	73.06
		245	100

(1) Spaced compounds

Spaced compounds are the most productive with 73.06% on the basis of the collected data. A compound, which is created by putting two words together with an interword spacing, combines elements which exhibit the same lexical category, like (N N), and in case when the modifying adjective is used with a noun to create a new word. It was found that half of the spaced compounds correspond to a noun and noun combination (N N) and compounds with three elements (N N N) as in the compounds below:

N N	<i>voice mail</i>
	<i>loyalty card</i>
	<i>home cinema</i>
N N N	<i>technology transfer office</i>

Also, most compound nouns combining an adjective and a noun (ADJ-N) are written with a space, as in the compounds below:

ADJ N	<i>dental dam</i>
	<i>magic realism</i>
	<i>open system</i>

(2) Solid compounds

16.19% of English compound nouns are written in a solid form without any interword spacing. Compound nouns composed of NN and ADJN may be written solid. See the examples below.

NN	<i>benchmark</i>
	<i>chipset</i>
	<i>fundholder</i>
ADJN	<i>commonhold</i>
	<i>hardcore</i>
	<i>queercore</i>

There are other minor lexical categories of constituents of English compounds which are written solid.

VN	<i>waitperson</i>
	<i>slaphead</i>

(3) Hyphenated compounds

10.61% of English compound nouns are hyphenated. From the morphological structures of compound nouns in the Table 4.3, it is obvious to see that compound nouns can be hyphenated when either they consist of the same lexical categories such as the compounds *wolf-dog* (N-N), or they are composed of different lexical categories such as *hot-desking* (ADJ-N). However, after careful observing, it was found that all the compound nouns in the data set which are composed of a verb and a verb are hyphenated, as shown below.

V-V	<i>cook-chill</i>
	<i>kick-start</i>

This may correspond to the interpretation of compound nouns consisting of two verbal elements mentioned by Renner (2008): to X and then to Y as described in Section 4.2.1.(4) that a hyphen is used to refer to ‘and then’.

Compounds were usually hyphenated, but the tendency is now to write them as either one solid word or two separate words. It is hard to make a conclusion about the rules to hyphenate between two or more words to form compounds, and it may be arbitrary to have the hyphen between two lexemes.

4.2.4 Overview

245 compound nouns in English are constructed through the use of various grammatical categories. Seven structures occur in the sample of English compound nouns, whereby two or three lexemes from the same or different classes are joined together. There is a remarkable preference for the structure noun-noun. As shown in Table 4.4, one of the elements of the compound noun can be a noun combined with another lexical category. However, a compound noun may be obtained through the combination of non-noun elements, like V-V and ADJ-ADJ.

Table 4.4: The Summary of Nominal Compounding Constructions in English

	Structures	Frequency	%
	<u>3 major structures</u>		
1	Noun-Noun	166	
2	Adjective-Noun	64	
3	Noun-Noun-Noun	7	
	<u>4 minor structures</u>		
4	Verb-Noun	3	
5	Verb-Verb	2	
6	Noun-Adverb	2	
7	Adjective-Adjective	1	
		245	100

4.3 Semantic Classification of English Compound Nouns

In English, there is a wide range of possible semantic relations between the elements of compound nouns. The classification first relies on the existence or non-existence of a hierarchical relation between the constituents of the compound, which corresponds to two possible relations: subordination and coordination.

As with the analysis of Thai compound nouns, the classification argued for by Arnaud and Renner (2014) was adopted for a semantic classification of nominal compounding, except for headless compounds, which are described in Chapter 3, Section 3.3. For subordinate compounds, two subclasses are distinguished: attributive compounds and relational compounds. The distribution of types of compound nouns in Thai is shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: the Distribution of Types of Compound nouns in English

	Frequency	%
Coordinate compounds	3	1.22
Subordinate compounds	242	98.78
Total	245	100

4.3.1 Subordinate Compounds

English is rich in subordinate compounds, which shows in the results of the data set used in this study: 95.09% of the compound nouns in the data set are subordinate. In order to further describe subordinate compounds, the examined units are put into two subclasses, which are attributive and relational compounds, and the number of each type is shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: The Distribution of Subordinate Compounds

	Frequency	%
Subordinate compounds		
Attributive	2	0.83
Relational	240	99.17
	242	100

4.3.1.1 Attributive Compounds

In an attributive compound, the non-head acts as a modifier that transfers one or more attributes to the head (an N_1N_2 is an N_2 is like an N_1). There are only 0.81% or 2 subordinate attributive compound nouns in the data set, as shown below:

dragon boat ‘a boat which is shaped like a dragon’

jelly shoes ‘shoes which are like jelly’

4.3.1.2 Relational Compounds

94.28% of the English subordinate compound nouns in the study are relational, with a head element that conveys the main meaning, and a non-head element that modifies certain aspects of the head. The following compounds exemplify different relations between the non-head and the head:

airport fiction	‘a fiction sold at the airport’
bankassurance	‘an assurance sold at the bank’
banoffi pie	‘a pie made of banoffi’
blush wine	‘a wine whose color is blush/pink’
acquaintance rape	‘a rape committed by an acquaintance’

4.3.2 Coordinate Compounds

Coordinate compounds are those compounds which encode a semantic relation of coordination between elements which belong to the same lexical category and are co-hyponyms (Renner, 2008). Renner uses three test sentences to distinguish three subclasses among them:

- an X.Y is an X who/which is also a Y
- an X.Y is an X plus a Y
- an X.Y is about midway between an X and a Y

In this study, only one noun-noun coordinate compound was found, which is ‘wolf-dog’. The compound ‘wolf-dog’ fits in the third test sentence, that is, an X.Y is about midway between an X and a Y.

wolf-dog ‘a dog which is a hybrid between a wolf and a dog’

There are also two coordinate compound nouns that are composed of two verbal elements, ‘cook-chill’ and ‘kick-start’. According to Renner (2008), verb-verb compounds can be classified into three semantic subcategories:

- asynchronous compounds (to X and then to Y)
- synchronous compounds (to X and to Y alternatively or to X and to Y at the same time)
- disjunctive compounds (X or Y).

The two compound nouns composed of two verbs in the data set are asynchronous compounds:

cook-chill to X and then to Y

‘the process of pre-cooking and refrigerating foods for reheating later’

kick-start to X and then to Y

‘a way to start by kicking forcibly’

4.3.3 Headedness in English Compound Nouns

The identification of the semantic head is an important element in the analysis of a compound. The head of the compound is also an element that determines the word-class of the whole compound. In Germanic languages, like English, it is the righthand member that generally determines the grammatical properties and the main meaning of the whole compound. Bauer (2009) uses the term ‘endocentric compound’ to refer to the units such as ‘blackbird’, ‘windmill’, and ‘textbook’ for which the righthand element is a hypernym of the compound, while he uses the term ‘exocentric compound’, when the head is external to the compound itself, as in ‘redhead’, a person with red hair, ‘flatfoot’, a policeman, and ‘egghead’, an intellectual.

In this study, the semantic headedness of English compound nouns is analyzed on the basis of the existence of a literal or figurative interpretation of the unit. The head is metaphonymic when it is not interpreted literally, as for a compound like “egghead” (someone whose head is like an egg). The compounding element “head” in this case is metonymic, but it is still a (secondary) head element representing someone to which the modifier “egg” attaches. Table 4.7 shows the distribution and position of the head.

Table 4.7: The distribution and position of the head

	Frequency	%
Headless compounds	11	4.48
One-headed compounds	231	94.28
Two-headed compounds	3	1.22
Total	245	100

Table 4.7 shows that the overwhelming majority of English compound nouns or 94.28% has one head. Headless compounds are found, but account for a small minority of the total count. Only 1.22% of compound nouns have two heads, i.e. are coordinate compounds, as mentioned earlier, in Section 4.3.2. The sections below present the findings and describe each group in more details.

4.3.3.1 One-headed compounds

Generally, English compound nouns have one head. Among one-headed compounds, it was found that 94.28% have the head on the right, while 0.81 % are left-headed compounds, as shown in Table 4.8. Descriptions and examples of left-headed compounds and right-headed compounds are given as follows.

Table 4.8: The distribution of single headed-compounds

One headed compounds			
Left-headed compounds	2	0.81	
Right-headed compounds	229	93.46	
Total	231	94.28	

4.3.3.1.1 Right-headed Compounds

In Germanic languages like English, the right-hand element is generally the head of the compound. In the study, among subordinate compounds including relational and attributive compounds, 93.46% are right-headed. Examples of nominal right-headed compounds are presented in Table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9: Right-Headed Compounds

Compound	Class	Head	Meaning
dragon boat	ATT	R	a boat is like a dragon
jelly shoes	ATT	R	shoes are soft like jelly
airport fiction	REL	R	fiction sold at the airport
date rape	REL	R	the rape of a woman by someone who knows her

4.3.3.1.2 Left-headed Compounds

A tiny minority of left-headed compounds (0.81%) is attested in the data. Only two units were found, as shown below.

Table 4.10: Left-Headed Compounds

Compound	Class	Head	Meaning
cash-back	REL	L	a free facility offered by retailer whereby a customer may withdraw a limited amount of cash when making a credit or debit purchase, the amount of which is added to the bill
year out	REL	L	a period of one academic year taken as a break from formal educational by a student between leaving school and taking up a place at college or university

These two compounds are left-headed because the left-hand element determines the main meaning of the whole compound. The left-hand member of the compound is a noun, and the compound as a whole is a noun although the right-hand member consists of words of differing lexical categories.

4.3.3.2 Headless Compounds

Headless compounds are compounds which do not have an element that determines the general meaning of the compound. There is no relation of hyponymy between the meaning of the head and that of either element. For example, ‘pickpocket’ is not a kind of ‘pick’ or of ‘pocket’; a ‘redshank’ does not refer to a body part from the knee to the ankle, but to a kind of bird that has red legs.

In addition to one- and two-headed compound nouns, compound nouns in which there is no head are also attested in English. In the study, 4.48% of compound nouns are found to be headless. Some examples are presented in Table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11: Headless Compounds

Compounds		Meaning
sound bite	N-N	a shot, pithy extract from a recorded interview, speech, or discussion
bodice-ripper	N-N	a sexually explicit romantic novel or film, especially one with a historical setting, with a plot featuring the seduction of the heroine
steampunk	N-N	a genre of science fiction set in an industrialized, nineteenth-century society
hardcore	ADJ-N	a type of fast, harsh music, especially techno
freeride	ADJ-N	a type of snowboard designed for all-round use on and off-piste
high-top	ADJ-N	a kind of soft-soled sports shoe with a laced upper which extends above the height of the ankle; worn for sports such as baseball and basketball and also as a fashion item

From the compound nouns presented above, it can be seen that although neither the left nor the right hand-side element is the head of the compound, they include the sum of the meanings of the constituents. For example, the compound in ‘*high-top*’ is a kind of soft-soled sports shoe that extends above the height of the ankle.

4.3.4. Metaphtonymic Shifts

In the present study, the collected English compounds have differing degrees of opacification. Certain constituents of compounds are transparent whereas a number of others are not. In English, there are many compounds in which one of the elements is metaphorically or metonymically used while the other remains literal. In the data set, 95.51% of compound nouns, excluding headless compounds, can thus be categorized into four types. The distribution of the four types is presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: The distribution of four types of metaphtonymic shifts of English compounds

	Frequency	%
transparency of both elements	165	67.34
transparency of the head element	9	3.67
transparency of the non-head element	17	6.93
opacity of both elements of the compound	43	17.55
Total	234	95.51

4.3.4.1. Transparency of both elements: Transparent Compounds

From the examined compound nouns, 67.34% are interpreted literally, i.e. convey the meaning literally from each element, and the whole meaning can be figured out by a straightforward interpretation of the parts or each lexeme. Some examples of transparent compounds are displayed in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Transparent Compounds

Compound	Meaning
wolf-dog	a dog which is a hybrid between a wolf and a dog
home cinema	a system for showing films in the home which is designed to simulate as closely as possible the viewing conditions in a cinema

Compound	Meaning
step aerobics	a type of aerobics involving stepping up on to and down from a portable block
alcohol abuse	the habitual excessive use of alcohol
tone dialing	a system of telephone dialing, in which each digit is transmitted as a short burst of a single audio frequency

In Table 4.13, the compound nouns are completely literal. The semantic transparency of compounds was determined individually for each element. Each one appears literally in the paraphrase of the compound: for example, "the home cinema is the cinema in the home."

4.3.4.2. Transparency of the head element, opacity of the non-head element

Noun compounds vary in semantic transparency. In English, there are compounds in which one of the elements is metaphorically or metonymically used while the other remains literal. In the study, it was found that 3.67% of compound nouns are composed of a head which is transparent while the non-head element is interpreted in a figurative way. Some examples are presented as follows:

Table 4.14: Compounds with Opacity of the Non-head Element

Compounds	Meaning
snail mail	a mocking or sarcastic slang term for the ordinary postal system, emphasizing its slowness compared to electronic mail; a communication sent by conventional post
toyboy	in British slang: an attractive young man is kept as a lover by an older person
lipstick lesbian	a lesbian of glamorous or manifestly feminine appearance
black information	information held by institutions such as banks and credit agencies about people who are considered to be bad clients

Compounds	Meaning
grey economy	the part of country's economy relating to commercial activity that is unaccounted for in official statistics

Regarding the examples of compound nouns presented in Table 4.14, it can be seen that the head elements are transparent, while the non-head elements are not interpreted literally. Metaphor is used extensively in the non-head elements of the compound nouns in this data collection. For example, the non-head element of the compound ‘*snail mail*’ refers metaphorically to the slowness of this type of mail, as opposed to electronic mail.

4.3.4.3. Transparency of the non-head element, opacity of the head member

As compounds result from the combination of two lexemes, one of them may go through a figurative use while the other remains literal. In the data set, it was found that 6.93% of compound nouns composed of a non-head element, which remains literal, while a head element is not interpreted literally. See the examples below.

Table 4.15: Compounds with Opacity of the Head Element

Compounds	Meaning
work shadowing	the process of accompanying and observing a person at work, for training or research purposes
safe haven	a protected zone in a country designated for members of a religious or ethnic minority
helpdesk	a section of a business or organization, staffed by specialists able to assist customers or users who have problems
auto bra	in the US, a protective device to be fitted over the bodywork for the front of a car

Based on the examples provided above, it can be inferred that the non-head elements are literally interpreted, whereas the head elements are subjected to a metaphorical interpretation

process. For example, the head element of the compound ‘*safe haven*’, which originally denotes a harbour, refers metaphorically (and more generally) to a zone.

4.3.4.4. Opacity of both elements of the compound: Metaphonymic compounds

English also has a large number of lexical units which cannot be interpreted literally. The semantic relationship between the elements and the compound as a whole is not predictable. In the data set of English compound nouns, a relatively high number, or 17.55%, of the examined units appear to be unpredictable in their interpretation. Some examples are shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Non-transparent Compound Nouns

Compounds	Meaning
slaphead	a bald or shaven-headed person
spin doctor	a senior political spokesperson employed to promote a favorable interpretation of events to journalists
glass ceiling	an unofficial or unacknowledged barrier to personal advancement, especially in the workplace
towelhead	a person who wears a headcloth or turban
tree hugger	a (chiefly derogatory) term for an environmental campaigner
mouse potato	a slang term for a person who spends an excessive amount of time in front of a computer, especially one who uses it online

From the examples presented in Table 4.15, compound nouns are not interpreted literally, but they have gone through the process of figurativeness through metonymy or metaphor. The compound nouns ‘*slaphead*’, ‘*towelhead*’ and ‘*mouse potato*’ metaphorically refer to people. There are also compound nouns formed of figurative elements that designate the entity metonymically, as demonstrated in the compound nouns ‘*spin doctor*’, ‘*glass ceiling*’ and ‘*tree hugger*’.

4.4 Conclusion

Compounding is a very productive means of creating new words. In English, it is intricate to form nominal compounding depending on rules such as orthography, stress, and specific types of adjectives that the compounds consist of, and which work as modifying elements. Seven patterns with two to three elements of English compound nouns have been detailed in terms of structure. The top three are [N-N], [ADJ-N], and [V-N]. At the level of semantics, English has two main types of nominal compounding: subordinate compounds with two subtypes (attributive compounds and relational compounds) and coordinative compounds. In English, the position of the head can be found canonically on the right; English also does allow the leftmost element to function as the semantic head. The number of transparent compounds is higher than that of opaque ones, which have gone through a process of figurativeness which involves two degrees: metonymy and metaphor. There is also a mixture of literal and figurative interpretation of elements of the compounds when certain compound nouns show the transparency of the head member and the opacity of the non-head member while some other compound nouns display the opacity of the head element and the transparency of the non-head member.

Chapter 5

**A Comparison of Nominal Compounding in
Thai and English**

Chapter 5

A Comparison of Nominal Compounding in Thai and English

It is challenging to compare English and Thai languages in order to find out similarities and differences in the process of forming nouns through compounding. Among word formation processes, compounding is the most productive means of creating new words in both English and Thai, even though these two languages are from completely different language families. Compound noun-formation as a sub-process of word-formation is an intricate field of study in both English and Thai. Compound nouns are defined differently in different languages, focusing on different aspects, and using different terms to emphasize particular distinctions. Thai, a language belonging to the Tai-Kadai family, does not have a very complicated process for creating compound nouns. A Thai nominal compound takes two or more lexemes to form a new word written solidly consisting of various lexical categories in order to describe a new concept, related in meaning to the two source words. As mentioned in Chapter 3 Thai compound nouns are composed of two to five elements, and they are morphologically structured into thirty-six different formal patterns, the top five of which are [NN], [NADJ], [NV], [NNN] and [NVN]. Semantically, Thai has two main types of nominal compounding: subordinate compounds with two subtypes (attributive compounds and relational compounds) and coordinative compounds. The heads of compound nouns are mostly found on the left, but the head on the right can also be found. The number of transparent compounds in the data set is higher than the opaque ones.

English, an Indo-European language, has more intricate ways of forming nominal compounds, depending on some variations such as orthography, stress, and types of adjective working as a modifying element. Compounds in English are words formed by combining two or more lexemes to have a larger unit that conveys a new concept. An affix cannot be inserted as they are uninterruptable units. NN compounds can, however, be modified into [N[ADJN]] or [[ADJN]N] structures. For English compounds, main stress typically falls on the left element, but right-most stress is accepted for ADJ-N compounds, especially if in the presence of a relational adjective. As mentioned in Chapter 4, there are seven main morphological structures of English compound nouns which are composed of two to three elements, and the top three are [NN], [ADJN], and [VN]. At the level of semantics, English also has two main types of nominal compounding: subordinate compounds with two

subtypes (attributive compounds and relational compounds) and coordinative compounds. In English, the position of the head can be found on the right. The number of transparent compounds is higher than that of the opaque ones. Non-literal compounds have gone through a process of figurativeness involving two forms: metonymy and metaphor.

Chapter 5 examines in a contrastive analysis the two sets of 333 Thai and 245 English lexical units identified as compound nouns. In this chapter, the formal and semantic classifications of nominal compounds are discussed and exemplified for Thai and English languages to shed light on the resemblance and the distinction based on the data gathered.

5.1 The formal classification of nominal compounds in Thai and English

To shed light on the similarities and the differences in compound noun-formation in these two languages, the structures are compared and contrasted. The table below illustrates the percentage of orthographical variants, the number of elements, and the structures of Thai and English compound nouns.

5.1.1 Spelling

The orthographic form of compound nouns in both Thai and English was investigated. Table 5.1 below shows the comparison of orthographic patterns of compounds in the two languages.

Table 5.1: Comparison of spelling in Thai and English compounds

Orthography	Thai	English
Solid	100	16.19
Space	0	73.68
Hyphenated	0	10.52

Compounds in Thai are always written in a solid form, and there is never any space or hyphenation between words. Thai language is an isolating language which has a low morpheme-per-word ratio, and it lacks a degree of fusion between morphemes, Thai words are created simply by putting morphemes together, like other southeast Asian languages such as Sino-Tibetan languages, Burmese, and Vietnamese that lack inflection to indicate

syntactic relationships, so the lexemes do not need any spaces between them. Like Chinese and Japanese, the Thai writing system does not use interword spacing. Thai uses an alpha syllabary, where consonant letters contain an inherent vowel, and where single consonant and vowel letters are arranged by syllable. Also, Thai does not use spaces between words, but it does use spaces to mark phrase and clause boundaries, which is similar to the way commas and periods are used in English (Vitrano-Wilson, 2015). On the other hand, to write compounds in English, there are three possible written forms; solid, hyphenated, or spaced form. The distribution appears to be non-random and statistically significant -- an overwhelming majority of units are spelled with a space, marking a clear typological contrast with Thai.

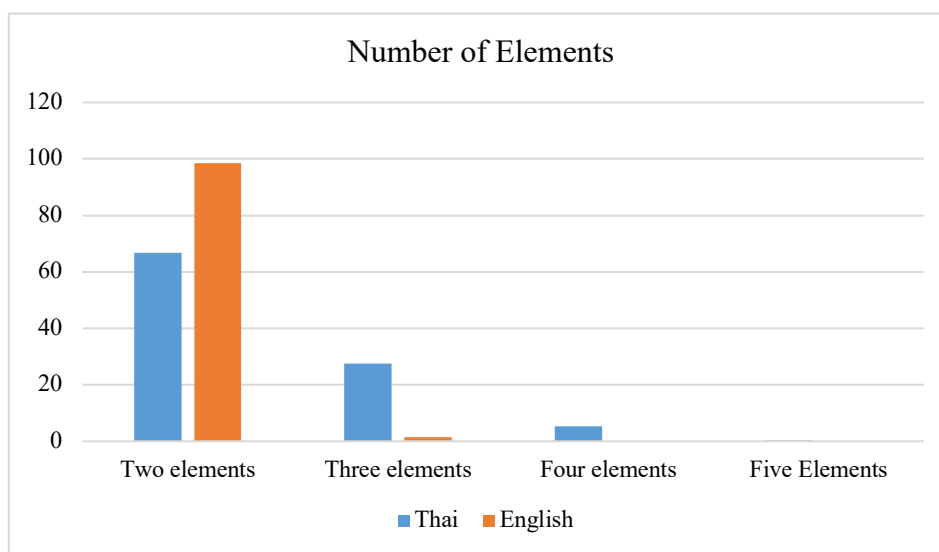
5.1.2 Number of elements

The elements of Thai and English compound nouns are counted, and they are compared as shown in Table 5.2 and Figure 2 below.

Table 5.2: Number of elements of compound nouns in Thai and English

Number of Elements	Thai	English
Two elements	66.67	97.14
Three elements	27.63	2.86
Four elements	5.40	00
Five Elements	0.30	00

Figure 4: Comparison of number of elements of compounds in Thai and English



According to Figure 2, it can be seen that Thai has a wider range of number of elements than English does. The elements of Thai compound nouns vary from two elements to five elements while English compound nouns are composed of two and three elements. Examples are shown below in Table 5.3. The dot (.) is put between each element of Thai compound nouns to identify the number of elements more clearly.

Table 5.3: Examples of Thai and English compound nouns varied from two to five elements

Number of Elements	Thai	English
Two elements	/thŭŋ.thálē:/ bag-sea 'a duffle bag'	speed camera 'a roadside camera, triggered by speeding vehicles, which takes either video footage or a photograph of the offending vehicle with a record of its speed'
Three elements	/sŭa:.khō:.klōm/ upper garment-neck-round	technology transfer office

Number of Elements	Thai	English
	‘T-shirt’	‘office whose purpose is to put researchers in touch with an organization which can commercialize their discoveries and help negotiate licensing agreements’
Four elements	/ná:m.yā:.fō:kk.hă:w/ water-drug-to clean-white solution-to whiten ‘bleach’	None
Five Elements	/khâ:.ná:m.ró:n.ná:m.chā:/ cost - water - hot - water - tea-leaf cost-[hot water]-[tea] ‘tea money: bribe, money given to government official to obtain a favor, special treatment or to do something faster’	None

Regarding four- and five-element compounds, the remarkable difference between the two languages is that there are such structures in the Thai data set – 5.40% are four-element compounds, 0.33% are five-element compounds –, but not in the English data set, in spite of the fact that English is often characterized as a language prone to (complex) compounding. This indicates that compounding in general, and multiple compounding in particular, seems to be more productive in Thai than in English.

In case of compound nouns of three or more elements, there is potential ambiguity in interpretation between left and right-bracketing. In Thai, the findings show that there is the occurrence of recursiveness with right-branching and left-branching, i.e., 5.70 % of them show a combination of a lexeme and a compound with a right-branching structure, and 1.8 % of them illustrate a left-branching structure. In contrast, in English, there are 2.44% of occurrence of recursiveness, with only left-branching. There is no occurrence of

recursiveness with right-branching found in the data set of English compound nouns. This can be explained by the fact that Thai has a greater variety of elements than English. Thai compound nouns have between two and five constituents, whereas English compound nouns have between two and three elements.

5.1.3 Lexical structures of Thai and English compound nouns

With the existence of 36 lexical types of compound noun for Thai, and just 7 for English, it can be said here that Thai clearly boasts a wider variety of structures. Table 5.4 below shows the comparison of the structures of compound nouns in Thai and English.

Table 5.4: Structures of compound nouns in Thai and English

Lexical Structures	Thai (%)	English (%)
N-N	36.93	67.34
N-ADJ	15.01	0
ADJ-N	0	26.53
N-V	10.81	0
N-PREP	2.10	0
V-N	1.80	1.21
V-V	0.30	0.81
N-ADV	0	0.81
ADJ-ADJ	0	0.40
N-N-N	9.00	2.86
N-V-N	9.00	0
N-N-ADJ	3.30	0
N-N-V	1.80	0
N-V-ADJ	0.60	0
N-NO-N	0.60	0
N-N-ADV	0.30	0

Lexical Structures	Thai	English
	(%)	(%)
N-N-PREP	0.30	0
N-N-NO	0.30	0
N-ADV-N	0.30	0
N-ADJ-ADJ	0.30	0
N-ADJ-N	0.30	0
N-ADJ-V	0.30	0
N-PREP-N	0.30	0
V-V-V	0.30	0
V-N-V	0.30	0
N-N-N-N	1.50	0
V-N-V-N	0.90	0
N-V-V-V	0.60	0
N-N-N-ADJ	0.30	0
N-N-V-N	0.30	0
N-N-V-ADJ	0.30	0
N-V-N-ADJ	0.30	0
N-ADJ-V-N	0.30	0
N-ADJ-N-N	0.30	0
N-PREP-V-N	0.30	0
N-PREP-N-N	0.30	0
V-N-N-N	0.30	0
N-N-ADJ-N-N	0.30	0

Thai and English, as shown in Table 5.4, have only four structures in common: N-N, V-N, V-V and N-N-N. There are thirty-two compound noun-formation structures in Thai that do not exist in English in the present study, e.g., N-V, N-PREP, and ADJ-N, and also, remarkably, three structures in English are absent in Thai – ADJ-N, N-ADV and ADJ-ADJ.

The generalization of compounds, as presented in Figures 5 and 6 illustrates the structures of the compound noun patterns in Thai and English more accurately with percentages.

Figure 5: Generalization of the structures of compound nouns in Thai

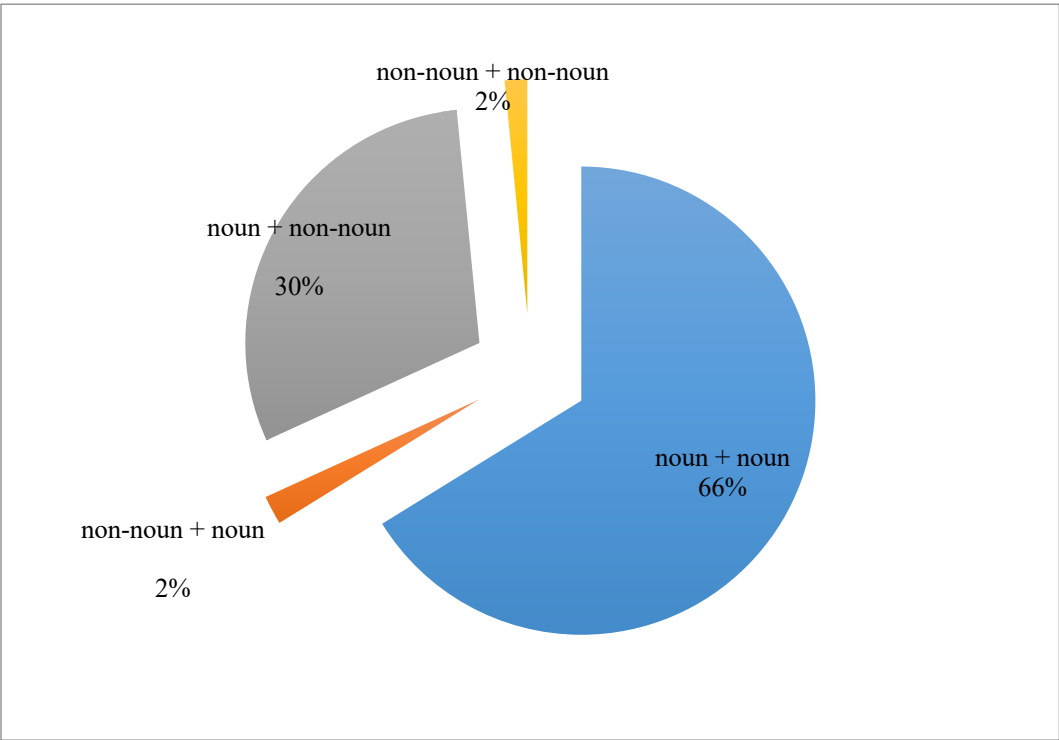


Figure 6: Generalization of the structures of compound nouns in English

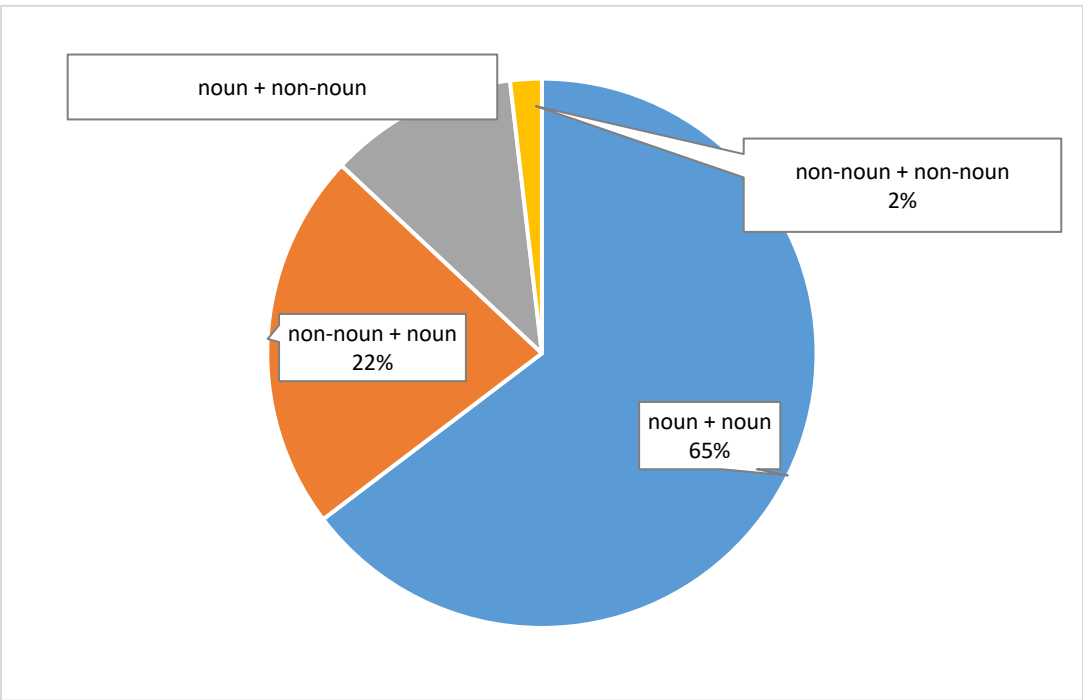


Figure 7: Comparison of lexical category inputs

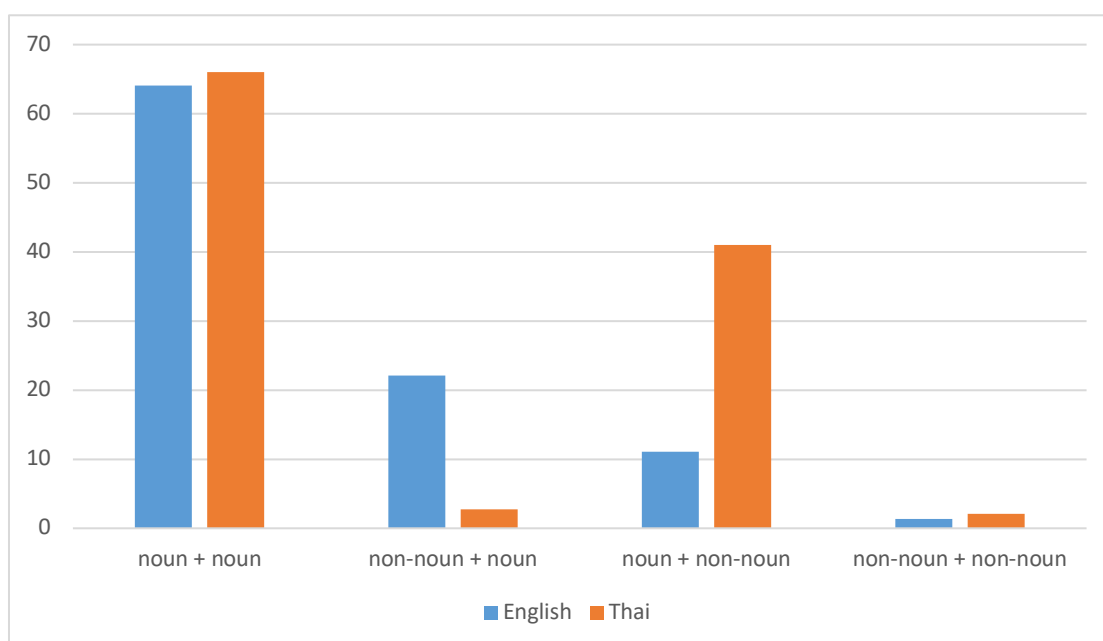


Figure 5 above shows that the majority of compound nouns in both languages are formed by nouns, and this with similar percentages, and there is also a similar small number of compounds in both languages that consists of a non-noun plus a non-noun. It is noticeable that Thai has a higher number of compounds created by combining a noun and a non-noun while English has a lot more of non-noun plus noun combinations. It can be explained by the fact that the main reason is the position of the head, which is canonically on the left in Thai and on the right in English.

Thai also displays a wider number of combinations involving lexical categories which are not used in English, like preposition. Some of these differences can also be accounted for by the typological differences in the two languages – Thai for instance places modifying adjectives after the head noun while English only allows premodification. Examples below illustrate the differences:

Thai /thǔnró:n/ ^{head}thǔn^N + ró:n^{ADJ}
 bag-hot
 ‘a polypropylene bag’

/nōmprîa:w/ head_{nōm}^N + prîa:w^{ADJ}

milk-sour

‘yoghurt’

English wise use

wise^{ADJ} + head_{use}^N

‘environment policy promoting a controlled use of
natural resources’

functional food

functional^{ADJ} + head_{food}^N

‘a foodstuff which contains additives specially
designed to promote health and longevity’

From a quantitative standpoint, the top pattern is the same in the two languages, i.e., N-N, and the association of a head noun with an adjective comes also second in the two languages. All the other lexical combinations are marginal in English while Thai has three more patterns of relatively high frequency: N-V, N-N-N and N-V-N.

Additionally, Thai and English also have a similar percentage of compound nouns composed of two verbal constituents (V-V), and they are identified as coordinative compounds in the present study. Both compounds in Thai and English are interpreted as to X and then to Y. See the compounds below.

/cǐm.cùm/

to dip and then to immerse

dip- immerse

‘a hot pot’ i.e. sukiyaki (a Japanese dish)

kick-start

to kick and then to start

‘a way to start by kicking forcibly’

5.2 The semantic classification of compound nouns in Thai and English

Differences and similarities between Thai and English appear not only at the formal level, but also at the semantic level. The semantic classification of compound nouns in Thai and English adopted here is based on Arnaud and Renner (2014), as described in Chapters 3 and 4, showing the existence of two main types of compound nouns, i.e. coordinate and subordinate compounds, the latter category being subdivided into relational and attributive compounds.

To clarify the similarities and the differences in compound noun-formation in these two languages, the semantic classifications are compared and contrasted.

5.2.1 Types of compound nouns in Thai and English

The occurrences of relational subordinate compounds are, by far, the most common type of compound nouns in both languages. The other semantic types can be said to be relatively marginal. The main quantitative finding in Table 5.5 is that the various proportions between the different semantic types – subordinate and coordinate, relational and attributive – are very similar in the two languages. They have only about 2% of coordinate units while there are about 98% of subordinate compounds.

Table 5.5: Semantic classification of Thai and English nominal compounds

Semantic Classification	Thai	English
Subordinate compounds	97.89	98.78
Relational	94.89	97.97
Attributive	3.00	0.81
Coordinate compounds	2.10	1.22

5.2.2 Headedness of compound nouns in Thai and English

In most of the compound nouns of both languages, there is a head that bears the main properties of the whole noun, and a modifier that constrains the meaning of the head. Table 5.6 shows the distribution of headedness of the compound nouns in Thai and English.

Table 5.6: The distribution of headedness of Thai and English nominal compounds

Headedness	Thai	English
Headless	3.00	4.48
One head	94.89	94.28
Two heads	2.10	1.22

Table 5.6 shows that the headedness of compound nouns in Thai and English is remarkably similar i.e., there are one-head compounds, headless compounds and two-head compounds in quasi-identical proportions. The majority of Thai and English compound nouns in the data sets have one head. Also, compound nouns with two heads are found in both languages with about 2% of coordinate units, such as the compound *wolf-dog* in English and the compound */kòtbàt.kòtmăay/*, meaning 'the charter and law', in Thai.

In the two languages, there is also a similar percentage of semantically headless units. For example, the Thai compound */yok soŋ/*, which literally means 'to lift up a form', is neither a kind of */yok/* (lift), nor a */soŋ/* (form). It simply means 'a bra'. Similarly, in English, the meaning of the compound noun *high-top* is not directly connected to either constituent.

5.2.3 The position of the head

Among one-head compound nouns, in both Thai and English languages, there is a division into two groups: right-headed compounds and left-headed compounds. The proportion of the two languages is presented in Table 5.7

Table 5.7: Relative position of the head

Headedness	Thai	English
One head	94.89	94.28
Right	1.80	93.46
Left	92.79	0.40

Table 5.7 shows that Thai has a high preference for left-headedness, but a few right-headed compound nouns do occur due to the influence of foreign language patterns that appear through borrowings from Pali, Sanskrit and English. For example, the compound /*kàthĩnthūa*:/ referring to a type of tour for people traveling to the temples to offer *kàthĩn* (a yellow robe) to monks, is a hybrid compound, i.e., a mix of a Thai /*kàtĩn*/ and an English word /*tua*/ (*tour*) that has adopted the right-headed pattern of English. The word /*tua*/ has been borrowed from English, which was transliterated, acts as the head, while a Thai word acts as a modifier.

On the other hand, subordinate noun compounds in English are predominantly right-headed. Only one compound in English attested in the data set does also allow the leftmost element to function as the semantic head. The compound *cash-back* is left-headed because the left element determines the main meaning of the whole compound. The left-hand member of the compound is a noun, and the compound as the whole is a noun, although the right-hand member consists of a non-noun.

5.2.4 Metaphonymic Shifts of Compounds in Thai and English

Among headed compounds in this study, the collected Thai and English compounds have varying degrees of opacification. Certain constituents of compounds are transparent, whereas others are not. As described in Chapter 3 and 4, in terms of metaphonymic shifts, compound nouns in the two languages can be classified into four types, and the distribution of the four types of two languages is presented in Table 5.8

Table 5.8: Number of transparent and opaque compound nouns in Thai and English

	Meaning	Thai	English
	transparency of both elements	62.47	67.34
	transparency of the head element	12.61	3.67
	transparency of the non-head element	10.21	6.93
	opacity of both elements of the compound	11.41	17.55
		96.70	95.49

The majority of nominal compounds in both Thai and English are semantically transparent, and the proportion of transparent units is slightly higher in English. Also, both Thai and English nominal compounds can go through a process of figurativeness where all elements are not transparent, but the proportion of opaque units is slightly higher in English.

Both Thai and English languages have compounds in which one of the elements is used metaphorically or metonymically while the other is used literally. However, after observing the proportion of the units in this category, it was found that Thai has a higher number of nominal compounds than English does. The percentage of compounds composed of a transparent head and figurative non-head elements is three times as high in Thai, and also the number of compounds composed of an opaque head and a transparent non-head element is almost twice as high in Thai.

From these findings mentioned above, it can be seen that English likely intends to have compounds composed of all transparent elements, like the compound '*juice box*'. If the compounds involve figurativeness, English prefers to have opacity of both elements of the compound, like the compound '*glass ceiling*' metonymically meaning an unofficial or unacknowledged barrier to personal advancement, especially in the workplace (ODNW).

5.3 Conclusions

Thai compound nouns can be distinguished from English compound nouns to the extent that they typically display more varied types of patterns, both in terms of number of elements (up to five) and of combination of lexical patterns (using a wider number of non-nouns). Thai compounds can also be characterized by a stronger external influence than is the case for English: they can contain foreign elements (e.g. Pali and Sanskrit) and adopt patterns that are not displayed natively (like right-head structuring). In spite of their differences, it was found that Thai and English share a number of basic constructions: N-N, N-ADJ, N-ADV, V-N, V-V.

Semantically, Thai and English both make use of the two main types of nominal compounding: subordinate compounds and coordinate compounds. Noticeably, the proportions of the different semantic types of compound noun in both languages are remarkably similar: 98% for subordinates and 2% for coordinates; and a very small number of attributive subordinates. The two languages display a salient typological contrast as far as headedness is concerned: the head in a Thai compound is canonically on the left while the head of English compound noun is on the right.

The majority of nominal compounds in both Thai and English are transparent, but the number of semantically figurative compounds in English is higher than in Thai. Compounds exist in both Thai and English where one member is used figuratively while the others remain literally. Thai has a much higher percentage of compounds with a transparent head and figurative non-head element, as well as with an opaque head and transparent non-head element.

Chapter 6

Lexical blending in Thai

Chapter 6

Lexical blending in Thai

This chapter describes how lexical blends are created in Thai. The analysis is based on 37 blended words (from a corpus of 37,104 new words) which have been collected manually from the three volumes of The Royal Institute Dictionary of New words, which were published in 2007, 2009 and 2011, and the Royal Institute Dictionary of Coined Words (Neogism), an online version available since 2019. These two dictionaries were published by Office of the Royal Society, which is responsible for the Royal Thai Dictionary (i.e., the official dictionary of Thailand). I intended to use the three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New words for data collection, as they were used for nominal compounds in Thai in Chapter 3, but only four lexical blends were found, which was not adequate for a proper analysis of the phenomenon. Consequently, I decided to collect more blends from the Royal Institute Dictionary of Coined Words (Neologisms), which is available only online. In this chapter, 37 lexical blends are analyzed in order to provide a detailed study of their main formal and semantic characteristics.

6.1 Defining and collecting lexical blends

Like compounding, blending is the combination of two separate forms to produce a new single complex unit, but blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word, like in some words in English such as *gasohol* (~~gasoline~~ + ~~alcohol~~), *motel* (~~motor~~ + ~~hotel~~), and *telecast* (~~television~~ + ~~broadcast~~). Some blends also combine the beginning of both words like *telex* (~~teleprinter~~ + ~~exchange~~) and *modem* (~~modulator~~ + ~~demodulator~~) (Yule, 2006). In the Thai language, as described in Chapter 2, generally in traditional grammar there are three different patterns to form blends based on the word formation processes of Pali and Sanskrit: 1) clipping the vowels of both source words, 2) clipping the consonants of both source words, and 3) clipping a *nikhahit* ‘(°)’ with a change of a final sound /ŋ/. However, only the first pattern has been applied and found in Thai in the previous studies. The second and the third cases are extremely rare in modern Thai (Prasinrattasin, 2011).

In this study, blending is defined as a word formation process which involves the combination of two or more lexemes with the loss of some phonic and/or graphic material

in different patterns of reduction. It does not only involve a combination of forms, but also a combination of meaning.

6.2 Formal classification of Thai lexical blends

6.2.1 Lexical typology

In the data set of lexical blends in Thai, it was found that units are made up of two to three source words. The distribution of the number of elements of lexical blends in Thai is displayed in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Distribution of number of elements in Thai lexical blends

Number of Elements	Number	%
Two elements	35	94.59
Three elements	2	5.41
	37	100

Table 6.1 shows that the overwhelming majority of lexical blends in Thai are fused out of two source words, and very few of them are made up of three source words. Examples of lexical blends with two and three elements are shown below.

- (1) กระเปรง /kràpreŋ/
 /kràpron/ + /ka:ŋkreŋ/
 skirt-pants
 ‘pants which look like a skirt’
- (2) โสตทัศนูปกรณ์ /sòtthátsànu:pàkɔn/
 /sòt/ + /thátsana/ + /ʔupàkɔn/
 ear-view-equipment
 ‘audio-visual aid’

In case of lexical blending with three elements, one unit is made up with three lexemes, and another one more precisely comes from the juxtaposition of an existing blend with a third

lexeme, as shown in Example (2). They also have a hierarchical structure that can be right-branching or left-branching.

In the study, all 37 blends are limited to three lexical categories: nouns, adjectives, and verbs. Table 6.2 shows the lexical categories of the output. It was found that the overwhelming majority of them are nouns, with a small minority of adjectives and an even smaller number of verbs.

Table 6.2: Lexical categories of the outputs in Thai lexical blends

Lexical category of the output	Frequency	%
noun	33	89.19
verb	3	8.11
adjective	1	2.70
Total	37	100

Here are examples of lexical blends from the three lexical categories: nouns, verbs and adjectives:

(3) Noun

ศิลปาคาร /sɯnlápa:ka:n/
 /sɯnlápà/ + /ʔa:ka:n/
 art-building
 ‘art house’

(4) Verb

อัตโนมัติ /ʔàttànō:mū:/
 /ʔàttànō:mát/ + /mū:/
 automatic-hand
 ‘to work with hands instead of automatic machines’

(5) Adjective

สัพเพเหรอก /sàpphe:hě:rók/
 /sàpphe:hě:rá/ + /rók/
 trifling-messy
 ‘trifling and messy’

Despite the fact that the lexical categories of the 37 lexical blends are limited to three types -- nouns, adjectives, and verbs --, they are made up of a variety of lexical categories, as illustrated in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Lexical categories of the inputs

output	Lexical category of the input	Frequency	%
Noun	noun + noun	23	62.16
	adjective + noun	3	8.11
	noun + verb	2	5.41
	verb + noun	2	5.41
	adjective + verb	1	2.70
	noun + noun + noun	2	5.41
Verb	verb + noun	1	2.70
	verb + adjective	1	2.70
	adjective + noun	1	2.70
Adjective	adjective + adjective	1	2.70
Total		37	100

Table 6.3 shows that the majority of Thai lexical blends in the data set combine a noun and another noun (62.16%), followed by an adjective and a noun (8.11%), a noun and a verb (5.41%), a verb and a noun (5.41%), and a noun, a noun and a noun (5.41%). Other very small numbers of lexical units are composed with an adjective and a verb, a verb and a noun,

a verb and an adjective, an adjective and a noun, and an adjective and an adjective. The examples for each of lexical category of the input are illustrated below.

(6) N-N	ตุลาธิปไตย	/tùla:thíppàtai/	/tùla:ka:n/ + /ʔàthíppàtai/ judge-sovereignty ‘judicial activism’
(7) ADJ-N	สุญญากาศ	/sǔnja:ka:t/	/sǔnja/ + /ʔa:ka:t/ empty-air ‘airless’
(8) N-V	อรรถาธิบาย	/ʔàtthă:thíba:j/	/ʔàth/ + /ʔàthíbai/ content-to explain ‘exposition’
(9) V-N	อัตโนมัติ	/ʔàttànō:mū:/	/ʔàttànō:mát/ + /mū:/ automatic-hand ‘to work with the hands instead of automatic machines’
(10) ADJ-V	โลกิยานุวัตน	/lokìja:nùwát/	/lokìjá/ + /ʔanùwát/ global-to follow ‘secularization’
(11) V-ADJ	ซีเครียค	/si:kriat/	/si:ríat/ + /kriat/ to be serious-stressful ‘to be serious and stressful’

- (12) ADJ-ADJ สัพเพเหรอก /sàpphe:hě:rók/ /sàpphe:hě:rá/ + /rók/
trifling-messy
‘trifling and messy’
- (13) N-N-N รัฐวิสาหกิจนโยบาย /rátthăphípa:láno:ba:j/ rátthă/ + /ʔàphípa:láná/ + /nájo:ba:j/
state-protection-strategy
‘governmentality’

6.2.2 Morphophonological typology

6.2.2.1 Lexical shortening

Blending is a word formation process of shortening involving at least two source words in order to keep only a part of their orthographical and/or phonological elements. Blends are created by reducing the length of at least one of the source forms, either by simple clipping or by haplologic combining the source forms. In the data analysis, the symbolization adopted by Plag (2018: 121) is used to describe the patterns of shortening, where A and B respectively represent the left-hand and right-hand part of the first source element, and C and D the left-hand and right-hand part of the second source element. In case of three-element blends, E and F represent the left-hand and right-hand part of the third source element. The distribution of various types of lexical shortening is illustrated in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: The distribution of types of lexical shortening

Type of shortening	Frequency	%
AD type	16	43.24
ABD type	16	43.24
ACD type	3	8.11
others (3 elements: ABDF, ABCDF)	2	5.41
Total	37	100%

The analysis of 37 blended outputs leads to four patterns of lexical shortening, and each of them with their examples is described in more details as follows:

(1) AD blends

43.24% of the lexical blends in the data set are formed by double inner shortening that shows right-shortening of the left source word and left-shortening of the right source word. After observing, Thai AD blends can be classified into two subgroups:

(1.1) Half of AD blends or 26.62% are fused with two source words. Before the two source words are joined, the final syllable of the first source word and the initial syllable of the second source word are clipped, and then they are simply joined. Blends in this category do not share any phonemic and orthographic material. Both source words are clipped and there is no overlapping. See the example below:

- (13) ตุลาภิวัตน์ /tùla:phiwát/
 /tùla:ka:n/ + /ʔàphíwát/
 judge-advancement
 ‘judicialization’

(1.2) Another half of AD blends are formed by shortening two source words with a change of vowels. The process of shortening is similar to the first category, but a new vowel is inserted between two inputs by changing the vowel of the second syllable of the first source word from a short vowel to a long vowel. Consider the example below:

- (14) กาลานุกรม /ka:la:núkrom/
 /ka:lá/ + /ʔànúkrom/
 time-order
 ‘almanach’

(2) ABD blends

43.24% of lexical blends are created by clipping the first syllable of the word on the right-hand side. After considering their appearance, Thai ABD blends can be classified into three subgroups:

(2.1) 10.81% of ABD blends are a combination of a full word and a final splinter. The source word on the left-hand side is left untouched as shown in the given example below:

- (15) ปิตาธิปไตย /pìtɑːthípàtai/
 /pìtɑː/ + /ʔàthíppàtai/
 father-sovereignty
 ‘patriarchy’

(2.2) 16.12% of ABD blends are formed with a full word and a final splinter, which is similar to (2.1), but there is an insertion of /a:/ between the first source word and the final splinter of the second source word, as shown in the given example below:

- (16) อรรถาภิธาน /ʔatthă:phítha:n/
 /ʔàth/ + /ʔaphítha:n/
 content-glossary
 ‘thesaurus’

(2.3) 16.12% of ABD blends are formed with a full word and a final splinter, which is similar to (2.1), but the pronunciation of the first source is changed when it is joined with the final splinter of the second source word. Consider the examples below:

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------|
| (17) จันทรุปราคา | จันทร + อุปราคา |
| /tɛāntárúpàrɑ:kɑ:/ | /tɛān/ + /ʔúpārā:kā:/ |
| | the moon-darkening |
| | ‘lunar eclipse’ |

(18) ทักษุปกรณ์	ทัศน์ + อุปกรณ์
/thátsànu:pàkɔ:n/	/thát/ + /ʔupàkɔ:n/
	vision-equipment
	‘visual aid’

After carefully considering the two words in (17) and (18), it can be explained that there is a diacritic that is called /thānthákhâ:t/ written above the consonant in the first source words of (17) and (18), which causes ‘ทฺ’ in จันทฺ /tɛān/ and ‘นฺ’ in ทักษฺ /thát/ to become mute when these two words stand alone. According to the Office of the Royal Society (2007), the /thānthákhâ:t/ diacritic is usually placed above the last consonant of Thai words that are borrowed from foreign languages such as Pali, Sanskrit and English in order to retain as much of the original spelling as possible, even though the redundant consonant is ignored, and it is not pronounced. In the case of the examples (17) and (18), when the first source word is joined with the second source word, the /thānthákhâ:t/ diacritic is removed resulting in unmuting the final consonants of the first source word of (17) and (18), as illustrated below.

จันทฺ /tɛān/	>	จันทร /tɛāntará/
ทักษฺ /thát/	>	ทัศน /thátsaná/

(3) ACD blends

8.11% of Thai lexical blends in the data set are created by the right-clipping of the left source word. Consider the examples below:

(19) ซีเครียด	/si:krîat/
	/si:rîat/ + /krîat/
	serious-stressful
	‘serious and stressful’
(20) สัพเพเหรอก	/sàpphe:hě:rók/
	/sàpphe:hě:rá/ + /rók/

trifling-messy
'trifling and messy'

(4) Other patterns

There are two lexical blends in the data set which are formed with three source words. These two lexical blends have different of patterns of shortening. See the two lexical blends below:

- (20) รัฐวิสาหกิจนโยบาย ráttǎ:phípa:láno:ba:j
ráttǎ + ʔàphípa:láná + nájo:ba:j
kingdom-protection-strategy
'governmentality'
- (21) โสตทัศนอุปกรณ์ /sòtthátsànu:pàkɔn/
/sòt/ + /thátsana/ + /ʔupàkɔn/
ear-view-equipment
'audio-visual aid'

The blend in (20) shows ABDF shortening, i.e., the first source word on the left-hand side is left untouched, while the first syllables of the second and third source word are clipped. This is a combination of an ABD blend and a final splinter of the lexeme.

The blend in (21) shows ABCDF shortening. In other words, this is a combination of a lexeme and an ABD blend, it is made up with a lexeme and an existing binary lexical blend.

6.2.2.2 Segment overlap

Segment overlap is a prototypical aspect of lexical blending. Segment overlap is identified when a segment in a blend is shared by the source words, i.e., the segment can be sourced from either input word (Renner, 2019). In this study, the typology by Renner (2019) is adopted -- there are three different subtypes of segment overlap: 1) graphic-cum-phonetic overlap, 2) graphic-only overlap, and 3) phonetic-only overlap.

In the data set, it was found that 13.51% of Thai lexical blends have overlapping segments, whereas 86.49% of them have no overlap. Table 6.5 shows the distribution of segment overlap in the Thai lexical blends.

Table 6.5: Distribution of segment overlap in the Thai lexical blends

Type of overlap	Frequency	%
graphic-cum-phonetic	5	13.51
graphic only	0	0
phonetic only	0	0
no overlapping	32	86.49
Total	37	100

Table 6.5 shows that only 5 lexical blends in Thai display segment overlap at both the graphic and phonetic level. All of them are illustrated below:

- (22) อัตโนมือ /ʔàttànō:mū:/
 /ʔàttànō:mát/ + /mū:/
 automatic-hand
 ‘to work with hands instead of automatic machines’
- (23) สัพเพเหระ /sàpphe:hě:rók/
 /sàpphe:hě:rá/ + /rók/
 trifling-messy
 ‘trifling and messy’
- (24) โฆษณาการ khôsàna:ka:n
 khôsàna: + ʔa:ka:n
 to advertise-action
 ‘advertising’
- (25) กระปรัง /kràpreŋ/

/kràpron/ + /ka:ŋkreŋ/
 skirt-pants
 ‘pants which look like a skirt’

(26) ซีเครียด /si:krîat/
 /si:rîat/ + /krîat/
 serious-stressful
 ‘serious and stressful’

From the lexical blends above, it can be seen that there is a segment overlap that is shared by the source words, which can be sourced from either input word. There is phonological and orthographic overlap between the elements. The examples (22)-(25) can be analyzed as cases of medial graphic-cum-phonetic overlap. For example, the blend in (22), /ʔàttànō:mū:/, which is composed of /ʔàttànō:mát/ and /mū:/, has graphic overlap of ‘ม’ and phonetic overlapping of the sound /m/.

The blend in (26) /si:krîat/ shows graphic-cum-phonetic overlap, but it is not a medial overlap. It is a special kind of overlap that illustrates that there is word-final overlap at the phonetic and graphic levels of /rîat/.

The possibility of finding a correlation between patterns of shortening and segment overlap, and determining whether they are related in any manner, may be intriguing to study further.

Table 6.6: Correlation between patterns of shortening and segment overlap in Thai blends

Type of shortening	Number of blends with segment overlap	%
AD type	0/16	00/43.24
ABD type	2/16	5.40/43.24
ACD type	3/3	8.11/8.11
others (3 elements: ABDF, ABCDF)	0/2	00/5.41

Total	5/37	13.51/100
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The results in Table 6.6 clearly demonstrate that segment overlap is merely optional (simply because shortening occurs does not imply that there will be segment overlap). AD blends never demonstrate this possibility even when shortening occurs. However, interestingly, all of the ACD blends in the data set have medial overlap.

6.2.2.3 Patterns of phonological splitting

The split point is defined as the point at which the source words are cut off, which is a defining characteristic of blend formation and observation. When the source words are blended, different sections of the source words are used and not used, and the split point is located wherever the words are divided to form a new word. The source words are separated at various morphological boundaries, depending on the word they are morphing into (Beliaeva, 2019a). In the study by Renner (2019), it is stated that the split point of source words in lexical blends can be found in five different locations. Here are his analysis and his examples:

- at a syllable boundary
- at an onset-nucleus boundary
- at a nucleus-coda boundary
- inside a complex onset
- inside a complex coda

In the data set of 37 Thai lexical blends, there are 76 source words in total, which are 70 source words of lexical blends with two elements, plus 6 source words of lexical blends with three elements, but when looking at the patterns of shortening, there are only 49 source words that can be examined to find out the patterns of phonological splitting: 32 source words from AD blends, 14 source words from ABD blends, 2 source words from an ABDF blend, and 1 source word from an ABCDF blend. Each source word for those blends which did not manifest segment overlapping was analyzed to determine where the split was. The distribution of the patterns of phonological splitting in the Thai lexical blends is illustrated in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Distribution of split points regarding the type of phonological boundary

Location of the split point	Frequency	%
Syllable boundary	25	51.02
Onset-nucleus boundary	24	48.98
Total	49	100

Table 6.7 shows that the split point of the source words in Thai lexical blends occurs at the syllable boundary and at the onset-nucleus boundary. When looking at the split point of source words in Thai lexical blends, it is remarkable that Thai favor two patterns of phonological split points in similar proportions (51% of syllable boundary and 49% of onset-coda boundary). See the examples below:

- at a syllable boundary:

(27) /tùla:ka:n/ (in /tùla:thíppàtai/): /tù.la:.ka:n/

(28) /ʔànúkrom/ (in /sǎ:ra.núkrom/): /ʔà.nú.krom/

- at an onset-nucleus boundary:

(29) /sǎ:tha:ráná/ (in /sǎ:tha:ránu.pàka:n/)

(30) /sùríjá/ (in /sùríjúpàra:ka:/)

No other patterns of phonological split points are found in the source words of Thai lexical blends in the data set. This can be explained by the fact that the majority of Thai blends are fused with the first source word whose final splinter consists of a CV syllable, and its vowel is clipped (at an onset-nucleus boundary), and with the second source word whose first syllable begins with the syllable əʔ /ʔà/ or ə /ʔú/, and it is always cut off (at a syllable boundary).

6.2.3 Semantic classification of Thai lexical blends

The semantic features of blends have primarily been explored in terms of developing a classification of blends based on the relationships between their source words, similar to the

way compounds are classified based on the semantic links between their elements (see Bauer, 1983, Benczes, 2006 and Renner, 2008). In the present study, the semantic classification of Thai lexical blends is analysed in the same way as English and Thai compounds in previous chapters in order to examine the semantic types, headedness, and metaphonymic shifts.

6.2.3.1 Semantic headedness of Thai lexical blends

The headedness of the 37 Thai lexical blends in the data set is analysed in the same way as that of Thai and English compounds (see Chapter 3: section 3.2.3, Chapter 4: section 4.2.3). The head of lexical blends is also examined on the basis of the existence of a hyponymic relation between a source word and the blend itself, and also the literal or figurative interpretation of the unit. The position (left-hand side or right-hand side) and the number of heads are also specified.

In the data set, the overwhelming majority of lexical blends in Thai are subordinate, with only one head, while a small number of them are coordinate blends, with two heads. Headless lexical blends cannot be found in the data collection. The number of semantic heads and the semantic relation are distributed in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Distribution of semantic heads and semantic relations

Number of heads	Semantic relation	Number	Percent
Two heads	Coordinate	4	10.81%
One head	Subordinate	33	89.19%
Headless		0	0%
Total		62	100%

6.2.3.2 Subordinate blends

Table 6.8 shows that 89.19% of lexical blends in Thai have one head, that they are subordinate due to the fact that one of the source words functions as the head of the blend.

Within the category of subordinate blends, the head denotes the main meaning while the non-head element encodes a relation to the head. The Thai subordinate lexical blends

examined in this study are relational, with a head element that conveys the main meaning, and a non-head element that modifies or describes its relation in certain aspects to the head. There is only one Thai blend which is attributive, as displayed below:

Relational blend	(31) ตุลาภิวัฒน์ /tùla:phiwát/	/tùla:ka:n/ + /ʔàphíwát/ judge-advancement ‘judicialization’
Attributive blend	(32) กระเป๋รง /kràpreŋ/	/kràproŋ/ + /ka:ŋkreŋ/ skirt-pants ‘pants which look like a skirt’

In this study, the position of the head of single-headed lexical blends in Thai is also examined. The findings show that all lexical blends in the data set are right-headed. None of them has the head on the left-hand side. Table 6.9 show the distribution of the position of the head of subordinate blends.

Table 6.9: Distribution of the position of the head of subordinate blends

Subordinate blends	Number	Percent
Right-headed	33	100
Left-headed	0	0
Total	33	100%

As presented in Table 6.9, all lexical blends in Thai have their heads on the right-hand side, which is in stark contrast to the position of the head in Thai compounds, as it was described in Chapter 3 that the overwhelming majority of Thai compound nouns are left-headed, but there is a minority of Thai compounds whose head the right-hand side element. In the case of right-headed lexical blends, it can be explained by the same reason as in the case of some right-headed compounds – because blends are composed of source words borrowed from Pali and Sanskrit, so the head is on the right, as is the case in the donor languages. This can be confirmed by exploring new words in the Royal Institute Dictionary of Coined Words. It

was found that most of them have been coined by making use of Pali and/or Sanskrit morphemes to encode Western-based notions, in order to avoid using direct borrowing from foreign languages, especially English and other Western languages (Diller *et al.*, 2008). For example, the word ‘อธิปไตย’ /ʔatíppàtai/ in the blend /ma:ta:thíppàtai/ is a borrowed word from Pali language that is used to translate the English word ‘sovereignty’ into Thai. Thai does not only borrow Pali and Sanskrit lexemes to coin new words, but Thai also imitates the rules of blending formation from Pali and Sanskrit, showing that the head element is on the right, and the modification is on the left (Buapanngarm, 2016). Even when the two source words are Thai, the position of the head is also on the right due to the imitation of blending formation from Pali and Sanskrit as mentioned earlier, as in the blend กระโปรง /kràpreŋ/ (> /kràproŋ/ + /ka:ŋkreŋ/ skirt-pants, meaning "pants which look like a skirt").

6.2.3.3 Coordinate blends

Coordinate blends, like coordinate compounds, have parts that can be read as being at the same hierarchical level and can be combined by the word "and." The semantic heads are both source words, and they provide the meaning equally. In the present study, there are 10.81% or 4 coordinate blends, which have two heads. Both elements belong to the same lexical category and convey the meaning equally. See the blends below:

(33) ซีเครียด	/si:krîat/	/si:rîat/ + /krîat/ serious-stressful ‘serious and stressful’
(34) สัพเพเหร	/sàpphe:hě:rók/	/sàpphe:hě:râ/ + /rók/ trifling-messy ‘trifling and messy’
(35) ทรัพยากร	/sáppája:ko:n/	/sáp/ + /ʔa:ko:n/ wealth-revenue ‘resource’

(36) ทูตานุทูต

/thu:tha:núthû:t/

/thû:t/ + /ʔànúthû:t/

ambassador-assistant ambassador

‘diplomatic corps’

Among the 4 blends that make up the 10.81% of coordinate blends found within the data set, the constituents of each blend belong to the same lexical category and are also all co-hyponyms. Renner (2006) categorizes the semantic relationships between the elements of coordinate blends into four main groups:

- 1) A hybrid blend denotes a hybrid of the things denoted by its elements e.g., tigon (tiger + lion).
- 2) An additional blend is made up of the instance denoting the addition of the two parts e.g., semantax (semantics + syntax).
- 3) A polyvalent blend is made up of words denoting the features of both elements e.g., spork (spoon + fork).
- 4) A tautologous blend is made up of two units which are synonyms of each other e.g., wuss (wimp + pussy).

Based on this categorization, Thai coordinate blends can be grouped as shown in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Distribution of the semantic categorization of coordinate blends

Types	Number	Percent
Hybrid	0	0
Addition	4	100
Polyvalence	0	0
Tautology	0	0
	4	100

4 coordinate blends were examined, and it was found that Thai coordinate blends are attested in only one category, that of additional blend to represent the instance denoting the addition of the two parts. Hybrid, polyvalence, and tautology blends could not be found.

6.2.3.4 Metaphtonymic shifts

Blends also vary in semantic transparency, like compounds. Some of them appear unpredictable in their compositional interpretation. As for the analysis of Thai compounds (see Chapter 3, section: 3.2.3.4), they are classified into four fundamental types: transparent, head-transparent, non-head transparent, and fully figurative/opaque. The distribution of four types is presented in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: The distribution of four types of metaphtonymic shifts

	Frequency	%
transparency of both elements	37	100
transparency of the head element	0	0
transparency of the non-head element	0	0
opacity of both elements of the compound	0	0
Total	37	100

Table 6.11 shows that all Thai blends are fully transparent i.e., both source words are interpreted literally, as in the blend /sǔnja:ka:t/ ‘airless’ (< sǔnja ‘empty’ + /ʔa:ka:t/ ‘air’), and the blend /sǐnlápa:ka:n/ ‘art house’ (< /sǐnlápà/ ‘art’ + /ʔa:ka:n/ ‘building’).

No unit shows the opacity of source words. This can be explained by the fact that it is not always easy to understand the meaning of a blend, especially when it appears to be impossible to figure out the constituents. Since blends are intentionally created to designate new things, the reader or listener may be confronted with the additional difficulty to figure out the meaning of blends if both source words cannot be interpreted literally.

6.3 Conclusions

In the present study, blending is described as a process of word construction that involves the integration of two or more lexemes with the loss of phonic and/or graphic forms through various patterns of shortening. It also involves both a combination of forms and a combination of meanings. The examination of 37 lexical blends has demonstrated that Thai has three fixed etymological patterns to form blends: Thai and Thai, Thai and borrowings, like the Pali and Sanskrit languages. The number of elements in lexical blends seems to be limited to a maximum of three, and the structures of lexical blends are varied up to 8 patterns: [N-N], [N-V], [ADJ-N], [V-N], [ADJ-V], [N-V], [V-ADJ], [N-N-N] and [ADJ-ADJ]. All blends are also limited to three lexical categories: nouns, adjectives, and verbs. The patterns of lexical shortening fall into three main categories: 43.24% of the AD type, 43.24% of the ABD type and 8.11% of the ACD type. While being blended, source words are split at two different locations: 51% at the syllable boundary and 49% at the onset-coda boundary -- it is remarkable to see very similar proportions of patterns of phonological split points. Very rare units show some segment overlap. Semantically, the majority of Thai lexical blends have only one head, while a minority of them have two heads. The position of the head in all Thai lexical blends in the data set is to be found on the right. Most of them are relational subordinative blends. All blends in the data set are literal; figurative units cannot be found.

Chapter 7

Lexical Blending in English

Chapter 7

Lexical Blending in English

This chapter describes how lexical blends are created in English. The analysis is based on a sample of 100 lexical blends which have been collected manually from three dictionaries specified only from 1990: 1) 34 units selected from the Oxford Dictionary of New Words, from 1990 to 1998 (Knowles and Elliott, 1997), 2) 8 units from 20th-century words: the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years, from 1990 to 1999 (Ayto, 1999), and 3) 58 units selected from Oxford English Dictionary (OED), online version: the selection is based on the words labelled ‘blends’ in the etymology in an advanced search and which appeared in the 20th century or early 21st century, from 1900 to 2010.

I initially intended to collect lexical blends only in the Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW), which is the source used for English nominal compounds in the data set; however, the number of units obtained was insufficient. I then extended the search to 20th-century words: the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years (Ayto, 1999), and the OED online to find more lexical blends that appeared in the 20th century or early 21st century (1900-2010). The units in the data set were analyzed in order to provide a detailed study of their main formal and semantic characteristics.

7.1 Defining and collecting lexical blends in English

Blending in English has been intensively studied in recent years because of its interesting structure arrangement. It is a compelling procedure that involves taking two words and fusing them together as one new word, as in the word *brunch*, which is a combination of the words *breakfast* and *lunch*. It can be hard to predict which word combinations are destined to become blends, and which ones are not (Bauer, 2012). Blending is a very productive word-formation process in present-day English. It often branches off into different subcategories, including compounding, neo-classical compounding, affixation, clipping, and acronyming (Lopez Rúa, 2012).

The definition of blending varies between authors and studies. Lopez Rúa (2012) describes blending as a word-formation process involving the creation of a new word by fusing two or more words. Through this process, at least one of the source words loses some of its elements as in the word *floptical*, a combination of the word *floppy* and the word *optical*. In some cases, both words involved lost material, as in the word *edutainment*, which combines the

word *education* and the word *entertainment*. When two words are fused, their forms are changed, and their meanings are changed as well. For example, the word *tangelo* is a hybrid of *tangerine* and *pomelo*. What was once two separate fruits, a tangerine and a pomelo, has now been hybridized into one new fruit, as well as one new word. The original words now create a new meaning together.

Arcodia and Montermini (2012) also state that there is a common string that serves as the conjunction point between the two combined words. For example, the word *motel* fuses the two words <motor + hotel> based on a previously used concept, that of ‘roadside hotel’, which was convenient for motorists in their travels (OED). This appears as a good example of the common string between the two source words, here <ot>, and shows that there is segment overlap between the two original words.

Similarly, Bauer (2017) has similar views on the process and definition of blending in English. He defines blends as the interpenetration of two or more words to form a new word. He specifies in his definition, though, the particular format of the source words. He states the importance of noticing that the new word contains the beginning of the first source word and the end of the last source word. In this case, they do not contain all the phonological material from all the source words. For example, the word “abortuary” combines the two source words *abort* and *mortuary*.

This is similar to the definition by Beliaeva (2019a), who states that blending involves combining parts of two source words so that the beginning of the first source word is conjoined with the ending of the second one, as in the formula $AB + CD = AD$. While focusing on blends with only two source words, she studied outcomes where blends could be formed with only the final parts of both source words, as in the formula BD , like *frohawk* (< afro + Mohawk >). Beliaeva (2019a??) also considers combining more than two source words, typically three, and possibly more. For example, the word *Thankshallowistmas* combines Thanksgiving, Halloween, and Christmas. Another formal outcome consists in inserting one source word inside the structure of another one, as in *prowebstinate* (< *procrastinate* + *web*).

In the present study, the definition of blending aligns with the concept and characteristic mentioned above; the focus is on a word formation process which involves the combination of two or more words with the loss of phonic or/and graphic forms in different patterns of reduction. It does not only involve a combination of forms, but also a combination of meaning. The analysis of the 100 blends is discussed in the sections to follow.

7.2 Formal Classification of English Lexical Blends

7.2.1 Lexical typology

In the study, all 100 blends are only composed of two source words, and they are limited to five lexical categories: nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and pronouns. Table 7.1 shows the lexical categories of the outputs. The overwhelming majority of them are nouns, with a small minority of adjectives, verbs, and an even small number of adverbs and pronouns.

Table 7.1: Lexical categories of the outputs of blending in English

Lexical category of the output			Frequency	%
noun	netizen	net + citizen	91	91
adjective	skeezy	skeevy + sleazy	4	4
verb	chillax	chill + relax	3	3
adverb	automagically	automatically + magically	1	1
pronoun	zir	ze + hir	1	1
Total			100	100%

Table 7.2 illustrates that the 100 outputs are composed of various lexical categories. The majority of English blends in the data set combine a noun and another noun, followed by an adjective and a noun, a noun and an adjective, and an adjective and another adjective. Other very small numbers of items are composed of a verb and a noun, a noun and a verb, a pronoun and a noun, a preposition and a noun, a verb and an adverb, and a proper noun and a noun.

Table 7.2: Lexical categories of the inputs

Lexical category of the input	Blends	Source words	Frequency	%
noun + noun	banoffi	banana + toffee	72	72
adjective + noun	intertext	intermediate + text	11	11
noun + adjective	babelicious	babe + delicious	5	5

Lexical category of the input	Blends	Source words	Frequency	%
adjective + adjective	skeezy	skeevy + sleazy	3	3
verb + noun	eatertainment	eat + entertainment	2	2
adverb + adverb	automagically	automatically + magically	1	1
adverb + verb	gengineer	genetically + engineer	1	1
pronoun + noun	himbo	him + bimbo	1	1
noun + verb	oatrim	oat + trim	1	1
interjection+ noun	grrrl	grrr + girl	1	1
pronoun + pronoun	zir	ze + hir	1	1
verb + verb	chillax	chill + relax	1	1
prefix + noun	prebuttal	pre- + rebuttal	1	1
			100	100%

7.2.2 Morphophonological typology

7.2.1.1 Lexical shortening

Blending involves shortening to merge at least two source words so that only part of their orthographical and/or phonological material is kept. Blends result from the application of the shortening of at least one of the source forms, either through simple clipping or through a haplologic combination of the shortened source forms. The distribution of the various types of lexical shortening are illustrated in Table 7.3, on the basis of the symbolization adopted by Plag (2018: 121), where A and B respectively represent the left-hand and right-hand part of the first source element, and C and D the left-hand and right-hand part of the second source element.

Table 7.3: Distribution of the patterns of lexical shortening

Type of shortening	Frequency	%
AD type	39	39
AC type	5	5
ABD type	33	33
ACD type	16	16
haplology	4	4
sandwich (e.g., Jafaican)	1	1
other (e.g., abzyme)	2	2
Total	100	100%

The patterns of lexical shortening in Table 7.3 are categorized into five groups, and each of them, with some examples, is described in more details as follows.

(1) AD blends

39% of the blends in the data set are created by double inner shortening. The beginning of one word is concatenated with the ending of another word. In other words, both source words are shortened (right-shortening of the of the left source word and left-shortening of the right source word), and they are combined with the initial part of the first source word and the final part of the second source word:

subtopia	sub[urban] + [u]topia	a suburban area that has been developed in an unattractive or unsightly way
shoat	sh[eeep] + [g]oat	the offspring of a sheep and a goat
nicorette	nico[tine] + [ciga]rette	the proprietary name of a type of nicotine-flavored chewing-gum used to reduce dependency of tobacco

(2) AC blends

5% of the collected items are created by double right-shortening. Both source words are shortened on the right-hand side. Examples are shown below:

comsat	com[munication] + sat[elite]	an artificial satellite used to replay radio, television, and telephone signals around the earth's surface
cyborg	cyb[ernetic] + org[anism]	a person whose physical tolerances or capabilities are extended beyond normal human limitations by a machine or other external agency that modifies the body's functioning; an integrated man-machine system
Semtex	Semt[in] + ex[plosive]	a malleable, more or less odorless plastic explosive, manufactured in several grades and known largely through its use by terrorists.

(3) ABD blends

33% of the collected inputs are coined by right-hand-side inner shortening. The left source word remains in full, while the right source word is shortened to have only a final string. The examples are illustrated below:

slumpflation	slump + [in]flation	a state of economic depression in which decreasing output and employment in industry are accompanied by increasing inflation
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workfare	work + [wel]fare	a policy of requiring recipient of welfare money to do some work in exchange for this benefit
slumlord	slum + [land]lord	someone who lets slum property to tenants, especially one who allows the property to fall into disrepair

(4) ACD blends

16% of the lexical units are composed of an initial string of a left source word and a full right source word. Only the left source word is shortened by clipping the final string.

hoolivan	hooli[gan] + van	a type of police van carrying photographic and video equipment for observing crowd behavior and identifying trouble-makers at football matches and other events
alcopop	alco[holic] + pop	a carbonated, often fruit-flavored drink containing alcohol
televangelist	telev[ision] + evangelist	an evangelical preacher who uses the mass media, and particularly television, to promote especially fundamental doctrine

(5) Haplologic blending

There are 4% of the data set which are haplologic ABCD blends. Both source words remain in full, but there is a linear shortening, which is due to the overlapping of some identical and contiguous segments, like two words below:

palimony	pal + alimony	compensation claimed especially by the deserted party after the separation of an unmarried couple living together
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twigloo	twig + igloo	a form of temporary shelter made of branches and used especially by environmental protesters
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(6) Sandwich blend

In the data set, there is one sandwich blend, found as shown below:

Jafaican	Jamaican + fake	non-Jamaican person who adopts or identifies with aspects of Jamaican culture, esp. in a way regarded as contrived or inauthentic
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As can be seen in the blend *Jafaican*, a part of the second source word is sandwiched between two splinters of the first source word.

(7) Others

In the data set, there are two special words that cannot be categorized in the six groups mentioned above:

abzyme	antibody + enzyme	an antibody that has been altered to give it some of the properties of enzyme
cambozola	Camembert + Gorgonzola	the trademark of a type of German blue cheese with a Camembert-like-rind, produced using Gorgonzola blue mould

The blend *abzyme* is formed by combining the a and b letters of the first source word (*antibody*) with the last syllable of the second source word (*enzyme*). Other elements of both source words are deleted.

The blend ‘cambozola’ is formed by combining the first syllable of *Camembert* plus the letter ‘b’ and some medial and final elements of *Gorgonzola*.

7.2.1.2 Segment overlap

Segment overlap occurs when a segment in a blend is shared by different source words, which can be sourced from either input word (Renner, 2019). Following the analysis by Renner (2019), there are three different types of segment overlap:

- graphic-cum-phonetic overlap
e.g., strimmer (**string** + **trimmer**)
- graphic-only overlap
e.g., faction (**fact** + **fiction**)
- phonetic-only overlap
e.g., dancercise (dance + exercise)

In the data set, 62% of the blends have overlapping segments, whereas 38% of them have no overlap of the two source words. Table 7.4 shows the distribution of the three types of segment overlap in the 62 blends.

Table 7.4: Distribution of segment overlap in the English lexical blends

Type of overlap	Frequency	%
graphic-cum-phonetic	47	47
graphic only	12	12
phonetic only	3	3
no overlapping	38	38
Total	100	100%

(1) 47%, i.e., a clear majority of cases of overlap, display material overlap at both the graphic and phonetic levels (e.g. strimmer (**string** + **trimmer**), which has graphic overlap of <tri> and phonetic overlap of the sounds /tri/). This includes haplologic blends, in which one of the constituents is directly mapping onto the other; they involve overlap by definition (e.g. palimony (**pal** + **alimony**), and twigloo (**twig** + **igloo**)).

(2) 12% of overlap blends have graphic-only segment overlap, which involves only overlap of graphemes (e.g. faction (**fact** + **fiction**), which has graphic overlap of <t>, and

Ebonics (**ebony** + **phonics**), which has graphic overlapping of <o> (and also full overlap of <n> and phonic overlap of /i/).

(3) 3% of overlap blends have phonic-only segment overlap, which involve only overlap of phonemes, as shown in the blend *dancercise* (/dæns/ + /eksərsaɪz/), which has phonic overlap of the sound /s/.

It may be interesting to investigate whether there is a correlation between patterns of shortening and segment overlap, to see if they are related in one way or another. The data in Table 7.5 below show that all haplologic blends involve overlapping, and most of ABD and ACD blends display the possibility of segment overlap.

Table 7.5: Number of blends with segment overlap

Type of shortening	Number of blends with segment overlap	
AD type	20/39	32.26%
AC type	1/5	1.62%
ABD type	26/33	41.94%
ACD type	11/15	17.75%
Haplologic blending	4/4	6.46%
Sandwich blending	0/1	0%
Other	0/2	0%
Total	62	100%

Regarding the Table 7.5, it can be seen clearly that overlap is only optional (just because shortening takes place does not mean that there will necessarily be segment overlap) and remarkably, only a small number of AC blends have this capacity, but sandwich blends never display this possibility.

7.2.1.3 Patterns of phonological splitting

The split point is considered as the point at which the source words have been cut off, which is a distinguishing feature in the formation and observation of blends. When blended, there

are different parts of the source words that are used and not used, and wherever the words are separated to create a new word is where the split point can be found. Source words are split at different morph boundaries, depending on the word that they are becoming (Beliaeva, 2019b). In the present study, the analysis of English lexical blends to find out the patterns of phonological splitting was conducted similarly to Thai lexical blends.

Following the analysis of the data set, there are 64 source words which did not manifest segment overlapping to be analyzed to determine where the split was, and the spitting pattern was then compared with the syllabification information for British English found in the Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary (CEPD). The split point is located in three locations: at a syllable boundary, at an onset-nucleus boundary, and at a nucleus-coda boundary, as displayed in Table 7.6

Table 7.6: Distribution of phonological split points

Location of the split point	Number	%
Syllable boundary	44	68.76
Onset-nucleus boundary	19	29.69
Nucleus-coda boundary	1	1.57
Total	64	100

Regarding Table 7.6, it can be seen that the majority of English blends seem to prefer syllable boundary splits, which shows the highest percentage, followed by onset-nucleus splits. It is remarkable that English seems to disprefer nucleus-coda splits. See some examples below:

- at a syllable boundary:
 - hooligan (in hoolivan): /'hu:li.gən/
 - landlord (in slumlord): /'lænd.lɔ:d/
 - camera (in camcorder): /'kæm.rə/
- at an onset-nucleus boundary:
 - goat (in geep): /gəʊt/

haze (in smaze): /heɪz/

sheep (in shoat): /ʃi:p/

- at a nucleus-coda boundary:

exploitation (in Blaxploitation): /,ek.splɔɪ'teɪ.ʃən/

7.2.3 Semantic classification of English blends

The semantic properties of blends have been considered mainly in terms of the relationships with and between the source words, in an approach which is similar to the semantic classifications of compounding (see Bauer, 1983, Benczes, 2006, and Renner, 2008).

7.2.3.1 Headedness of English blends

The headedness of the 100 blends in the study is analyzed in the same way as the Thai lexical blends in Chapter 6, section 6.2.3. The source words of a blend are considered to be in unison with the elements of compounding due to their unarguable similarities in interpretation. The head of a lexical blend is also determined on the basis of the existence of a hyponymic relation between a source word and the blend itself, and also the literal or figurative interpretation of the unit. The lateral position (left-hand side or right-hand side) and the number of heads is also specified.

In the data set, a vast majority of lexical blends in English have one head, while a sizable minority of them have two heads. Headless blends cannot be found. Table 7.7 shows the distribution of the number of semantic heads and the different semantic relations.

Table 7.7: Distribution of the number of semantic heads and the semantic relation

Number of heads	Semantic relation	Number	Percent
Two heads	Coordinate	11	11%
One head	Subordinate	89	89%
Headless		0	0%

Total	100	100%
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7.2.3.2 Subordinate blends

In the present study, an overwhelming majority of lexical blends in English are subordinate in so far as one of the source words functions as the head of the blend. In the single-headed blends within the data set, 76 of them have the head on the right, and 13 of them are left-headed. Table 7.8 shows the distribution of the position of the head of subordinate blends.

Table 7.8: Distribution of the position of the head of subordinate blends

Subordinate blends	Number	Percent
Right-headed	76	85.40
Left-headed	13	14.60
Total	89	100%

Some examples are presented below:

Subordinate right-headed blends

computeracy	computer + literacy	knowledge of or experience in computing
sexcapade	sex + escapade	a sexual escapade
skyjack	sky + hijack	to hijack an airplane

Subordinate left-headed blends

advertorial	advertisement + editorial	an advertisement written in the form of an editorial, which purportedly provides objective information about a commercial or industrial subject
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quillow	quilt + pillow	a quilt that can be folded into an attached pocket to form a pillow
docutainment	documentary+ entertainment	a documentary intended to entertain as well as inform

7.2.3.3 Coordinate blends

Coordinate blends are those blends whose elements can be interpreted as being at the same hierarchical level, can be joined by ‘and’, in a similar fashion to coordinate compounds. Both source words are the semantic heads, and they convey the meaning equally. In the present study, there are 11% of coordinate blends. Within this class, blends can be divided into 3 groups based on the lexical categories of the inputs: 1) noun-noun units, 2) adjective-adjective units, and verb-verb units, as presented in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9: Lexical category of the inputs of coordinate blends

Lexical category of the input	Blends	Source words
(1) noun-noun	banoffi	banana + toffee
	infotainment	information + entertainment
	cambozola	Camembert + Gorgonzola
	docusoap	documentary + soap opera
	eatertainment	eat + entertainment
	racino	racetrack + casino
	puggle	pug + beagle
(2) adjective-adjective	skeezy	skeevy + sleazy
	crunk	crazy + drunk
	freegan	free + vegan
(3) verb-verb	chillax	chill + relax

Among the blends that make up the 11% of coordinate blends found within the data set, the constituents of each blend belong to the same lexical category and are also all co-hyponyms. Renner (2006) categorizes the semantic relationships between the elements of coordinate blends, which are coined with noun-noun units, into four groups:

- 1) a hybrid blend, which indicates a hybrid of the two things that share each other element;
- 2) an additional blend which is made up of the instance denoting the addition of the two parts;
- 3) a polyvalent blend, which is made up of two words that express the features of both source words;
- 4) a tautologous blend, which is made up of two source words that are synonymous.

Thai coordinate blends were analyzed based on this categorization (see Chapter 6, Section 6.4.3), and so will the English lexical blends explored in this chapter, which involve only seven noun-noun units. Table 7.10 displays the distribution of the number of coordinate blends in each category.

Table 7.10: Distribution of the semantic categorization of coordinate blends.

Types	Number	%
Hybrid	6	85.71
Addition	1	14.29
Polyvalence	0	0
Tautology	0	0
	7	100

Based on this categorization, all noun-noun units are hybrid blends. None of other categories are found. It can be obviously seen that English blends prefer a hybrid concept which iconically denotes a mix of two entities. See some examples below:

Hybrid blends

puggle	pug + beagle	a dog cross-bred from a pug and a beagle; such dogs considered collectively as a breed
infotainment	information + entertainment	broadcast material which is intended to entertain and to inform
racino	racetrack + casino	a building complex or grounds having a racetrack and gambling facilities traditionally associated with casinos, such as slot machines, blackjack, roulette, etc.

Besides lexical blends composed of noun-noun units, it is interesting to categorize adjective-adjective units and verb-verb units. They can be included in the category of additional and tautological blends. See some examples below:

skeezy	skeevy + sleazy	slovenly, distasteful, sleazy; disreputable or immoral, esp. sexually
crunk	crazy + drunk	exciting or fun; (of a person) extremely energized or excited
freegan	free + vegan	of or relating to the practice of eating discarded food, typically collected from the refuse of shops or restaurants, for ethical or ecological reasons

chillax	chill + relax	to calm down and relax; to take it easy, to chill
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7.2.3.4 Metaphtonymic shifts

While looking at the figurative and literal meaning interpretations in lexical blends, different subtypes are usually distinguished. As the analysis of Thai blends (see Chapter 6) has shown, blends are classified into four fundamental types: transparent, head-transparent, non-head transparent, and fully figurative/opaque. This classification is also used to analyze English lexical blends in order to detect different degrees of opacification. The distribution of four types is presented in Table 7.11.

Table 7.11: Distribution of the four types of metaphtonymic shifts in English blends

	Frequency	%
transparency of both elements	90	90
transparency of the head element	1	1
transparency of the non-head element	9	9
opacity of both elements of the compound	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 7.11 shows that English blends fall into three types of metaphtonymic shifts. The details of each types are described as follows:

(1) 88% of the lexical blends in the data set are transparent, i.e., they convey the meaning directly from each source word, and the whole meaning can be figured out by combining the basic meaning of their parts. They are straightforward and simple, which shows the transparency of both source words. See some examples below:

edutainment	education + entertainment	entertainment with an educational aspect; material intended to entertain and to inform
ribozyme	ribonucleic + enzyme	a type of ribonucleic acid which is capable of acting as an enzyme
vegellate	vegetable + chocolate	chocolate which contains a certain proportion of vegetable fat other than cocoa butter

(2) Only 1% of the examined units display a transparency of the head and an opacity of the non-head member. The illustrative example is:

feminazi	feminist + Nazi	a contemptuous term for a radical feminist
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The word *feminazi* is a left-headed blend showing that the head conveys the meaning literally whereas the non-head element has figurative meaning.

(3) 9% of the blends in the data set are made of a transparent non-head member and a semantically opaque head element. See the examples below:

abortuary	abort + mortuary	a clinic where abortions are carried out
internaut	internet + astronaut	an (expert or habitual) user of the internet
twigloo	twig + igloo	a form of temporary shelter made of branches and used especially by environmental protesters

(4) None of the lexical blends in the data set show the opacity of both source words. This can be explained by the fact that it is not always simple to decipher the meaning of blends, particularly when it seems hard to identify the member parts. Because blends are

purposely made to signify new things, it could be challenging for the reader or listener to understand the meaning of blends if both source words cannot be taken literally.

7.3 Conclusions

In the present study, blending is defined as a word-formation process involving the combination of two or more words with the loss of phonic and/or graphic forms in different patterns of shortening. It involves both a combination of forms and a combination of meanings. The examination of 100 blends in English has demonstrated the variety of their main formal and semantic characteristics. Lexical blends in English seem to typically use two elements, and belong to five lexical categories in different proportions: 91% of nouns, 4 % of adjectives, 3 % of verbs, 1% of adverbs and 1% of pronouns. The structures of lexical blends are varied, with thirteen patterns identified: 72% of N-Ns, 11 % of ADJ-Ns, 5% of N-ADJs, 3% of ADJ-ADJs, and small number of ADV-ADVs, ADV-Vs, PRON-Ns, N-Vs, INTER-Vs, PRON-PRONs, V-Vs, and PFX-Ns. The patterns of lexical shortening fall into seven categories: 38% of AD blends, 33% of ABD blends, 16% of ACD blends, 5% of AC blends, 4% of haplologic blends, 1% of sandwich blends, and a few special combinations. Over half of the lexical units in the data set show an overlap at three different levels: 47% of graphic-cum-phonic overlap, 12% of graphic only overlap, and 3% of phonic only overlap. While being blended, source words are split at four different locations: 69% at a syllable boundary, 30% at an onset-nucleus boundary, and 2% at a nucleus-coda boundary. Semantically, the majority of English lexical blends have only one head, while a minority of them have two heads. In the class of single-headed blends, the position of the head is canonically found on the right, but, remarkably, a quarter of them have the head on the left (something which is not possible in compounding). The majority of blends found are relational subordinate blends. Though there were a few cases where figurative blends were found, the majority of blends of the data set remain literal in their interpretation.

Chapter 8

A Comparison of Lexical Blending in Thai and English

Chapter 8

A Comparison of Lexical Blending in Thai and English

This chapter examines in a contrastive perspective two sets of 37 Thai and 100 English lexical units identified as lexical blends, which are defined as outputs of a word-formation process involving the fusion of two or more words with either the loss of some phonic or graphic form in different patterns of shortening, and which also involves both a combination of forms and a combination of meanings. The formal and semantic classifications of lexical blends in Thai and English are discussed and exemplified to shed light on the similarities and the differences based on the data collected.

8.1 Formal Classification

8.1.1 Lexical typology

Lexical blends in Thai and English are usually made up of two source words, and it was found that a small number of items in Thai are made up of three source words. The distribution of the number of elements of lexical blends in Thai and English is illustrated in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Distribution of the number of elements in Thai and English blends

Number of elements	Thai	English
	(%)	(%)
two elements	95	100
three elements	5	0
Total	100	100

This shows that Thai tends to display more complexity in blend formation than English does. Table 8.2 shows the distribution of the lexical units in Thai and English. Lexical blends in Thai are limited to only two lexical categories, whereas English includes five lexical categories. The extent of variation is this time higher in English than in Thai. Table 8.2 also

shows that although there is a sizeable minority of verbs, adverbs and pronouns attested in English, their relative ranking and the proportions of nouns and adjectives in the two languages are similar. Interestingly, the data thus show that creativity in blending seems to differ in the two languages – Thai seems to have an inclination for an increase in the number of elements while English would prefer to have a variety of lexical types.

Table 8.2: Lexical categories of the outputs of blending in Thai and English

Lexical category of the output	Thai (%)	English (%)
noun	89	91
adjective	3	4
verb	8	3
adverb	0	1
pronoun	0	1
Total	100	100

Table 8.3 shows the lexical categories of the inputs in the two languages. It shows that noun-noun combinations are the majority inputs in the two languages, followed by adjective-noun combinations. There is a resemblance of sizeable minority cases of adjective-adjective combinations, verb-noun combinations, and noun-verb combinations in the two languages.

Table 8.3 The lexical categories of the inputs

Lexical category of the input	Thai (%)	English (%)
noun + noun	62	72
adjective + noun	11	11

Lexical category of the input	Thai (%)	English (%)
noun + adjective	0	5
adjective + adjective	3	3
verb + noun	8	2
adverb + adverb	0	1
pronoun + noun	0	1
noun + verb	5	1
interjection + noun	0	1
pronoun + pronoun	0	1
verb + verb	0	1
prefix + noun	0	1
adjective + verb	3	0
verb + adjective	3	0
noun + noun + noun	5	0
Total	100	100

Table 8.3 also shows the distinction of the inputs of lexical blending in Thai and English. Noun-adjective combinations represent a small number of blends in English (e.g. floptical < floppy + optical) and nutraceutical (< nutrition + pharmaceutical)), but none of them are found in Thai. Unlike Thai, English makes use of a variety of combinations: verb-verb (chill + relax > chillax), adverb-adverb (automatically + magically > automagically), pronoun-pronoun (him + her > hir), interjection-noun (grrr + girl > grrrl), and prefix-noun (pre- + rebuttal > prebuttal). However, Thai has a combination of adjective-verb (e.g. /lokijá/ [global] + /ʔanùwát/ [to follow] = /lo.kì.ja:.nù.wát/ [secularization]), which cannot be found in English.

8.1.2 Patterns of lexical shortening

Lexical blends in Thai and English were analyzed on the basis of the symbolization adopted by Plag (2018: 121), where A and B respectively represent the left-hand and right-hand part of the first source element, and C and D the left-hand and right-hand part of the second source element. In case of three-element blends, E and F represent the left-hand and right-hand part of the third source element. The findings show that the same patterns of lexical shortening are found in the two languages, except for the AC type, haplologic blends and sandwich blending, which cannot be found in the Thai data. This indicates that, again, there is more variety in the creative patterns of blending in English than in Thai. Table 7.4 shows the distribution of the patterns of lexical shortening in Thai and English.

Table 8.4: Distribution of the patterns of lexical shortening of binary blends

Type of shortening	Thai (%)	English (%)
AD type	43	39
AC type	0	5
ABD type	43	33
ACD type	9	16
haplology	0	4
sandwich	0	1
others	5	2
Total	100	100

Although the proportion of the AD items in the two languages is remarkably similar, there is a difference of the distribution among the lexical blends in the two languages. Among the seven different types of lexical shortening, English blends slightly favor the AD type, whereas there are two equally dominant patterns in Thai, which are the ABD and the AD types.

This dual preference can be explained by the fact that Thai blends exhibit specific phonological and structural constraints which do not exist for English. As mentioned earlier, there is a strict traditional rule of lexical blending borrowed from Pali and Sanskrit languages stating that the second source word always begins with the syllable ๐๒ /ʔà/ (57.14%), ๐๓ /ʔà:/ (20%) or ๐๔ /ʔú/ (17.4%), and it is always cut off at a syllable boundary. To put it differently, in order to form lexical blends in Thai, most of the source words which are on the right-hand side begin with ๐ /ʔ/. Some illustrative examples are given below:

/sǎ:ra.núkrom/	/sǎ:ra/	+	/ʔànúkrom/
	‘knowledge’		‘order’
	‘encyclopedia’		
/khôsàna:ka:n/	/khôsàna:/	+	/ʔa:ka:n/
	‘to advertise’		‘action’
	‘advertisement’		
/sǎ:tha.ránu.pàka:n/	/sǎ:tha.rána/	+	/ʔùpàka:n/
	‘public’		‘to help’
	‘public assistance’		

In the data set of English blends, it is noticeable that the patterns of lexical shortening vary up to seven patterns, while Thai makes use of only three patterns. The two languages are remarkably dissimilar in so far as the AC type, the sandwich type, and haplologic blending are found in English, but they have not been found in Thai.

In the case of three-element blends, Table 8.5 illustrates the distribution of the patterns of lexical shortening. They form a tiny subgroup in Thai, and they are unattested in English. It is remarkable that, in all cases, the first element (= AB) remains intact, and that deletion in the second and/or third element always occurs on the left-hand-side (i.e. C and/or E).

Table 8.5: Distribution of the patterns of lexical shortening of three-element blends

Type of shortening	Thai (%)	English (%)
ABDF	2.85	0
ABCDF	2.85	0

8.1.3 Segment overlap

The two data sets of lexical blends in Thai and English show that an overwhelming majority of Thai blends (86%) does not have overlap of the two source words while only 38% of English blends have no overlapping segments. Among the blends in the two languages that manifest segment overlap, three types of segment overlap can be distinguished: graphic-cum-phonetic overlap (e.g. floptical (floppy + optical), graphic only overlap (e.g. emoticon (emotion + icon) and phonetic only overlap (e.g. racino (racetrack + casino)) are all found in English, but just only one type – graphic-cum-phonetic overlap – is found in Thai (e.g. /khô.sà.na:ka:n/ (/khôsàna:/ ‘to advertise’ + /ʔa:ka:n/ ‘action’). This indicates again that there seems to be more creativity in the patterning of blending in English.

Table 8.6 shows the contrast of the distribution of the three types of segment overlap.

Table 8.6: Distribution of the segment of overlap in Thai and English blends

Type of overlap	Thai (%)	English (%)
graphic-cum-phonetic	14	47
graphic only	0	12
phonetic only	0	3
	14	62

An overwhelming part of overlap blends in Thai and English display graphic-cum-phonetic overlap, which is the default and most common form of overlap.

8.1.4 Patterns of phonological splitting

Following the analysis of phonological splitting in the Thai (Chapter 6, Section 6.2.2.3) and English (Chapter 7, Section 7.2.2.3) data sets, it appears that phonological splitting in both languages comes mainly at two different breakpoints: at a syllable boundary and at an onset-nucleus boundary. Things are remarkably similar in the two languages, except for a small minority of phonological split points in English, as displayed in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7: Distribution of phonological split points

Location of the split point	Thai	English
Syllable boundary	25 (51%)	44 (67%)
Onset-nucleus boundary	24 (49%)	19 (30%)
Nucleus-coda boundary	0 (0%)	1 (2%)
Total	49 (100%)	64 (100%)

Table 8.7 shows some similarity in the two languages, with a majority of source words in lexical blends favoring the split point located at a syllable boundary. Thai blends differ, however, from English units in that nucleus-coda, and inside-complex-nucleus splits are not attested.

Even though Thai and English have the same two main types of phonological split points shown in Table 8.7, English seems to prefer cutting of at syllabic constituency of the blend inputs more than Thai does, but the split points in Thai blends occur at an onset-nucleus boundary more frequently than in English because the first elements of Thai AD blends usually end in a vowel phoneme (the optimal syllable structure is CV in Thai while it is CVC in English).

When looking at the behaviors of the different types of lexical shortening and the split points of lexical blends which did not manifest segment overlap in the two languages, as displayed in Table 8.8, the most significant contrast is that English AD blends favor the syllable

boundary (e.g. edu*tainment – edu.ca.tion + en.ter.tain.ment), whereas Thai AD blends prefer the onset-nucleus boundary (e.g. /tɛintàn*a:ka:n/ ‘imagination’ - /tɛin.tà.na/ ‘to imagine’ + /ʔa:.ka:n/ ‘action’). This is because of the role of Pali and Sanskrit languages that Thai strictly follows the rule dictating that the first element ending in a vowel phoneme /a/ and the second element ending with a consonant phoneme /ʔ/ be fused in order to create lexical blends. The split points of English AC blends also always happen at a syllable boundary of the second source word as in the blend ‘vo*xel’ < vol.ume + pi.xel), but no such pattern is found in the Thai data set.

Table 8.8: Correlation between split points and patterns of lexical shortening

Location of split points	Languages	Patterns of shortening						Total
		AD	AC	ABD	ACD	ACB	Other	
at a syllable boundary	Thai	11	0	16	2	0	3	25 (51%)
	English	35	7	12	3	0	0	43 (67%)
at an onset-nucleus boundary	Thai	14	0	2	0	0	0	24 (49%)
	English	13	0	1	2	1	0	19 (30%)
at a nucleus-coda boundary	Thai	0	0	0	0	0	0	0(0%)
	English	1	0	0	0	0	0	1 (2%)
inside a complex nucleus	Thai	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0%)
	English	1	0	0	0	0	0	1 (2%)

8.2 Semantic classification

8.2.1 Headedness of lexical blends in Thai and English

Two sets of lexical blends in Thai and English were determined to find out the similarities and differences in headedness and semantic relation. In the data sets shown in Table 8.9, it is remarkable that a vast majority of lexical blends in Thai and English are one-

headed, while a sizable minority of them has two heads. A very small number of headless blends can also be found in the two languages.

Table 8.9: Distribution of the number of semantic heads and types of semantic relation

Number of heads	Semantic relation	Thai	English
		(%)	(%)
One head	Subordinate	89	89
Two heads	Coordinate	11	11
Headless		0	0
Total		100	100

Table 8.9 also shows the comparison of subordinate and coordinate blends in the two languages. It was found that the two languages overwhelmingly favor subordinate blends, like compounds. There is a sizeable minority of coordinate blends attested in the two languages, which is significant if compared with the proportion of coordinate compounds. This is explained in part because blends are, iconically, the preferred forms to encode hybrid concepts such as the English blends ‘puggle’ (pug + beagle) and ‘infotainment’ (information + entertainment) (see Renner, 2019: 38), or to encode the addition of the two parts as in the Thai blend ‘/thu:tha:núthû:t/’ composed of /thû:t/ ‘ambassador’ + /ʔànúthû:t/ ‘assistant ambassador’ referring to ‘diplomatic corps’.

Within the category of subordinate blends in Thai and English presented in Table 8.9, the proportion of subordinate blends in English is similar with Thai. When comparing the distribution of right- and left-headed units in the two languages, right-headed items have been similarly preferred in the two languages, as illustrated in Table 8.10.

Table 8.10: Distribution of the position of the head in subordinate blends

Subordinate blends	Thai (%)	English (%)
Right-headed	100	85
Left-headed	00	15
Total	100	100

These results are expected for English, a language for which right-headed compounding is the norm. It is, however, remarkable to see that in the Thai data set, the findings contrast significantly with those found for Thai compounds, for which an overwhelming majority of units are left-headed (e.g., /ʔa:ha:n.thuŋ/ ‘packed food’ < ʔa:ha:n/ ‘food’ + thuŋ ‘bag’). This can be explained by the fact that Thai has employed the rules of blending formation from the Pali and Sanskrit languages (See Chapter 1 and Chapter 5), in which the modified elements are placed in front of the head element (Penpala, 1998).

In the English data set, the vast majority of blends have the head on the right, like compounds, but the number of left-headed blends (30%) is highly remarkable because the head can be placed in both positions in lexical blending, which starkly contrasts with English compounding, where, normally, a left-hand-side semantic head can never be found. The examples of left-headed blends are shown in Table 8.11.

Table 8.11: Examples of English left-headed blends

Blends	Source words	Input	Lexical shortening
floptical	floppy + optical	N-ADJ	AD
ribozyme	ribonucleic + enzyme	N-N	AD
phablet	phone + tablet	N-N	AD
automagically	automatically + magically	ADV-ADV	ACD

It can be claimed that the rules on the position of the head in English blends are not strict because of phonological reasons. This is for example particularly obvious in the formation of *floptical*: to optimize the possibility of overlap, because the sequence <op>, which is common to the two source words, is word-initial in the non-head element, the only satisfactory solution consists in placing the head noun first, in a left-hand-side position.

Regarding the category of coordinate blends in Thai and English, Table 8.12 indicates that it accounts for the same proportion – about one in ten items – in the two languages.

Table 8.12: Distribution of semantic relations in Thai and English

Semantic relation	Thai (%)	English (%)
Coordinate	11	11

The semantic relationships within the category of coordinate blends in Thai and English were analyzed based on the four categorizations in Renner (2006): hybridity, addition, polyvalence and tautology (See Chapters 6 and 7). Table 8.13 shows the distribution of the semantic categorization of coordinate blends in Thai and English.

Table 8.13: Distribution of the semantic categorization of coordinate blends

Types	Thai	English
Hybridity	0	7
Addition	4	4
Polyvalence	0	0
Tautology	0	0
Total	4	11

It is remarkable that the English blends in the data set exhibit the two different semantic interpretations while in Thai coordinate blends only fall into one category, that of additional blends. The majority of English coordinate blends encode the concept of hybridity.

8.2.1.1 Metaphtonymic shifts

As regards the analysis of the semantic transparency of Thai and English lexical blends (see Chapters 6 and 7), a fourfold categorization is possible: fully transparent, head-transparent, non-head transparent, and fully figurative/opaque.

Table 8.14 Distribution of semantic transparency of source words

Semantic transparency	Thai (%)	English (%)
fully transparent	100	89
head-transparent only	0	1
non-head transparent only	0	9
fully figurative	0	1
Total	100	100

Table 8.14 shows that all Thai blends are fully transparent (e.g. /sĭn.lá.pa:.ka:n/ ‘art house’ < /sĭnlápà/ ‘art’ + /ʔa:ka:n/ ‘building’), and the vast majority of lexical blends in English are transparent too (e.g. *vegelate* < *vegetable* + *chocolate*), i.e. they convey the meaning directly from each source word, and show the transparency of both of source words. When comparing the proportions in the two languages, a remarkable contrast appears. Thai has a larger number of transparent blends than English does because all Thai lexical blends are fused with only transparent source words. On the contrary, in the English data set, even though non-transparent elements are somewhat rare in English, all four types are represented:

1. transparent:

urgicenter (urgent + ^{head}center)

‘an emergency clinic; an emergicenter’

2. head-transparent

trustafarian (trust fund + ^{head}Rastafarian)

‘A wealthy young (usually white) person with a bohemian lifestyle, typically one who adopts aspects of the appearance and culture of other ethnic groups, esp. Rastafarians, and who lives in or frequents a fashionable, multicultural area’

3. non-head transparent

internaut (internet + ^{head}astronaut)

‘a user of the internet, esp. a skilled or habitual one’

4. opaque

crunk (crazy + drunk)

‘chiefly in the context of hip-hop: exciting or fun; (of a person) extremely energized or excited; a style of hip-hop or rap music originating in the American South’

It is difficult to find figurative blends that show the opacity of both source words in the two languages. This can be explained using the same reason that the reader or listener may face difficulty figuring out the meaning of blends if both source words cannot be interpreted literally.

8.3 Conclusions

The comparison of lexical blending in Thai and English shows a number of marked dissimilarities between the two languages. Qualitatively, English displays a wider variety of lexical outputs, of types of lexical input combinations, of patterns of lexical shortening, and a larger number of types of segment overlap and phonological splitting. These findings confirm the hypothesis by Renner (2019) stating that English has a high degree of wordplayfulness of blending. Also, the regulations in forming lexical blends in English are

not strict. Quantitatively, a number of significant differences have been found, and they are listed as follows:

1) Thai lexical blends tend to prefer the ABD type of lexical shortening, whereas English tends to favor the AD type.

2) A vast majority of Thai blends do not manifest segment overlap, and a few of them have graphic-cum-phonetic overlap, while about half of English blends display segment overlap (in its three types: graphic-cum-phonetic overlap, graphic-only overlap, and phonetic-only overlap).

3) All Thai blends in the data set are coined with two transparent units, whereas English blends are fused with a variety of semantically transparent and non-transparent source words.

4) Thai and English share only one feature, that is the position of the head in subordinate blends. Surprisingly, the majority of Thai lexical blends are right-headed, which is similar to the situation of English blends. It would have been expected that subordinate blends in Thai should be canonically left-headed, like compounds, but this assumption is not borne out due to the impact of the Pali and Sanskrit languages on lexical blending.

Chapter 9

The Competition between Compounding and Lexical Blending in Thai and English

Chapter 9

The Competition between Compounding and Lexical Blending in Thai and English

This chapter looks at the competition between compounding and lexical blending in Thai and English based on four data sets of examined units (Thai nominal compounds in Chapter 3, English nominal compounds in Chapter 4, Thai lexical blends in Chapter 6, and English lexical blends in Chapter 7). According to the data collection, it can be seen that the number of compounds in the two languages is much higher than that of lexical blends if one compares the number of words collected from the dictionaries in the data sets. However, there are some operations of word-formation that can be explored from a competitive standpoint, putting compounding and lexical blending in the two languages face to face.

9.1. Compounding and lexical blending in Thai

Compounding and blending in Thai are both considered as creating a complex word on the basis of at least two words. The first striking difference between the two processes is that compounding is very productively used in Thai to combine words through a simple technique of juxtaposition (e.g. /pô:/ 'father' + /mūŋ/ 'city' > /pô:.mūŋ/ 'provincial governor'; /kōn/ 'person' + /tî:/ 'at' + /bâ:n/ 'home' > /kōn.tî:.bâ:n/ 'spouse'), while lexical blending shows an intricate process of reduction of the input words and/or adaptation of sounds before two or more source words are fused (e.g. /sīnlápà/ 'art' + /ʔa:ka:n/ 'building' > /sīn.lá.pa:ka:n/ 'art house'; /lo:k/ 'globe' + /ʔàphíwát/ 'advancement' > /lo:ka:phíwát/ 'globalization').

The process of blending seems to be less productive than compounding in Thai. It can be claimed that lexical blending in Thai is considered a complication as it is a word-formation process borrowed from Pali and Sanskrit languages, two dead languages, in which the rules of shortening and vowel adaptation are complex and not mastered by many Thai speakers. However, in the data set of Thai lexical blends which were added to the Royal Institute Dictionary (RID) lately in 2017, it seems that the restriction to Pali and Sanskrit languages was ignored, as described in Chapter 5. Lexical blends are created in different ways, focusing more on the generic characteristic features of blending, which are modelled after those of

English, such as segment overlap (e.g. /si:.rîat/ 'serious' + /krîat/ 'stressful' > /si:.krîat/ 'serious and stressful').

The process of blending seems to be much less productive than compounding in Thai if one compares the number of words collected in the data set (333 compounds and 37 lexical blends). In the Thai language data set, the number of compounds is more than ten times as high as that of lexical blends (333 nominal compounds versus 37 blends), but from a competitive standpoint it is interesting to investigate the competitive features between compounding and blending in Thai. The discussion can involve different levels: formal similarity, semantic similarity, and also other factors that enhance the chance of one operation winning over the other.

9.1.1 Formal considerations of compounding versus lexical blending in Thai

When looking at the level of formal similarity between the two input words of compounds and blends, the number of inputs, the number of syllables, the syllabic structures, the shared segments, and the stress patterns do not seem to play any major role on the onomasiological choice of one operation over the other. However, there are some issues that can be discussed as follows:

1. Regarding the number of inputs, compounding can include up to five elements while only very few blends involve three elements, and not more. Table 9.1 shows the distribution of the number of elements of compounds and lexical blends in Thai.

Table 9.1: Distribution of the number of elements in Thai compounds and lexical blends

Number of source words	Percentage in compounding	Percentage in blending
two elements	66.67	94.59
three elements	27.63	5.41
four elements	5.40	0
five elements	0.30	0

It can thus be concluded that compounding seems to be preferred in case of especially complex combinations, i.e., when three or more input words are combined. Remarkably, compounding is preferred when each element of the units is a one-syllable word, whereas Thai lexical blends never consist in the fusion of monosyllabic input words. See the examples of compounds below, which all exemplify a concatenation of monosyllabic inputs. This may be linked to a strict preference for complex outputs of a minimal size of two syllables in Thai.

แก้มลิง /kê:m.lɨŋ/

cheek-monkey

‘a detention basin’

กาวใจ /ka:w.teai/

glue-heart

‘a person who helps unite people to understand each other very well’

คนมีสี /kon.mi:.sí:/

person-have-color

‘a police officer or soldier’

2. When looking at the number of syllables in the two operations, it was found that when the units have the same number of syllables of source words, they prefer coordinate compounds. See examples of Thai compounds below:

1-1 จุ่มจุ่ม /tɛ̌m.tɛ̌m/

dip-immersed

‘a hot pot’

2-2 กฎบัตรกฎหมาย /kòtbàt.kòtmă.y/

charter-law

‘the law and charters’

1-1-1 อาบอบนวด /ʔà:p.ʔòp.nûat/

bath-stream-massage

‘a massage parlor’

3. Based on the typical characteristic of lexical blends to involve the possible overlapping of shared segments, the pressure to blend is deemed to be stronger than that to compound when the different input words share more than one segment. See the following example, with the shared segments in bold:

ซีเครียด /si:.krîat/

/si:.rîat/ + /krîat/

serious-stressful

‘serious and stressful’

4. Unlike in English, the stress pattern does not play any role in lexical blends and compounds since Thai is classified as a fixed-stress language. The primary stress always falls on the last syllable of Thai polysyllabic words. Many linguists agree that the syllable in word-final position is the most prominent one and has the strongest stress (Peyasantiwong, 1986). This also applies to all loanwords counted as Thai root words, which were rearranged by the Thai phonological rules (Peyasantiwong, 1986).

5. When the first element ends with the vowel sound /a/ or /a:/, and the second element begins with a /ʔ/ either followed by a short or long vowel sound, blending is greatly favored. See the following examples:

สุริยุปราคา	/sù.rí.jú.pà.rā:.ka:/
สุริยะ + อุปราคา	/sù.rí.jáʔ/ + /ʔú.pà.rā:.ka:/
	the sun-darkening
	‘solar eclipse’
ปิตาธิปไตย	/pì.tā:.thí.pà.tai/
ปิตา + อธิปไตย	/pì.tā:/ + /ʔà.thíp.pà.tai/
	father-sovereignty
	‘patriarchy’

9.1.2 Semantic considerations

When looking at the semantic classification of compounding and lexical blending in Thai, as shown in Table 8.1, the two processes are starkly different in terms of the position of the head. The overwhelming majority of compounds have the head on the left (e.g. /khî:.lép/ ‘excrement + nail = nail dirt’; /ŋā:n.chá:ŋ/ ‘work + elephant = mega-project’), whereas lexical blends are massively right-headed (e.g. /sǎ:.tha:.rá.nu:.pà.ka:n/ ‘public assistance’ < /sǎ:.tha:.rá.ná/ ‘public’ + /ʔùpàka:n/ ‘to help’). This is highly remarkable as this is not a feature that has been noted in other languages, which either have the same dominant lateral headedness as in compounding, e.g. English, or have no dominant lateral headedness, e.g. French (see Renner 2019).

The degree of opacification is another point that shows the dissimilarity of these two operations. In terms of metaphonymic shifts, blending seems to only be allowed when the interpretation of the two source words is transparent — Thai lexical blends are never opaque units. In contrast, half of the compounds in the data set are transparent, and another half of them go through the process of figurative interpretation.

Table 9.2: Semantic classification of compounding and lexical blending in Thai

Semantic classification	Percentage in compounding	Percentage in blending
Subordinate units	97.89	83
Coordinate units	2.10	11
Right-headed units	2.86	86
Left-headed units	97.13	14
Headless units	3.60	6
Transparent units	57.95	100
Figurative units	42.04	0

At the semantic level, morphosemantic iconicity, which plays a role in English, is not operative in the Thai language: blending does not seem to be favored to encode hybrid concepts, which are genetically or perceptually half-X and half-Y. But it should be noted that blending seems to be favored when the outputs are colloquialisms — it can be postulated that it is the playfulness of such items, the humorous tinge that they convey, which goes hand in hand with the informal status of their context of use. Two such examples are shown below:

ซีเครียด	/sī:.kriat/
	/sī:.riat/ + /kriat/
	'serious' + 'stressful'
	'serious and stressful'
สัพเพหฺรภ	/səpp.hē:.hě:.rók/
	/səp.phē:.hě:.rá/ + /rók/
	trifling-messy

‘trifling and messy’

9.1.3 Other linguistic factors

There are other conditions that enhance the chance of blending over compounding:

1. When one of the input words is of Pali or Sanskrit origin, blending is likely to be a preferred choice. Consider the following examples:

ตุลาการวิวัฒน์	/tù.lā:.phí.wát/
ตุลาการ ^{Pali} + อภิวัฒน์ ^{Sanskrit}	/tù.lā:.kā:n/ + /ʔà.phí.wát/
	judge-advancement
	‘judicialization’
โฆษณาการ	/khô.sà.nā:.ka:n/
โฆษณา ^{Sanskrit} + อาการ ^{Pali}	/khô.sà.nā:/ + /ʔa:.ka:n/
	to advertise-action
	‘advertisement’

2. When two input words of Thai or other foreign origin, like English and Chinese, are combined, compounding is favored. Consider the following examples:

กล่องดิจิตอล	/klôn̩.di.tei.tɔn/
กล่อง ^{Thai} + ดิจิตอล ^{English}	/klôn̩/ + /di.tei.tɔn/
	box-digital
	‘a digital camera’
ค่าแะะเจียะ	/khà.pé:.tɕia/
ค่า ^{Thai} + แะะเจียะ ^{Chinese}	/khà:/ + /pé:.tɕia/
	cost + additional charges
	‘tea money’

3. Blending usually becomes the preferred choice over compounding when English loans in law or jurisprudence are coined by the lexicographers of the Royal Institute Dictionary. 35% of the lexical blends in the data set can be categorized as law terms, which are primarily coined in Thai using Pali and Sanskrit words through blending. Consider the following examples:

ตุลาธิปไตย	/tùla:thíppàtai/
	/tùla:ka:n/ + /ʔàthíppàtai/
	judge-sovereignty
	‘judicial activism’

บิดาธิปไตย	/pìta:thíppàtai/
	/pìta:/ + /ʔàthíppàtai/
	father-sovereignty
	‘patriarchy’

โลกาภิวัตน์	/lo:.kā:.phí.wát/
	/lô:k/ + /ʔà.phí.wát/
	world-advancement
	‘globalization’

4. Remarkably, in the Royal Institute Dictionary, some common English blends were translated into Thai, but the equivalents are compounds. This plainly indicates that blending is far from being a common word-formation technique in Thai, as it can be in English. Some examples are shown below:

infotainment	สารบันเทิง
	/sǎ:râ.bantɕ:ŋ/
	/sǎ:râ/ + /bantɕ:ŋ/
	information-entertainment

advertainment	โฆษณาบันเทิง
	/kôtsàna:.bantr̥ɯ/
	/kôtsàna:/ + /bantr̥ɯ/
	to advertise-entertainment
infomercial	สาระโฆษณา
	/sǎ:rǎ.kôtsàna:/
	/sǎ:rǎ/ + /kôtsàna:/
	information-to advertise

To briefly sum up, the process of blending seems to be less productive than compounding in Thai if one compares the number of words collected in the data set in the present study (333 compounds and 37 blends). Based on the formation process of lexical blending, it can be concluded that the development may not occur if Thai keeps following word-formation rules from Pali-Sanskrit because they are complex and complicated. However, in the data set, there are a number of blends which are not formed by following the word formation rules of Pali-Sanskrit, like the word *ซีเครียต* /sī:.krīat/, which is formed by /sī:.rīat/ and /krīat/, literally meaning ‘serious and stressful’.

9.2 Compounding and lexical blending in English

Compounding and blending are the top word-formation processes for current neologisms in English according to Shnip (2018). Compounding and blending in English share a similar conceptual operation which combines two or more separate forms to produce a new term that alters the conceptual meaning of each input. The two processes differ in so far as compounding shows the simple juxtaposition of roots or root-containing inputs (e.g., *snail mail*, *wolf-dog*, *waitperson*) while blending consists in the fusion of at least two inputs, i.e. it involves the reduction of at least one input and/or the presence in the output of overlapped identical segments of the source words (e.g., *floppy* + *optical* > *floptical*; *twig* + *igloo* > *twigloo*; *vegetable* + *chocolate* > *vegelate*). The examples of competition, like *radar beacon* vs. *racon* or *satellite phone* vs. *satphone*, given by Renner (2020), demonstrate that in some cases there may have to be an onomasiological choice between the two possible operations. Generally, compounding is the default choice when at least two source words are combined,

but according to the study by Renner (2020), blending is increasing likely to be favored under the influence of the potential actualization of segment overlap as well as a number of specific formal and semantic conditions.

From a competitive standpoint, compounding and lexical blending in English will be discussed at both the formal and semantic levels.

9.2.1 Formal considerations

When looking at the number of inputs, number of syllables, syllabic structures, shared segments, and stress patterns between the two input words of compounds and blends in English, it seems that all these features play a significant role on the choice of one operation over the other. According to Renner (2020), formal similarity at all levels enhances the chance of blending, and the analysis of the data in the present study points to the same conclusion. This can be detailed as follows:

1. Regarding the number of syllables of the input words, as in the data set in the Thai language, compounding seems to be preferred when each input element is a one-syllable word, while lexical blends seem to be favored when the inputs contain the same number of syllables. Consider the following examples of blends:

- | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------|----------------|
| 1-1 | ze + hir | > zir |
| 2-2 | greaser + dumbo | > grebo |
| | urgent + center | > urgicenter |
| 3-3 | romantic + modernist | > romo |
| | internet + commercial | > intermercial |
| 4-4 | education + entertainment | > edutainment |
| | information + entertainment | > infotainment |

This tendency can be explained by the fact that English blends tend to adopt the same shape as one of their source elements, to enhance source-word recognition, and this can be enhanced if the two inputs are more similar, here in terms of size.

2. Shared segments and their subsequent overlap in the output are a key feature in favoring lexical blending over compounding. None of the input words of compounding in the data set share medial segments, whereas 54% of lexical blends show the segment overlap of the source words in three patterns: graphic-cum-phonic overlap, graphic only overlap, and phonic only overlap (see Chapter 5, Section 5.3). This can be explained by the fact that the pressure to blend is stronger when the input words share one or more segments, and segment overlap is an active factor which increases with the number of possibly shared segments, especially in the case of haplologic blends, which typically contain two or three contiguous segments. Consider the following examples, where segmental similarity is contiguous (there is identity between final elements in one input and initial elements in the other):

twig + igloo	twigloo
oat + trim	oatrim
bro + romance	bromance

9.2.1 Semantic considerations

In English, compounding and blending can be seen as broadly similar from a semantic standpoint as they are both likely to encode a subcategorization within a semantic class (Renner, 2020). In terms of semantic classification, as shown in Table 9.3, the majority of compounds and blends found are right-headed subordinate units, which corresponds to the previous findings of the literature. As far as literal versus figurative interpretations are concerned, they differ in terms of frequency of opacification as compounding includes a sizable minority of figurative units whereas lexical blending only very rarely involves such units (the blends in our data set almost all remain literal in their interpretation).

Table 9.3: Semantic classification of compounding and lexical blending in English

Semantic classification	Compounding	Blending
Subordinate units	98.56	89
Coordinate units	1.61	10

Semantic classification	Compounding	Blending
Right-headed units	97.33	70
Left-headed units	2.67	30
Headless units	7.28	1
Transparent units	72.81	87
Figurative units	27.18	1

Morphosemantic iconicity also seems to play a role in the choice of coordinate blending over compounding. As illustrated in Table 9.3, blending becomes a preferred choice over compounding in case of coordination. The outputs typically refer to a genetic or a conceptual hybrid concept involving a relatively close relation of cohyponymy between the source words. Consider the following examples:

pug + beagle	> puggle
	‘a dog cross-bred from a pug and a beagle; such dogs considered collectively as a breed’
chill + relax	> chillax
	‘to calm down and relax; to take it easy, to chill’

9.3 Conclusion

Compounding in the two languages seems to be fairly similar from a formal standpoint, but the formal aspects of blending clearly tend to differ. Blending is mostly a shortening technique in Thai, while it may also, in many cases, have a playful and/or iconic value in English. From the competitive standpoint, in the two languages, compounding is generally the default choice to combine at least two words both in Thai and English, but there are a number of linguistic factors that enhance the likelihood for lexical blending to be chosen over compounding. At the formal level, the number of inputs, the number of syllables, and potential segment overlap play a significant role in the two languages. At the semantic level, blending tends to be favored in both Thai and English when the units are coordinate and involve conceptual hybridity.

Chapter 10

Conclusion

Chapter 10

Conclusion

10.1 Summary of the findings

The dissertation aimed to study compounding and lexical blending in the English and Thai languages in order to examine in a contrastive perspective two sets of nominal compounds and two sets of lexical blends. In the study, the data of both languages were collected manually from dictionaries of new words, leading to four sets of data:

(1) 473 Thai compound nouns were collected from the three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New Words, a standard Thai dictionary published by the Office of the Royal Society. The three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New words were published in 2007, 2009 and 2011 respectively, in order to collect new words and new senses in present-day Thai.

(2) 247 English compound nouns were collected from the Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW), published in 1998 (Knoweles and Elliott, 1998). ODNW covers new words which have been in the news in the decade and a half between the beginning of the nineteen-eighties and the mid-nineteen-nineties.

(3) 35 Thai lexical blends (taken from the overall list of 37,104 neologisms) were collected manually from the three volumes of The Royal Institute Dictionary of New words, which were published in 2007, 2009 and 201, and from the Royal Institute Dictionary of Coined Words (Neologisms), an online version, which was published in 2016 by the Office of the Royal Society, which is responsible for the Royal Thai Dictionary (i.e. the official dictionary of Thailand), and has been available online since 2019. I intended to use only the three volumes of The Royal Thai Dictionary of New words for data collection, as they were used for Thai nominal compounds, but only two blends are found, which was not adequate for a proper analysis.

(4) 100 English lexical blends were collected manually from three different dictionaries: 1) the Oxford Dictionary of New Words (Knoweles and Elliott, 1998), 2) 20th-

century words: the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years (Ayto,1999), and 3) the Oxford English Dictionary (OED). I initially intended to collect only the lexical blends in the Oxford Dictionary of New Words (ODNW), which is the source of English nominal compounds in the data set; however, the number of obtained units was insufficient. Consequently, the author went to *20th-century words: the story of the new words in English over the last hundred years* (Ayto,1999), and the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) to find more lexical blends that appeared in the 20th century and early 21st century (1990-2010).

The data were analyzed in order to present two aspects of compound nouns and lexical blends in the Thai and English languages: 1) their formal classification, and 2) their semantic characteristics.

Two data sets of compound nouns in Thai and English were analyzed to examine a variety of linguistic features: the number of structures, the semantic types of compounds (e.g., coordinative compounds and subordinative compounds), headedness, and metaphonymic shifts (i.e., the different degrees of opacification, contrasting literal compounds and figurative compounds). These findings were examined in order to find out the similarities and differences of nominal compounding in the two languages.

Two data sets of lexical blends in Thai and English were also analyzed in order to determine various features: the types of lexical output, the types of lexical input combination, the patterns of lexical shortening, the types of segment overlap and phonological splitting, headedness, and metaphonymic shifts. As for the data sets of nominal compounds, the findings for lexical blends were compared to examine the similarities and differences of lexical blending in the two languages.

The findings of the study were summarized as follows:

(1) The process of compounding is very productive in Thai. Nominal compounding in Thai in this study is defined as a word formation process that typically consists of at least two lexeme constituents. In this study, the compound nouns that were collected are made up of at least two lexemes with various lexical categories, but the whole unit is always a noun. The number of elements in compounds goes from two to five, and the structures of compound nouns are varied, with up to 36 patterns, the top five being [N-N], [N-ADJ], [N-V], [N-N-N], and [N-V-N]. Semantically, Thai nominal compounds are classified into two main categories, which are subordinate compounds and coordinate compounds. Most Thai

nominal compounds are subordinate, while only a few of them are coordinate compounds. The position of the head can canonically be found on the left. Very few units have their heads on the right. The number of transparent compounds is high, but interestingly many compound nouns exist in Thai where one of the elements is used metaphorically or metonymically while the other remains literal; in addition, the number of opaque compound nouns where both elements are not interpreted literally is remarkably high.

(2) Compounding is a very productive means of creating new words in English, a language for which it is intricate to form nominal compounding as it is constrained by rules such as orthography, stress, and specific types of adjective that the compounds may consist of, and which work as modifying elements. Seven patterns with two to three elements were presented. The top three are [N-N], [ADJ-N], and [V-N]. At the level of semantics, English has two main types of nominal compounding: subordinate compounds, with two subtypes (attributive compounds and relational compounds), and coordinative compounds. In English, the position of the head can be found canonically on the right; English also allows the leftmost element to function as the semantic head. The number of transparent compounds is higher than that of opaque ones, which have gone through a process of figurativeness involving either metonymy or metaphor. There is also the mixture of literal and figurative elements as certain compound nouns show the transparency of the head member and the opacity of the non-head member while some other compound nouns display the opacity of the head element and the transparency of the non-head member.

(3) The comparison of nominal compounding in Thai and English shows a number of marked dissimilarities between the two languages. Thai compound nouns can be distinguished from English compound nouns to the extent that they typically display more varied types of patterns, both in terms of number of elements (up to five) and of combination of lexical patterns (using a wider number of non-nouns). Thai compounds can also be characterized by a stronger external influence than is the case for English: they can contain many foreign elements (primarily from Pali and Sanskrit) and adopt patterns that are not displayed natively (like right-head structuring). In spite of their differences, it was found that Thai and English share a number of basic constructions: N-N, N-ADJ, N-ADV, V-N, V-V.

Semantically, Thai and English both make use of the two main types of nominal compounding: subordinate compounds and coordinate compounds. Noticeably, the

proportions of the different semantic types of compound noun in both languages are remarkably similar: 98% for subordinates and 2% for coordinates; and they also share a very small number of attributive subordinates. The two languages display a salient typological contrast as far as headedness is concerned: the head in a Thai compound is canonically on the left while the head of an English compound noun is on the right.

The majority of nominal compounds in both Thai and English are transparent, but the number of semantically figurative compounds in English is higher than in Thai. In the two languages, compounds exist where one member is used figuratively while the other remains literal. Thai has a much higher percentage of compounds with a transparent head and a figurative non-head element, as well as a much higher number of compounds with an opaque head and a transparent non-head element.

(4) Lexical blending in Thai is described in this study as a process of word construction that involves the integration of two or more lexemes with the loss of some phonic and/or graphic material through various patterns of shortening. It also involves both a combination of forms and a combination of meanings. The examination of 37 lexical blends demonstrated that the number of elements in lexical blends seems to be limited to a maximum of three, and the structures of lexical blends are varied up to 8 patterns: [N-N], [N-V], [ADJ-N], [V-N], [ADJ-V], [N-V], [V-ADJ], [N-N-N] and [ADJ-ADJ]. All blends are also limited to three lexical categories: nouns, adjectives, and verbs. The patterns of lexical shortening fall into three main categories: 43.24% of the AD type, 43.24% of the ABD type and 8.11% of the ACD type. While being blended, source words are split at two different locations: 51% at the syllable boundary and 48% at the onset-coda boundary, which is a remarkable proportional balance. Very rare units show overlap. Semantically, the majority of Thai lexical blends have only one head, while a minority of them have two heads. The position of the head of all Thai lexical blends in the data set is to be found on the right. Most of them are relational subordinative blends. All blends in the data set are literal; figurative units cannot be found.

(5) Lexical blending in English is defined as a word-formation process involving the combination of two or more words with the loss of phonic and/or graphic material in different patterns of shortening. It involves both a combination of forms and a combination of meanings. The examination of 100 blends in English in the data set demonstrated the variety of their main formal and semantic characteristics. Lexical blends in English seem to

typically use two elements and may belong to five lexical categories: 91% of nouns, 4 % of adjectives, 3% of verbs, 1% of adverbs and 1% of pronouns. The structures of lexical blends belong to thirteen patterns: 72% of N-Ns, 11 % of ADJ-Ns, 5% of N-ADJs, 3% of ADJ-ADJs, and a small number of ADV-ADVs, ADV-Vs, PRON-Ns, N-Vs, INTER-Vs, PRON-PRONs, V-Vs, and PFX-Ns. The patterns of lexical shortening fall into seven categories: 38% of AD blends, 33% of ABD blends, 16% of ACD blends, 5% of AC blends, 4% of haplologic blends, 1% of sandwich blends, and a few special combinations. Over half of the lexical units in the data set show overlap at three different levels: 47% of the graphic-cum-phonetic type, 12% of the graphic only type, and 3% of the phonetic only type. While being blended, source words are split at four different locations: 67% at a syllable boundary, 30% at an onset-nucleus boundary, and 2% at a nucleus-coda boundary. Semantically, the majority of English lexical blends have only one head, while a small minority of them have two heads. In the class of single-headed blends, the position of the head is canonically found on the right, but, remarkably, a quarter of them have the head on the left (something which is not possible in compounding). The majority of blends are relational subordinate blends. Though there were a few cases where figurative blends were found, the majority of blends within this data set remain literal in their interpretation.

(6) The comparison of lexical blending in Thai and English shows a number of marked dissimilarities between the two languages. Qualitatively, English displays a wider variety of lexical outputs, of types of lexical input combination, of patterns of lexical shortening, and a larger number of types of segment overlap and phonological splitting. These findings confirm the hypothesis by Renner (2019) stating that English has a high degree of wordplayfulness in blending. Also, the regulations in forming lexical blends in English are not strict. Quantitatively, a number of significant differences were found, and they are identified as follows:

Thai lexical blends tend to prefer the ABD type of lexical shortening, whereas English tends to favor the AD type.

A vast majority of Thai blends do not manifest segment overlap, and very few of them have graphic-cum-phonetic overlap, while about half of English blends display segment overlap (in its three types: graphic-cum-phonetic overlap, graphic-only overlap, and phonetic-only overlap).

All Thai blends in the data set are coined with two transparent units, whereas English blends are fused with a variety of semantically transparent and non-transparent source words.

Thai and English share only one feature, that is the position of the head of subordinate blends in the two languages. Surprisingly, the majority of Thai lexical blends are right-headed, which is similar to the situation of English blends. It would have been expected that subordinate blends in Thai should be canonically left-headed, like compounds, but this assumption is not borne out due to the impact of Pali and Sanskrit languages on lexical blending.

(7) At the end of the study, compounding and lexical blending were investigated from a competitive standpoint. Compounding in the two languages seems to be fairly similar from a formal standpoint, but the formal aspects of blending clearly tend to differ. Blending is mostly a shortening technique in Thai, while it may also, in many cases, have a playful and/or iconic value in English. From the competitive standpoint, in the two languages, compounding is generally the default choice to combine at least two words both in Thai and English, but there are a number of linguistic factors that enhance the likelihood for lexical blending to be chosen over compounding. At the formal level, the number of inputs, the number of syllables, and segment overlap may play a significant role in the two languages. At the semantic level, blending tends to be favored in both Thai and English when the units are coordinate and involve conceptual hybridity.

10.2 Limitations of the study

In this dissertation, the data collection was limited to dictionaries in both Thai and English languages. The Thai data set of lexical blends is not fully representative because the dictionaries of new words are quite small (less than 40,000 words). It can be also claimed that words which were collected by lexicographers are those used in the written language. It would be very interesting to include those new words that people are also using colloquially in their daily life.

10.3 Future research

Since the data collection of the present study was limited to dictionaries in both Thai and English languages, the units collected may or may not be commonly used in a real life, especially in the Thai data sets, because some of them appear to be quite complex, and they are also used in specific terminologies such as law and jurisdiction. In future work, more data should be collected from authentic sources such as scripts of news reporters, scripts of movies, or social network databases covering the spoken language, in order to see if ordinary people are freely able to create new compounds or lexical blends. Also, it would be interesting to discuss with the lexicographers involved in neological practices in order to find out their initial ideas to create new words through compounding and lexical blending.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

List of Thai Compound Nouns

No.	Thai Word	Transcription	Source Words	Literal English	Meaning
1	กฎบัตรกฎหมาย	/kòtbàtkòtmǎ:j/	/kòt/ + /bàt/ + /kòtmǎ:j/	regulation - card - regulation - warrant	law and charter
2	กฐินทัวร์	/kàthĩnthūa:/	/kàthĩn/ + /thūa:/	Kathin - tour	a group of people travelling to the temple to present Kathins to the monks.
3	ก้นกรอง	/kônkrõ:ŋ/	/kôn/ + /krõ:ŋ/	buttock – to sift	cigarette butt
4	กบเหลาดินสอ	/kòplǎwdĩnsǎ:/	/kòplǎw/ + /dĩnsǎ:/	frog - sharpen - pencil	pencil sharpener
5	กบไฟฟ้า	/kòpfǎj fá:/	/kòp/ + /fǎj fá:/	frog - electricity	power plan
6	กรงขัง	/krõŋkhǎŋ/	/krõŋ/ + /khǎŋ/	cage - imprison	prison / jail
7	กระเช้าไฟฟ้า	/kràcháw fǎj fá:/	/kràcháw/ + /fǎj fá:/	basket - electricity	cable car
8	กระแสข่าว	/kràsě:khà:w/	/kràsě:/ + /khà:w/	trend - news	current news
9	กระโปรงกางเกง	/kràprõ:ŋkǎ:ŋkē:ŋ/	/kràprõ:ŋ/ + /kǎ:ŋkē:ŋ/	skirt - pants	culottes
10	กระโปรงบานขา สั้น	/kràprõ:ŋbā:nkhǎ:sân/	/kràprõ:ŋ/ + /bā:n/ + /khǎ:sân/	skirt - opened out - leg - short	secondary school students
11	กระจกข้าง	/kràcòk khâ:ŋ/	/kràcòk/ + /khâ:ŋ/	mirror - side	wing mirror
12	กระจอกข่าว	/kràcò:k khâ:w/	/kràcò:k/ + /khâ:w/	sparrow - news	a journalist who talks a lot and poses too many questions
13	กระจิบข่าว	/kràcìpkhâ:w/	/kràcìp/ + /khâ:w/	finch - news	a journalist
14	กระดานสนทนา	/kràdā:nsõnthānā:/	/kràdā:n/ + /sõnthānā:/	board - converse	web board
15	กระทะร้อน	/kràthá:rõ:n/	/kràthá/ + /rõ:n/	pan - hot	a dish which is served with a hot pan
16	กระบอกเสียง	/kràbò:ksǐa:ŋ/	/kràbò:k/ + /sǐa:ŋ/	tube - voice	mouthpiece
17	กระสอบทราย	/kràsò:psā:j/	/kràsò:p/ + /sā:j/	sack - sand	sand bag

No.	Thai Word	Transcription	Source Words	Literal English	Meaning
18	กลอนเปล่า	/klõ:nplà:w/	/klõ:n/ + /plà:w/	poem - empty	prose poem
19	ก๋วยเตี๋ยวล้างแตก	/kũa:jtĩa:wthǎŋtè:k/	/kũa:jtĩa:w/ + /thǎŋ/ + /tè:k/	noodle - bucket - break	a dish of noodle mixed with only vegetables which is very cheap
20	ก๋วยเตี๋ยวผัดซีอิ๊ว	/kũa:jtĩa:wphàtsĩ:ʔíw/	/kũa:jtĩa:w/ + /phàt/ + /sĩ:ʔíw/	noodle - fry - soy sauce	fried noodle with soy sauce
21	ก๋วยเตี๋ยวลำดอง	/kũa:jtĩa:wrà:tnâ:/	/kũa:jtĩa:w/ + /rà:tnâ:/	noodle - pour - surface	a dish of noodle which is mixed with vegetables and meat with sauce poured on top
22	กองทัพนม	/kõ:ŋthápmót/	/kõ:ŋtháp/ + /mót/	division - troop - ants	a group of people who are moving to do something slowly and quietly
23	กะเทยควาย	/kàthõ:jkhwā:j/	/kàthõ:j/ + /khwā:j/	transvestite - buffalo	masculine transvestite
24	กะลาหัว	/kālā:hũa:/	/kālā:/ + /hũa:/	coconut shell - head	skull / body
25	กะหล่ำดอก	/kàlāmdõ:k/	/kàlām/ + /dõ:k/	cabbage - flower	cauliflower
26	ก๊ับข้าวถุง	/kàpkhā:wthũŋ/	/kàpkhā:w/ + /thũŋ/	food - bag	a variety of food which is packed in bags for selling
27	กาแฟเย็น	/kā:fē:jēn/	/kā:fē:/ + /jēn/	coffee - cold	iced coffee
28	กาแฟดำ	/kā:fē:dām/	/kā:fē:/ + /dām/	coffee - black	black coffee
29	กาแฟสด	/kā:fē:sòt/	/kā:fē:/ + /sòt/	coffee - fresh	roasted coffee
30	กางเกงเล	/kā:ŋkē:ŋlē:/	/kā:ŋkē:ŋ/ + /lē:/	pants - sea	fisherman's pants
31	กางเกงใน	/kā:ŋkē:ŋnāj/	/kā:ŋkē:ŋ/ + /nāj/	pant - in	underwear
32	กางเกงชาวเขา	/kā:ŋkē:ŋchā:wkhwāw/	/kā:ŋkē:ŋ/ + /chā:wkhwāw/	pants - person - mountain	tribal pants
33	ก้างขวางคอ	/kā:ŋkhwā:ŋkhõ:/	/kā:ŋk/ + /hwā:ŋkhõ:/	fishbone - obstruct - throat	third wheel
34	กาวใจ	/kā:wēāj/	/kā:w/ + /cāj/	glue - heart	a person who helps unite people to understand each other very well

No.	Thai Word	Transcription	Source Words	Literal English	Meaning
35	กำแพงภาษี	/kāmphē:ŋphā:sĩ:/	/kāmphē:ŋ/ + /phā:sĩ:/	barrier - tax	import tax / protective tariff
36	กุ้งแห้ง	/kũŋhē:ŋ/	/kũŋ/ + /hē:ŋ/	shrimp - dry	dried shrimp
37	กุ้งร้อยขา	/kũŋró:jkhǎ:/	/kũŋ/ + /ró:j/ + /khǎ:/	shrimp - hundred - leg	millipede
38	กุหลาบหิน	/kũlā:phĩn/	/kũlā:p/ + /hĩn/	rose - stone	Flaming Katy
39	เกมกด	/kēm̀kòt/	/kēm/ + /kòt/	game - press	a device used to play games which requires players to press many buttons
40	เก้าอี้ดนตรี	/kâwʔĩdõntrĩ:/	/kâwʔĩ/ + /dõntrĩ:/	chair - music	musical chair
41	เกาะอก	/kòʔòk/	/kò/ + /ʔòk/	to cling - breast	strapless dress
42	แกนนำ	/kē:nnām/	/kē:n/ + /nām/	axle - lead	backbone
43	แก้มก้น	/kê:mkôn/	/kê:m/ + /kôn/	cheek - buttock	buttocks
44	แก้มลิง	/kê:mlĩŋ/	/kê:m/ + /lĩŋ/	cheek - monkey	detention basin
45	แก้วมังกร	/kê:wmāŋkhõ:n/	/kê:w/ + /māŋkhõ:n/	glass - dragon	dragon fruit
46	ขนเม่น	/khõnmên/	/khõn/ + /mên/	hair - porcupine	quill
47	ขนมกรุบกรอบ	/khànõmkrùpkrò:p/	/khànõm/ + /krùpkrò:p/	dessert - crispy	soldier or police
48	ขนมกวน	/khànõmkũan/	/khànõm/ + /kũan/	dessert - stir	confectioneries
49	ขนมถาด	/khànõmthà:t/	/khànõm/ + /thà:t/	dessert - tray	dessert which is made in trays
50	ขนมอบ	/khànõmʔòp/	/khànõm/ + /ʔòp/	dessert - bake	bakery
51	ขยะสังคม	/khājāsāŋkhõm/	/khājā/ + /sāŋkhõm/	waste - social	dregs of society
52	ข้อเสีย	/khô:sĩa:/	/khô:/ + /sĩa:/	items in a list - wasted	disadvantage
53	ข้อแก้ตัว	/khô:kê:tũa:/	/khô:/ + /kê:tũa:/	items in a list - excuse	excuse
54	ข้อกล่าวหา	/khô:klà:whǎ:/	/khô:/ + /klà:whǎ:/	items in a list - accuse	allegation / accusation
55	ของเก่า	/khǒ:ŋkàw/	/khǒ:ŋ/ + /kàw/	thing - old	antique
56	ของแข็ง	/khǒ:ŋkhě:ŋ/	/khǒ:ŋ/ + /khě:ŋ/	thing - strong	solid
57	ของกินเล่น	/khǒ:ŋkĩnlên/	/khǒ:ŋ/ + /kĩn/ + /lên/	thing - eat - play	snack

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58	ของตาย	/khǒːŋtāːj/	/khǒːŋ/ + /tāːj/	thing - dead	sure thing
59	ของปลอม	/khǒːŋplǒːm/	/khǒːŋ/ + /plǒːm/	thing - fake	copy / fake
60	ของป่า	/khǒːŋpāː/	/khǒːŋ/ + /pāː/	thing - forest	wild things
61	ของสูง	/khǒːŋsūːŋ/	/khǒːŋ/ + /sūːŋ/	thing - high	holy object
62	ข้อดี	/khôːdīː/	/khôː/ + /dīː/	items in a list - good	advantages
63	ข้อตกลง	/khôːtòklōŋ/	/khôː/ + /tòklōŋ/	items in a list - agree	agreement
64	ขอบฟ้า	/khòːpfāː/	/khòːp/ + /fāː/	edge - sky	horizon
65	ขาใหญ่	/khǎːjàj/	/khǎː/ + /jàj/	leg - big	a client who always buy many products at a particular shop
66	ข่าวโคมลอย	/khàːwkhōːmlǒːj/	/khàːw/ + /khōːm/ + /lǒːj/	news - balloon - float	rumour, unfounded news
67	ข้าวกล่อง	/khâːwklòːŋ/	/khâːw/ + /klòːŋ/	rice - box	take-away / lunch box
68	ข้าวขาหมู	/khâːwkhǎːmūː/	/khâːw/ + /khǎːmūː/	rice - leg - pig	a dish of rice with pork leg
69	ข่าวด่วน	/khàːwdùan/	/khàːw/ + /dùan/	news - urgent	breaking news
70	ข้าวมันไก่	/khâːwmānkàj/	/khâːw/ + /mān/ + /kàj/	rice - oil - chicken	a dish of rice which is cooked by using chicken soup, and topped with chicken
71	ข้าวห่อ	/khâːwhòː/	/khâːw/ + /hòː/	rice - wrap	take-away / lunch box
72	จิงแก่	/khĩŋkèː/	/khĩŋ/ + /kèː/	ginger - old	an elderly person who is experienced and skillful
73	ขี้เล็บ	/khîːlɛp/	/khîː/ + /lɛp/	excrement - nail	nail dirt
74	ขี้มือ	/khîːmūː/	/khîː/ + /mūː/	excrement - hand	grit / dirt on the hands
75	ขุนพลเสื้อกล้าม	/khũnphōnsūaːklām/	/khũnphōn/ + /sūaː/ + /klām/	warlord - shirt - muscle	an amateur boxer
76	เข็มควัก	/khěmkhwák/	/khěm/ + /khwák/	needle - scoop out	crocket needle
77	ไข่แดง	/khàjdēŋ/	/khàj/ + /dēŋ/	egg - red	yolk
78	ไขักระต่าย	/khǎjkràtāːj/	/khǎj/ + /kràtāːj/	fever - rabbit	tularemia / rabbit fever

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79	ไข่กระทะ	/khàjkràthá/	/khàj/ + /kràthá/	egg - pan	a dish which is made from eggs fried in a pan mixed with meat, sausage, and bacon
80	ไข่คน	/khàjkhōn/	/khàj/ + /khōn/	egg - stir	scrambled egg
81	ไข่ดาว	/khàjdā:w/	/khàj/ + /dā:w/	egg - star	fried egg
82	ไข่น้ำ	/khàjná:m/	/khàj/ + /ná:m/	egg - water	egg soup
83	ไข่ปิ้ง	/khàjpîŋ/	/khàj/ + /pîŋ/	egg - toast	toasted egg
84	ไข่ลวก	/khàjlûak/	/khàj/ + /lûak/	egg - scald	parboiled egg
85	คนในเครื่องแบบ	/khōnnājkhruāŋbè:p/	/khōn/ + /nāj/ + /khruāŋ/ + /bè:p/	person - in - tool - model	soldier or police
86	คนขายชาติ	/khōnkhă:jchâ:t/	/khōn/ + /khă:j/ + /châ:t/	person - sell - nation	traitor
87	คนที่บ้าน	/khōnthî:bâ:n/	/khōn/ + /thî:/ + /bâ:n/	person - at - home	a wife or a husband
88	คนภาคค่ำ	/khōnphâ:kkhâm/	/khōn/ + /phâ:k/ + /khâm/	person - part - night	night owl / night shift staff
89	คนมีสี	/khōnmī:sī:/	/khōn/ + /mī:/ + /sī:/	person - have - color	soldier or police
90	ครีมนวดผม	/khrī:mnûatphǒm/	/khrī:m/ + /nûat/ + /phǒm/	cream - to stroke - hair	hair conditioner
91	ครึ่งเสี้ยว	/khrîŋsī:aw/	/khrîŋ/ + /sī:aw/	half - quarter	crescent
92	คลองด่วน	/khrī:ŋdûan/	/khrī:ŋ/ + /dûan/	canal - urgent	drain
93	คลื่นลูกใหม่	/khlûnlû:kmàj/	/khlûn/ + /lû:k/ + /màj/	wave - new	new generation
94	ค่าคุ้มครอง	/khâ:khúmkrī:ŋ/	/khâ:/ + /khúm/ + /krī:ŋ/	cost - guard - rule	protection racket / blackmail
95	คานทอง	/khâ:nthī:ŋ/	/khâ:n/ + /thī:ŋ/	beam - gold	status of aged woman who is not married
96	ค่าน้ำ	/khâ:nám/	/khâ:/ + /nám/	cost - water	amount of money paid by the shop owner to a tour guide who brings tourists to his shop
97	ค่าน้ำนม	/khâ:ná:mnōm/	/khâ:/ + /ná:m/ + /nōm/	cost - water - breast	amount of money paid by a groom to the parents' bride

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98	ค่าน้ำร้อนน้ำชา	/khâ:nâ:mrô:nnâ:mch â:/	/khâ:/ + /ná:m/ + /rô:n/ + /ná:m/ + /châ:/	cost - water - hot - water - tea-leaf	bribe
99	ค่าปิดปาก	/khâ:pìtpà:k/	/khâ:/ + /pìt/ + /pà:k/	cost - close - mouth	amount of money paid to someone to keep a secret
100	คำตอบสุดท้าย	/khāmtò:psùtthá:j/	/khām/ + /tò:p/ + /sùtthá:j/	word - answer - final	final conclusion
101	คำประพันธ์	/khāmpràphān/	/khām/ + /pràphān/	word - compose	poem
102	คู่เดท	/khû:dè:t/	/khû:/ + /dè:t/	pair - date	dating couple
103	เครื่องขยายเสียง	/khrûaŋkhājǎ:jsia:ŋ/	/khrûaŋ/ + /khājǎ:j/ + /sia:ŋ/	machine - amplify - sound	amplifier
104	เครื่องฟอกอากาศ	/khrûaŋfô:kʔā:kà:t/	/khrûaŋ/ + /fô:k/ + /ʔā:kà:t/	instrument - purify - air	air purifier
105	โค้งสุดท้าย	/khó:ŋsùtthá:j/	/khó:ŋ/ + /sùtthá:j/	curve - final	a final round of the competition
106	งานช้าง	/ŋā:nchá:ŋ/	/ŋā:n/ + /chá:ŋ/	work - elephant	mega-project
107	เงินก้นถุง	/ŋjŋkônthŋŋ/	/ŋjŋ/ + /kôn/ + /thŋŋ/	money - bottom - bag	bottom dollar
108	เงินถุงเงินถัง	/ŋjŋnthŋŋŋjŋnthǎŋ/	/ŋjŋ/ + /thŋŋ/ + /ŋjŋ/ + /thǎŋ/	money - bag - money - bucket	a lot of money
109	จดหมายน้อย	/təòmǎ:jnó:j/	/təòmǎ:j/ + /nó:j/	letter - small	informal letter written in a small piece of paper
110	จดหมายลูกโซ่	/təòmǎ:jlú:ksô:/	/təòmǎ:j/ + /lú:k/ + /sô:/	letter - offspring - chain	chain letter
111	จอแบน	/təõ:bē:n/	/təõ:/ + /bē:n/	screen - flat	flat screen
112	จิตอาสา	/təitʔā:sǎ:/	/təit/ + /ʔā:sǎ:/	mind - volunteer	public mind
113	จุ่ม	/təimcùm/	/təim/ + /cùm/	dip - immerse	a hot pot
114	จุดขาย	/təùtkhǎ:j/	/təùt/ + /khǎ:j/	point - sell	selling point
115	จุดซ่อนเร้น	/təùtsô:nrén/	/təùt/ + /sô:n/ + /rén/	point - hid - hid	vagina
116	จุดยุทธศาสตร์	/təùtjútthāsà:t/	/təùt/ + /jútthā/ + /sà:t/	point - battle - science	stronghold
117	เจ้าโลก	/təâwlô:k/	/təâw/ + /lô:k/	fellow - world	genitals

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118	เจ้าถนน	/tɛ̌âwthānǎn/	/tɛ̌âw/ + /thānǎn/	fellow - road	people or animals who obstruct the roads
119	เจ้าน้ำตา	/tɛ̌âwná:mtā:/	/tɛ̌âw/ + /ná:m/ + /tā:/	fellow - water - eye	a person who cries easily
120	เจ้าบทบาท	/tɛ̌âwbòtbà:t/	/tɛ̌âw/ + /bòtbà:t/	fellow - role	a person who plays a role skillfully
121	เจ้าบุญทุ่ม	/tɛ̌âwbūnthūm/	/tɛ̌âw/ + /būn/ + /thūm/	fellow - merit - hurl	a generous person
122	เจ้าภาพหลัก	/tɛ̌âwphā:plāk/	/tɛ̌âw/ + /phā:p/ + /lāk/	fellow - picture - main	a main host
123	ชนกลุ่มน้อย	/tehōnklūmnó:j/	/tehōn/ + /klūm/ + /nó:j/	people - group - small	minority group
124	ช่องแข็ง	/tehō:ŋkhě:ŋ/	/tehō:ŋ/ + /khě:ŋ/	hole - solid	freezer
125	ชาเย็น	/tehā:jēn/	/tehā:/ + /jēn/	tea - cold	iced tea
126	ชาไข่มุก	/tehā:khājímúk/	/tehā:/ + /khāj/ + /múk/	tea - egg - oyster	iced tea with tapioca pellets
127	ชาดำเย็น	/tehā:dāmjēn/	/tehā:/ + /dām/ + /jēn/	tea - black - cold	black iced tea
128	ชามะนาว	/tehā:mánā:w/	/tehā:/ + /mánā:w/	tea - lemon	lemon iced tea
129	ชาวเกาะ	/tehā:wkòʔ/	/tehā:w/ + /kòʔ/	person - island	islander
130	ชาวเขา	/tehā:whăw/	/tehā:w/ + /khăw/	person - hill/mountain	tribe
131	ชาวสีม่วง	/tehā:wsǐ:mūaŋ/	/tehā:w/ + /sǐ:/ + /mūaŋ/	person - color - purple	gay
132	ชิปแลกเงิน	/tehíplê:kŋjɨn/	/tehíp/ + /lê:k/ + /ŋjɨn/	chip - exchange - money	chip
133	ชุดสูท	/chútsù:t/	/chút/ + /sù:t/	dress - suit	suit
134	ซอยตัน	/sō:jtān/	/sō:j/ + /tān/	alley - end	blind alley
135	ไซต์งาน	/sájŋā:n/	/sáj/ + /ŋā:n/	site - work	construction site
136	ฐานเสียง	/thā:nsǐa:ŋ/	/thā:n/ + /sǐa:ŋ/	base - voice	bastion
137	ดอกไม้เหล็ก	/dò:kmá:jlèk/	/dò:k/ + /má:j/ + /lèk/	flower - tree - iron	a woman who is strong and patient to handle and cope with difficulty
138	ดาวค้างฟ้า	/dā:wkhá:ŋfā:/	/dā:w/ + /khá:ŋ/ + /fā:/	star - to remain - sky	a long last movie star

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139	ดาวร่วง	/dā:wrûa:ŋ/	/dā:w/ + /rûa:ŋ/	star - to fall	unpopular actors
140	เด็กเลี้ยงแกะ	/dèklian̄kè:/	/dèk/ + /lian̄ + /kè:/	child - to raise - sheep	a liar
141	เด็กเส้น	/deksên/	/dek/ + /sên/	child - line	a person who is helped by someone to get a job or enter the university without any entrance examination
142	เด็กแนว	/dèknēw/	/dèk/ + /nēw/	child - style	a person who has an individual style of clothing, hairstyle and speech
143	เด็กปั้น	/dèkpân/	/dèk/ + /pân/	child - to sculpt	a person who is trained and supported by a famous person
144	เด็กฝาก	/dèkfâ:k/	/dèk/ + /fâ:k/	child - to deposit	a person who is helped by someone to get a job
145	เด็กสร้าง	/dèksâ:ŋ/	/dèk/ + /sâ:ŋ/	child - to build	a person who is trained and supported by a famous person
146	ต้นแบบ	/tôn̄bè:p/	/tôn̄/ + /bè:p/	stem - model	prototype
147	ต้นห้อง	/tôn̄hō:ŋ/	/tôn̄/ + /hō:ŋ/	beginning - room	a secretary
148	ตลาดนัด	/tâlâ:tnát/	/tâlâ:t/ + /nát/	market - appointment	market fair
149	ตลาดวิชา	/tâlâ:twichā:/	/tâlâ:t/ + /wichā:/	market - subject	academic fair
150	ตลาดสดเคลื่อนที่	/tâlâ:tsòtkhlûantî:/	/tâlâ:t/ + /sòt/ + /khlûan/ + /tî:/	market - fresh - move - place	a pick-up which carries fruit, vegetables, meat and groceries for selling
151	ตลาดสัญจร	/tâlâ:tsāncō:n/	/tâlâ:t/ + /sāncō:n/	market - travel	a mobile market
152	ตัวหนอน	/tūa:nō:n/	/tūa:/ + /nō:n/	body - worm	paver
153	ตีนแมว	/tī:nmē:w/	/tī:n/ + /mē:w/	foot - cat	cat burglar
154	ตีนกบ	/tī:nkòp/	/tī:n/ + /kòp/	foot - frog	flipper/fins
155	ตีนตุ๊กแก	/tī:ntúkkē:/	/tī:n/ + /túkkē:/	feet - gecko	velcro tape
156	ตึกระฟ้า	/tikráfā:/	/tik/ + /ráfā:/	building - very high	skyscraper

No.	Thai Word	Transcription	Source Words	Literal English	Meaning
157	ตู้เกม	/tû:kēm/	/tû:/ + /kēm/	cabinet - games	game box
158	ตู้เซฟ	/tû:sép/	/tû:/ + /sép/	cabinet - safe	safety box
159	ตู้เพลง	/tû:phlēŋ/	/tû:/ + /phlēŋ/	cabinet - song	music box
160	ตู้แช่	/tû:chê:/	/tû:/ + /chê:/	cabinet - soak	freezer
161	ตู้แช่แข็ง	/tû:chê:khě:ŋ/	/tû:/ + /chê:/ + /khě:ŋ/	cabinet - soak - solid	freezer
162	ถุงเย็น	/thŭŋjēn/	/thŭŋ/ + /jēn/	bag - cold	cool bag
163	ถุงซิป	/thŭŋsíp/	/thŭŋ/ + /síp/	bag - zipper	zipper bag
164	ถุงทะเล	/thŭŋthálē:/	/thŭŋ/ + /thálē:/	bag - sea	duffle bag
165	ถุงนอน	/thŭŋnō:n/	/thŭŋ/ + /nō:n/	bag - sleep	sleeping bag
166	ถุงยี่งชีพ	/thŭŋjāŋchî:p/	/thŭŋ/ + /jāŋchî:p/	bag - support - life	first aid kit
167	ถุงร้อน	/thŭŋró:n/	/thŭŋ/ + /ró:n/	bag - hot	polypropylene bag
168	ทางตัน	/thā:ŋtān/	/thā:ŋ/ + /tān/	way - end	stalemate
169	ทำเลทอง	/thāmlē:thō:ŋ/	/thāmlē:/ + /thō:ŋ/	location - gold	prime location
170	ทีวีสาธารณะ	/thī:wī:sǎ:thā:ráná/	/thī:wī:/ + /sǎ:thā:ráná/	television - public	Public Broadcasting Service
171	โทนเสียง	/thō:nsīa:ŋ/	/thō:n/ + /sīa:ŋ/	tone - voice	tone
172	โทรศัพท์เคลื่อนที่	/thō:rásàpkhlŭantī:/	/thō:rásàp/ + /khlŭan/ + /tī:/	telephone - move - place	mobile phone
173	โทรศัพท์ไร้สาย	/thō:rásàprájsǎ:j/	/thō:rásàp/ + /ráj/ + /sǎ:j/	telephone - lack - cord	cordless telephone
174	นกเหล็ก	/nóklèk/	/nók/ + /lèk/	bird - iron	airplane
175	นมเปรี้ยว	/nōmprīa:w/	/nōm/ + /prīa:w/	milk - sour	yoghurt
176	นมเย็น	/nōmjēn/	/nōm/ + /jēn/	milk - cold	iced milk
177	นมผึ้ง	/nōmphīŋ/	/nōm/ + /phīŋ/	milk - bee	honeycomb
178	น้องชาย	/nó:ŋchā:j/	/nó:ŋ/ + /chā:j/	younger - man	younger brother
179	น้องสาว	/nó:ŋsǎ:w/	/nó:ŋ/ + /sǎ:w/	younger - female	young sister
180	นักเรียนกินนอน	/nákrīa:nkīnnō:n/	/nákrīa:n/ + /kīn/ + /nō:n/	person - study - eat - sleep	boarder
181	นางงามตู้กระจก	/nā:ŋgā:mtû:kràcòk/	/nā:ŋ/ + /gā:m/ + /tû:/ + /kràcòk/	woman - beautiful - cabinet - mirror	a woman who works at a massage parlor

No.	Thai Word	Transcription	Source Words	Literal English	Meaning
182	นางทางโทรศัพท์	/nā:ŋthā:ŋthō:rásàp/	/nā:ŋ/ + /thā:ŋ/ + /thō:rásàp/	woman - by - call - word	a prostitute who contacts people and negotiates with them by phone
183	นายทวาร	/nā:jthāwā:n/	/nā:j/ + /thāwā:n/	man - door	goalkeeper
184	นาฬิกาชีวิต	/nā:líkātehē:wít/	/nā:líkā/ + /tehē:wít/	clock - life	biological clock / body clock
185	น้ำเน่า	/ná:mnāw/	/ná:m/ + /nāw/	water - decayed	bad and unqualified person
186	น้ำเลี้ยง	/ná:mlíā:ŋ/	/ná:m/ + /líā:ŋ/	water - raise	money to support a group of people for doing something
187	น้ำจิ้ม	/ná:mcím/	/ná:m/ + /cím/	water - dip	trailer / teaser / example
188	น้ำดี	/ná:mdī:/	/ná:m/ + /dī:/	water - good	good and qualified person
189	น้ำมันตับปลา	/ná:mmāntàplā:/	/ná:mmān/ + /tāp/ + /plā:/	oil - liver - fish	omega-3
190	น้ำมันปลา	/ná:mmānplā:/	/ná:mmān/ + /plā:/	oil - fish	fish oil
191	น้ำมันมวย	/ná:mmānmū:ij/	/ná:m/ + /mān/ + /mū:ij/	water - oil - boxing	linament
192	น้ำยาฟอกขาว	/ná:myā:fī:kkhā:w/	/ná:m/ + /yā:/ + /fī:k/ + /khā:w/	water - drug - clean - white	bleach
193	เนติบริกร	/nētibō:ríkō:n/	/nētī/ + /bō:ríkō:n/	law - servicer	a lawyer who works for politicians
194	บทประพันธ์	/bòtprāphān/	/bòt/ + /prāphān/	chapter - compose	composition
195	บทร้อยกรอง	/bòtró:jkrō:ŋ/	/bòt/ + /ró:jkrō:ŋ/	chapter - verse	sonnet
196	บ่อนลอยน้ำ	/bò:nlō:jná:m/	/bò:n/ + /lō:j/ + /ná:m/	den - float - water	a den in a cruise
197	บ่อนวิ่ง	/bò:nwīŋ/	/bò:n/ + /wīŋ/	den - run	a den which is often moved to a different place in order to avoid the police
198	บัตรคิว	/bàtkhīw/	/bàt/ + /khīw/	ticket - queue	queue ticket
199	บ้านนอก	/bā:nnō:k/	/bā:n/ + /nō:k/	house - outside	countryside

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200	บ้านป่าเมืองเถื่อน	/bâ:npà: mūan̄thùn/	/bâ:n/ + /pà:/ + /mūan̄/ + /thùn/	house-forest-city- uncivilized	undeveloped country
201	บุคคลสาธารณะ	/bùkkhōnsă:thā:ráná/	/bùkkhōn/ + /să:thā:ráná/	person - public	public figure
202	ใบเสร็จ	/bājsèt/	/bāj/ + /sèt/	paper - finish	receipt
203	ใบขับขี่	/bājkhàpkhì:/	/bāj/ + /khàp/ + /khì:/	paper - drive - ride	driving license
204	ใบบุญ	/bājbūn/	/bāj/ + /būn/	paper - merit	merit
205	ใบปิด	/bājpìt/	/bāj/ + /pìt/	paper - post	billboard
206	ประโยคทอง	/pràjòkthō:ŋ/	/pràjòk/ + /thō:ŋ/	sentence - gold	touch sentence
207	ปลาเส้น	/plā:sên/	/plā:/ + /sên/	fish - line	fish snack
208	ปลาแผ่น	/plā:phè:n/	/plā:/ + /phè:n/	fish - sheet	fish cake
209	ปลาดิบ	/plā:dìp/	/plā:/ + /dìp/	fish - raw	sushi / sashimi
210	ปลาสองน้ำ	/plā:sǒ:ŋnám/	/plā:/ + /sǒ:ŋ/ + /nám/	fish - two - water	bisexual
211	ปากกาเคมี	/pà:kkā:khē:mī:/	/pà:k/ + /kā:/ + /khē:mī:/	mouth - crow - chemical	marker/felt pen
212	ผลไม้	/phōnlāmă:j/	/phōn/ + /mă:j/	fruit - tree	fruit
213	ผัดกะเพรา	/phàtkàphrāw/	/phàt/ + /kàphrāw/	fry - basil	a dish of meat sautéed with fresh basil
214	ผัดซีอิ๊ว	/phàtsī:ʔiw/	/phàt/ + /sī:ʔiw/	fry - soy sauce	a dish of noodle which is fried with meat, vegetable, and soy sauce
215	ผ้ากาว	/phā:kā:w/	/phā:/ + /kā:w/	cloth - glue	iron-on-patch
216	ผู้สันทัดกรณี	/phū:sānthátkō:rānī:/	/phū:/ + /sānthát/ + /kō:rānī:/	person - skillful - case	expert
217	ผู้หญิงข้ามเพศ	/phū:jīŋkhā:mphê:t/	/phū:jīŋ/ + /khā:m/ + /phê:t/	person - female - cross over - gender	transsexual
218	เดือดร้อน	/phūuakró:n/	/phūuak/ + /ró:n/	taro - hot	urgent problem
219	แผนแม่บท	/phě:nmê:bòt/	/phě:n/ + /mê:/ + /bòt/	plan - mother - chapter	model scheme
220	ฝนดาวตก	/fōndā:wòk/	/fōn/ + /dā:w/ + /òk/	rain - star - fall	meteor shower
221	ฝายชะลอน้ำ	/fǎ:jchálō:nám/	/fǎ:j/ + /chálō:/ + /nám/	dam - slow down - water	check dam

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222	พรายกระซิบ	/phrā:jkṛásíp/	/phrā:j/ + /krásíp/	ghost - whisper	a person who gives information in confidence
223	พ่อเมือง	/phô:mūaŋ/	/phô:/ + /mūaŋ/	father - city	provincial governor
224	พุทธพาณิชย์	/phúttháphā:nít/	/phút/ + /phā:nít/	Buddhist - commerce	Buddhist commerce chips
225	เพศสภาพ	/phê:tsāphā:p/	/phê:t/ + /sāphā:p/	gender - state	gender
226	แพทย์เฉพาะทาง	/phê:tcháphóthā:ŋ/	/phê:t/ + /cháphó/ + /thā:ŋ/	doctor - particularly - way	specialist physician
227	แพทย์แผนไทย	/phê:tphě: nthāj/	/phê:t/ + /phě:n/ + /thāj/	doctor - program - Thai	Thai traditional medicine
228	แพทย์แผนปัจจุบัน	/phê:tphě: npàtcùbān/	/phê:t/ + /phě:n/ + /pàtcùbān/	doctor - program - at present	medical doctor
229	แพทย์ทางเลือก	/phê:tthā:ŋlúak/	/phê:t/ + /thā:ŋlúak/	doctor - way - select	alternative medicine
230	แฟนพันธ์แท้	/fē:nphanthé:/	/fē:n/ + /phan/ + /thé:/	fan - type - real	big fan
231	ไฟจราจร	/fājcarā:cō:n/	/fāj/ + /cārā:cō:n/	light - traffic	traffic light
232	ไฟจี้ก้น	/fājci:kôn/	/fāj/ + /ci:/ + /kôn/	fire - tickle - bottom	deadline
233	ไฟสำรอง	/fājsāmṛi:ŋ/	/fāj/ + /sāmṛi:ŋ/	light - store	backup power
234	ฟุตบอลชายหาด	/fútbō:nchā:jhà:t/	/fútbō:n/ + /chā:jhà:t/	foot - ball - edge - beach	beach football
235	ภาวะโลกร้อน	/phā:wálôkrō:n/	/phā:wá/ + /lôk/ + /rō:n/	situation - earth - hot	global warming
236	ภาษาดอกไม้	/phā:sā:dò:kmá:j/	/phā:sā:/ + /dò:kmá:j/	language - flower - tree	beautiful language
237	ภาษามือ	/phā:sa:mū:/	/phā:sa:/ + /mū:/	language - hand	sign language
238	ภาษีสังคม	/phā:sī:sāŋkhōm/	/phā:sī:/ + /sāŋkhōm/	tax - society	money paid for a party, a wedding, etc
239	มนุษย์เงินเดือน	/mánútŋōndūan/	/mánút/ + /ŋōn/ + /dūan/	human - money - month	salary man
240	ม้าเหล็ก	/mā:lèk/	/mā:/ + /lèk/	horse - iron	train
241	มารศาสนา	/mā:nsà:tsànǎ:/	/mā:n/ + /sà:tsànǎ:/	devil - religion	a person who always ruins the religion
242	มือโปร	/mū:prō:/	/mū:/ + /prō:/	hand - professional	expert

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243	มืออาชีพ	/mū:ʔā:tehī:ph/	/mū:/ + /ʔā:tehī:ph/	hand - profession	expert
244	แม่บ้าน	/mê:bâ:n/	/mê:/ + /bâ:n/	mother - house	housekeeper / housewife
245	แม่บ้านแม่เรือน	/mê:bâ:nmê:rūan/	/mê:/ + /bâ:n/ + /mê:/ + /rūan/	mother - home - mother - home	a wife who is very good at doing housework
246	แม่บ้าน ถุงพลาสติก	/mê:bâ: nthŭŋphlá: tsàt ik/	/mê:/ + /bâ:n/ + /thŭŋ/ + /phlá: tsàtik/	mother - house - bag - plastic	a woman who does not cook and always buys cooked food for her family
247	ไม้แขวนเสื้อ	/má:jkhwě:nsūa:/	/má:j/ + khwě:n/ + /sūa:/	wood - hang - shirt	clothes hanger
248	ไม้ใบ	/má:jbāj/	/má:j/ + /bāj/	tree - leaf	foliage plant
249	ไม้กั้นหมา	/má:jkānmă:/	/má:j/ + /kān/ + /mă:/	wooden stick - protect - dog	a person who protects someone from harassment
250	ไม้ดอก	/má:jdò:k/	/má:j/ + /dò:k/	tree - flower	flowering plant
251	ไม้ตัดดอก	/má:jtàtdò:k/	/má:j/ + /tāt/ + /dò:k/	tree - cut - flower	cut flower plant
252	ไม้ประดับ	/má:jpràdàp/	/má:j/ + /pràdàp/	tree - decorate	garden tree
253	ไม้ป่าเดียวกัน	/má:jpà:dīa:wkān/	/má:j/ + /pà:/ + /dīa:wkān/	tree - forest - same	gay / homosexual
254	ยกทรง	/jóksoŋ/	/jók/ + /soŋ/	lift - form	brassiere
255	ยาทาเล็บ	/jā:thā:lép/	/jā:/ + /thā:/ + /lép/	drug - paint - nail	nail varnish
256	ยาล้างเล็บ	/jā:lā:ŋllep/	/jā:/ + /lā:ŋ/ + /llep/	drug - wash - nail	nail varnish remover
257	ยาสระผม	/jā:sàphôm/	/jā:/ + /sàp/ + /hôm/	drug - wash - hair	shampoo
258	ยิ้มสยาม	/jím sājă:m/	/jím/ + /sājă:m/	smile - Siam	Thai smile
259	รถไถเดินตาม	/rótthăjdō:ntā:m/	/rót/ + /thăj/ + /dō:n/ + /tā:m/	vehicle - plough - walk - follow	tiller
260	รวมมิตร	/rūammít/	/rūam/ + /mít/	mix - friend	a name of Thai dessert which is combined with
261	รองเท้าแตะ	/rō:ŋtháwtè/	/rō:ŋtháw/ + /tè/	support - foot - touch	sandals/slippers

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262	รองเท้าฟองน้ำ	/rõ:ŋtháwfi:ŋná:m/	/rõ:ŋtháw/+ /fi:ŋná:m/	support - foot - bubble - water	flip-flops
263	รองเท้ารัดส้น	/rõ:ŋtháwrátsôn/	/rõ:ŋtháw/ + /rátsôn/	support - foot - fasten - heel	slingbacks
264	รองเท้าหุ้มข้อ	/rõ:ŋtháwhûmkhõ:/	/rõ:ŋtháw/ + /hûm/ + /khõ:/	support - foot - cover - ankle	brogan
265	รองเท้าหุ้มส้น	/rõ:ŋtháwhûmsôn/	/rõ:ŋtháw/ + /hûm/ + /sôn/	support - foot - cover - heel	sneakers, shoes
266	ราคาคุย	/rā:khā:khūj/	/rā:khā:/ + /khūj/	price - brag	boast
267	ร้านสะดวกซื้อ	/rá:nsàduaksú:/	/rá:n/ + /sàduak/ + /sú:/	shop - convenient - buy	convenience store
268	ร้านอาหาร	/rá:nʔā:hā:n/	/rá:nʔā:hā:n/	shop - food	restaurant
269	โรงเรียนขยาย โอกาส	/rõ:ŋriā:nkhājá:jʔõ:kà: :t/	/rõ:ŋriā:n/ + /khājá:j/ + /ʔõ:kà:t/	school - extend - opportunity	a primary school where there is a secondary education
270	โรงแรมจิ้งหรีด	/rõ:ŋrē:mcîŋri:t/	/rõ:ŋrē:m/ + /cîŋri:t/	hotel - cricket	a very small hotel that is cheap but not very tidy and convenient
271	ฤดูกาล	/rídū:kā:n/	/rídū:/ + /kā:n/	season - time	season
272	ลมปาก	/lõmpà:k/	/lõm/ + /pà:k/	wind - mouth	persuasive words
273	ลูกเสี้ยว	/lû:ksîa:w/	/lû:k/ + /sîa:w/	offspring - quarter	a child whose father or mother is of mixed race
274	ลูกไม้	/lû:kmá:j/	/lû:k/ + /má:j/	offspring - tree	lace
275	ลูกทัวร์	/lû:kthūa:/	/lû:k/ + /thūa:/	offspring - tour	tourist
276	เลือดบ้า	/lî:tbā:/	/lî:t/ + /bā:/	blood - crazy	craziness
277	วรรคทอง	/wákthõ:ŋ/	/wák/ + /thõ:ŋ/	paragraph - gold	punch line
278	วัยดึก	/wājdik/	/wāj/ + /dik/	age - late	elderly person
279	วิชามาร	/wíchā:mā:n/	/wíchā:/ + /mā:n/	subject - Satan	amoral trick
280	เวทีขาอ่อน	/wē:thī:khā:ʔò:n/	/wē:thī:/ + /khā:/ + /ʔò:n/	stage - leg - soft	pageant
281	เวทีสาธารณะ	/wē:tī:sā:thā:ráná/	/wē:thī:/ + /sā:thā:ráná/	stage - public	public forum

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282	ศิษย์ก้นกุฏิ	/sìtkônkùt/	/sìt/ + /kôn/ + /kùt/	student - bottom - monk's house	a favorite student who is always helpful and honest
283	ศูนย์อาหาร	/sǔ:nʔā:hǎ:n/	/sǔ:n/ + /ʔā:hǎ:n/	center - food	food center
284	เศรษฐกิจฟองสบู่	/sè:tthākìtʔĩ:ŋsàbù:/	/sè:tthākìt/ + /ʔĩ:ŋ/ + /sàbù:/	economy - bubble - soap	bubble economy
285	สงครามน้ำลาย	/sǒŋkhrā:mná:mlā:j/	/sǒŋkhrā:/ + /mná:m/ + /lā:j/	war - water - pattern	argument
286	สภากาแฟ	/sàphā:kā:fē:/	/sàphā:/ + /kā:fē:/	chamber - coffee	coffeehouse forum
287	สภาล่าง	/sàphā:lā:ŋ/	/sàphā:/ + /lā:ŋ/	council - below	House of Representatives
288	สภาสูง	/sàphā:sǔ:ŋ/	/sàphā:/ + /sǔ:ŋ/	council - high	senate
289	สระน้ำ	/sàná:m/	/sà/ + /ná:m/	pond - water	pool
290	สระว่ายน้ำ	/sàwā:jná:m/	/sà/ + /wā:jná:m/	pond - swim - water	swimming pool
291	สวนอาหาร	/sǔanʔā:hǎ:n/	/sǔan/ + /ʔā:hǎ:n/	garden - food	food center in a garden
292	สะพานไฟ	/sàphā:nfāj/	/sàphā:n/ + /fāj/	bridge - light	switch
293	สายรัดข้อมือ	/sǎ:jrátkhō:mū:/	/sǎ:j/ + /rát/ + /khō:mū:/	line - fasten - wrist - hand	wristband
294	สาวประเภทสอง	/sǎ:wpràphê:tsǔ:ŋ/	/sǎ:w/ + /pràphê:t/ + /sǔ:ŋ/	girl - type - two	transvestite
295	สาวสังคม	/sǎ:wsǎŋkhōm/	/sǎ:w/ + /sǎŋkhōm/	girl - society	a woman who likes socializing
296	สาวหล่อ	/sǎ:włò:/	/sǎ:w/ + /lò:/	girl - handsome	tomboy
297	สีเปลือกมังคุด	/sǐ:plúa:kmāŋkhút/	/sǐ:/ + /plúa:/ + /kmāŋkhút/	color - husk - mangosteen	maroon
298	สีจี่ม้า	/sǐ:khî:má:/	/sǐ:/ + /khî:/ + /má:/	color - excrement - horse	olive green
299	สีน้ำทะเล	/sǐ:ná:mthálē:/	/sǐ:/ + /ná:m/ + /thálē:/	color - water - sea	navy blue
300	เสื้อเอวลอย	/sǔa:ʔēwlǐ:j/	/sǔa:/ + /ʔēw/ + /lǐ:j/	shirt - waist - float	cropped shirt
301	เสื้อคอกลม	/sǔa:khō:klōm/	/sǔa:/ + /khō:/ + /klōm/	upper garment - neck - round	T-shirt
302	เสื้อชั้นใน	/sǔa:chánnāj/	/sǔa:/ + /chán/ + /nāj/	upper garment - layer - inside	brassiere

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303	เสื้อซับใน	/sūa:sápnāj/	/sūa:/ + /sápnāj/	upper garment - lining	undershirt
304	เสื้อนอก	/sūa:nō:k/	/sūa:/ + /nō:k/	upper garment - outside	outer shirt
305	เสื้อผู้หญิง	/sūa:phū:jīŋ/	/sūa:/ + /phū:jīŋ/	tiger - person - female	womanizer
306	หญิงขายบริการ	/jīŋkhā:jbō:rikā:n/	/jīŋ/ + /khā:j/ + /bō:rikā:n/	woman - sell - service	prostitute
307	หนองใน	/nō:ŋnāj/	/nō:ŋ/ + /nāj/	pus - in	syphilis
308	หนังแผ่น	/nāŋpè:n/	/nāŋ/ + /pè:n/	movie - sheet	DVD
309	หนังกลางแปลง	/nāŋklā:ŋplē:ŋ/	/nāŋ/ + /klā:ŋ/ + /plē:ŋ/	movie - center - plot	outdoor theatre
310	หน้ากากอนามัย	/nā:kā:kʔānā:māj/	/nā:kā:k/ + /ʔānā:māj/	mask - sanitation	protective mask
311	หมวกนิรภัย	/mùaknīráphāj/	/mùak/ + /nīráphāj/	hat - safety	helmet
312	หมากระป๋อง	/mā:kràpāw/	/mā:/ + /kràpāw/	dog - bag	pocket puppy
313	หมีกรอบ	/mī:krò:p/	/mī:/ + /krò:p/	rice noodle - crispy	sweet crispy noodle
314	ห้องดับจิต	/hō:ŋdàpcit/	/hō:ŋ/ + /dàp/ + /cit/	room - put out - mind	mortuary
315	ห้องสนทนา	/hō:ŋsōnthānā:/	/hō:ŋ/ + /sōnthānā:/	room - converse	chat room
316	หัวแดง	/hūa:dē:ŋ/	/hūa:/ + /dē:ŋ/	head - red	Westerner
317	หัวงู	/hūa:ŋū:/	/hūa:/ + /ŋū:/	head - snake	dirty old man
318	หัวดำ	/hūa:dām/	/hūa:/ + /dām/	head - black	Asian
319	หัวหน้าทัวร์	/hūa:nā:tūa:/	/hūa:/ + /nā:/ + /tūa:/	head - face - tour	a tour leader
320	เหยี่ยวข่าว	/jia:wkha:w/	/jia:w/ + /kha:w/	hawk - news	a skillful and clever journalist
321	เหล็กดัด	/lèkdàt/	/lèk/ + /dàt/	steel - straighten	dental braces
322	แหล่งข่าว	/lè:ŋkha:w/	/lè:ŋ/ + /kha:w/	source - news	a person who provides news or information
323	องค์กรอิสระ	/ʔōŋkō:nʔitsārā/	/ʔōŋkō:n/ + /ʔitsārā/	organization - independent	non-government organization
324	อาบอบนวด	/ʔà:pʔòpnūt/	/ʔà:p/ + /ʔòp/ + /nūt/	bathe - stream - massage	massage parlor
325	อารมณ์ชั่ววูบ	/ʔā:rōmsūa:wū:p/	/ʔā:rōm/ + /sūa:wū:p/	emotion - for a short while	impulse

No.	Thai Word	Transcription	Source Words	Literal English	Meaning
326	อารยะขัดขืน	/ʔā:rájákhàtkhũ:n/	/ʔā:rájá/ + /khàtkhũ:n/	civil - go against - defy	civil disobedience
327	อาหารจานด่วน	/ʔā:hǎ:ncā:ndùan/	/ʔā:hǎ:n/ + /cā:n/ + /dùan/	food - dish - quick	fast food
328	อาหารตามสั่ง	/ʔā:hǎ:ntā:msàŋ/	/ʔā:hǎ:n/ + /tā:m/ + /sàŋ/	food - follow - order	a la carte
329	อาหารถุง	/ʔā:hǎ: nthũŋ/	/ʔā:hǎ:n/ + /thũŋ/	food - bag	food which is packed in bags for selling
331	อาหารสำเร็จรูป	/ʔā:hǎ:nsǎmrèt rû:p/	/ʔā:hǎ:n/ + /sǎmrèt/ + /rû:p/	food - complete - picture	instant food
332	อาหารสุขภาพ	/ʔā:hǎ:nsùkkhàphâ:p/	/ʔā:hǎ:n/ +/sùkkhàphâ:p/	food - health	healthy food
333	โอกาสทอง	/ʔō:kà:tthō:ŋ/	/ʔō:kà:t/ + /thō:ŋ/	opportunity - gold	very good opportunity

APPENDIX B

List of Thai Lexical Blends

No.	Thai Form	Transcription	Sourc Words	Glossary	Meaning
1	กาลานุกรม	/kā:la:núkrōm/	/ka:lá/ + /ʔànúkrom/	time-order	almanach
2	กระเปรง	/kràpreŋ/	kràproŋ + ka:ŋkreŋ	skirt-pants	pants which look like a skirt
3	คณะธิปไตย	/khána:thíppātāi/	/káná/ + /ʔàthíppātāi/	group, party-sovereignty	oligarchy
4	โฆษณาการ	/khôsàná:kā:n/	/khôsàná:/ + /ʔā:kā:n/	to advertise-action	advertising
5	จันทรุปราคา	/teāntárúpàrà:khā:/	/teān/ + /ʔúpàrà:kā:/	the moon-darkening	lunar eclipse
6	จินตนาการ	/teĩntàná:kā:n/	/teĩntàná/ + /ʔā:kā:n/	to imagine-action	imagination
7	ซีเครียด	/sī:kríat/	/sī:ríat/ + /kríat/	serious-stressful	serious and stressful
8	ตุลาภิวัฒน์	/tùlā:phíwát/	/tùlā:kā:n/ + /ʔàphíwát/	judge-advancement	judicialization
9	ตุลาธิปไตย	/tùlā:thíppātāi/	/tùlā:kā:n/ + /ʔàthíppātāi/	judge-sovereignty	judicial activism
10	ทัศนูปกรณ์	/thátsànū:pākō:n/	/thát/ + /ʔúpākō:n/	view, scene-equipment	visual aid
11	ทรัพยากร	/sáppájā:kō:n/	/sáp/ + /ʔā:kō:n/	wealth-revenue/tax	resource
12	ทูตานุทูต	/thū:tā:núthū:t/	/thū:t/ + /ʔànúthū:t/	ambassador-assistant ambassador	diplomatic corps
13	ธนาคาร	/thánā:khā:n/	/tháná/ + /ʔākā:n/	asset-building	bank
14	ธนาคัติ	/thánā:nát/	/tháná/ + /ʔā:nát/	asset-mandate	money order
15	บูรณาการ	/bū:ránā:kā:n/	/bū:n/ + /ʔā:kā:n/	full-action	integration
16	บิดาธิปไตย	/pìtā:thíppātāi/	/pìtā:/ + /ʔàthíppātāi/	father-sovereignty	patriarchy
17	แพทยภิวัฒน์	/pê:tthájā:phíwát/	/pê:t/ + /ʔàphíwát/	doctor-advancement	medicalization
18	มารดาธิปไตย	/mā:tā:típpātāi/	/mā:tā:/ + /ʔàtíppātāi/	mother-sovereignty	matriarchy
19	รัฐาธิปไตย	/rátthā:thíppātāi/	/rátthā/ + /ʔàtíppātāi/	state-sovereignty	the power of the state
20	รัฐาภิบาลนโยบาย	/rátthāpípā:lánō:bā:j/	/rátthā/ + /ʔàphípā:láná/ + /nájō:bā:j/	kingdom -protection-stratagem	statesmanship, governmentality

No.	Thai Form	Transcription	Sourc Words	Glossary	Meaning
21	โลกาภิวัตน์	/lō:ka:phíwát/	/lō:k/ + /ʔàphíwát/	globe-advancement	globalization
22	โลกิยานุวัตน์	/lō:kijā:núwát/	/lō:kijá/ + /ʔànùwát/	global-to follow, to behave	secularization
23	เศรษฐกิจปไตย	/sè:thàjā:thíppàtāi/	/sè:t/ + /ʔàthíppàtāi/	excellent-sovereignty	plutocracy
24	ศัพท์านุกรม	/sàpthā:núkrōm/	/sàp/ + /ʔànúkrōm/	vocabulary-order	lexicon
25	ศิลปาคาร	/sínlápā:kā:n/	/sínlápà/ + /ʔā:kā:n/	art-building	art house
26	สัพเพเหระก	/sàpphē:hě:rók/	/sàpphē:hě:rā/ + /rók/	trifling-messy	trifling and messy
27	สาธารณูปการ	/sā:thā:rānū:pākā:n/	/sā:thā:rāná/ + /ʔùpākā:n/	public-to help	public assistance
28	สาธารณูปโภค	/sā:thā:rānū:pàpôk/	/sā:thā:rāná/ + /ʔùpàpôk/	public-to consume	public utilities
29	สารานุกรม	/sā:rā:núkrōm/	/sā:rā/ + /ʔànúkrōm/	knowledge-order	encyclopedia
30	สุริยุปราคา	/sùrījúpārā:kā:/	/sùrījā/ + /ʔúpārā:kā:/	the sun-darkening	solar eclipse
31	สุญญากาศ	/sūnjā:kā:t/	/sūn/ + /ʔā:kā:t/	empty-air	airless
32	โสตทัศนูปกรณ์	/sòthhásānu:pākon/	/sòt/ + /that/ + /ʔùpākōn/	ear-view-equipment	audio-visual aid
33	อักษรานุกรม	/ʔàkkhàrà:nú:krōm/	/ʔàkkhàrá/ + /ʔànú:krōm/	alphabet-order	alphabetic index
34	อรรถาธิบาย	/ʔàthhā:thíbbā:j/	/ʔàth/ + /ʔàthíbbā:j/	content-to explain	to explain
35	อรรถาภิธาน	/ʔàthhā:phíthā:n/	/ʔàth/ + /ʔàphíthā:n/	content-glossary	thesaurus
36	อำมาตยาธิปไตย	/ʔāmmā:ttāyā:típpàtāi/	/ʔāmmā:t/ + /ʔàthíppàtāi/	government official-sovereignty	bureaucracy
37	อัตโนมัติ	/ʔàttānō:mū:/	/ʔàttānō:mát/ + /mū:/	automatic-hand	to use one's hands instead of an automatic machine

APPENDIX C

List of English Compounds

No.	Compound	Meaning
1	access course	a course designed to provide a student who does not hold the normally required entrance qualification with essential background information and skills
2	acid jazz	a kind of popular dance music incorporating elements of jazz, funk, soul, and hip hop
3	acquaintance rape	the rape of a woman by someone who is known her
4	affinity card	An identity card issued by a retailer to its customers so that each individual transaction can be recorded in order to mass credits for future discounts or other benefits.
5	African-American	an American citizen of African descent; a black American
6	air miles	A proprietary name for a customer incentive scheme under which credits redeemable for free air travel are issued to frequent flyers, or to people taking part in designated transactions; such credits may also be given as a bonus by some employers.
7	air quotes	Quotation marks represented by the movement of a speaker's finger in the air, indicating that what is being said is ironic, should not be taken seriously, or is not a word or phrase he or she would usually employ.
8	airport fiction	the form of popular fiction typically sold at the airport for in-flight reading
9	alcohol abuse	the habitual excessive use of alcohol
10	alternative fuel	a fuel other than petrol for powering motor vehicles
11	animal companion	an animal kept as a pet
12	applied kinesiology	a range of alternative health care techniques: the process involves testing muscle strength to locate weaknesses in internal organs, especially as a result of allergic reaction
13	artificial life	a field of research which seeks to understand how lifelike processes such as replication and independent behavior can

No.	Compound	Meaning
		be embodied in computer systems and to create artificial organism with lifelike properties
14	audit commission	in the UK, an independent body which monitors public spending, especially that by local government, on behalf of government
15	auto bra	in the US, a protective device to be fitted over the bodywork for the front of a car
16	baby buster	a generation of young people perceived to lack a sense of direction in life and to have no part to play in society / Generation X
17	bail bandit	a person who commits a crime while on bail awaiting trial
18	ball-tampering	in cricket, illegal alteration of the surface of a ball to affect its movement in the air when bowled
19	balsamic vinegar	a dark, sweet Italian vinegar, matured in wooden barrels
20	bank assurance	the selling of insurance products and services, especially life assurance, by banking institutions
21	banoffi pie	a dessert having a pastry base and a filling consisting of bananas, toffee (made from condensed milk heated with sugar), and cream
22	barfly jumping	an activity involving jumping at a Velcro-covered wall with the aim of sticking to it, usually practised in bars
23	basehead	in US slang, a person who habitually takes cocaine in the form of freebase or crack
24	basejump	a parachute jump from a fixed point, especially a high building or promontory rather than from an aircraft
25	batch file	a computer file in which is stored a list of command to be carried out in sequence when the name of the batch file is typed at the operating system's command prompt
26	beetle bank	a strip of land sown with perennial grasses and other plants to create an environment in which aphid-eating insect can thrive

No.	Compound	Meaning
27	beltway bandit	a US slang, a company or individual, frequently one formally employed by a US government agency, hired by a corporation to assist in securing government contract
28	benchmark	the result of such a test; a numerical value for the performance of a computer system in relation to others
29	benefit tourism	the practice of travelling to or within Britain in order to claim social security benefits
30	birthing pool	a form of children birth in which the mother is supported in a specially designed pool or tub so that the child is delivered into the water
31	black information	information held by institutions such as banks and credit agencies about people who are considered to be bad
32	black metal	a type of heavy metal music with lyrics which invoke the Devil and celebrate evil
33	black section	in the British Labour party, a proposed, officially recognized grouping of non-white members at constituency level, designed to represent the interests of non-white
34	black tar	in the slang of drug users, an exceptionally pure and potent form of heroin from Mexico
35	blue box	a blue-coloured box used for the collection of recyclable items as part of municipal recycling scheme
36	blush wine	a wine with a slight pink tint or 'blush', made in the manner of white wines but from red grape varieties
37	bodice-ripper	a sexually explicit romantic novel or film, especially one with a historical setting, with a plot featuring the seduction of the heroine
38	body double	a stand-in for a film actor during nude scenes or in action sequences requiring special skills
39	body piercing	the piercing of parts of the body other than the ear, in order to insert studs, rings, rods, and other objects usually as a form of adornment and also to enhance sexual pleasure

No.	Compound	Meaning
40	bonkbuster	in jocular use: a type of popular novel characterized by frequent explicit sexual encounters between the characters
41	bull bar	a metal bar or framework fitted to the front of a vehicle, originally to provide protection for the vehicle in the event of a collision with an animal, now frequently as a fashion accessory
42	bungee jumping	the action or practice of jumping from a height while secured by an elasticated rope attached to the ankles or to a harness
43	business tourism	the practice of travelling in order to take advantage of the economic deprivation of a chosen area or country
44	cancelbot	computer programs that would automatically issue messages cancelling the offending originals
45	canteen culture	a derogatory term for an established set of attitudes within the police force, characterized by resistance to the introduction of modern managerial standards and practices, and as its most extreme associated with male chauvinist and racist views
46	car bra	in the US, a protective device to be fitted over the bodywork for the front of a car
47	carbon tax	a tax levied on fossil fuels with the aim of discouraging the production of harmful carbon dioxide resulting from their being burnt
48	cardboard city	an area of a large town where homeless people congregate at night under makeshift shelters made from discarded cardboard boxes and other materials
49	carjacking	the violent abduction or hijacking of a car or its driver. Also, a violent theft from a driver in such circumstances
50	cash-back	a free facility offered by retailer whereby a customer may withdraw a limited amount of cash when making a credit or debit purchase, the amount of which is added to the bill

No.	Compound	Meaning
51	celebrity novel	a novel whose distinguishing feature is its authorship by a 'celebrity', especially one regarded as a non-literary figure
52	chanel surfing	the action or practice of surfing through television programs usually by use of a remote control
53	change management	controlled identification and implementation of required changes within a system
54	charm offensive	a deliberate of using charm in order to achieve a goal, especially political one
55	chemoprevention	the use of medication techniques to prevent the onset of cancer
56	chipset	a suit of integrated circuits designed to work together to fulfill a particular purpose in a computer system, for example in controlling video displays or communications input and output
57	church planting	the practice of establishing ('planting') a core worshipper intended to develop into a congregation containing repository of data
58	client-server	the fusion of atomic nuclei at or close to room temperature
59	cold fusion	the purchase of goods from home, especially goods offered on cable television
60	commonhold	a system of freehold tenure of a unit within a multi-occupancy building, but with shared responsibility for common service
61	community care	in the UK, a government programme introduced in 1990 to provide long-term care for the mentally ill, the elderly, and people with disabilities, within the resources offered by the community rather than in hospital or institutions
62	cook-chill	the process of pre-cooking and refrigerating foods for reheating later
63	dangerous dog	a dog of a breed notable for its strength and ferocity, legally defined as dangerous to the public

No.	Compound	Meaning
64	data warehouse	a collection of data which has been brought together from a variety of sources within and outside an organization and processed into a form which gives useful guidance to the organization's decision makers
65	dataglove	a glove which contains sensors to detect the relative position and movement of the hand and figures, used to control and manipulate a variety of computer-generated image, especially in VIRTUAL reality environments
66	date rape	the rape of a woman by someone who is known her
67	death futures	in US slang, life insurance policies of people who terminally ill, bought by the third party at less than the mature value as an investment redeemable on the death of the insured person
68	dental dam	a piece of latex held over the mouth as a barrier against inflection in oral sex
69	dependency culture	a way of life characterized by dependency on state benefits
70	digital compression	a process of reducing the number of pulses needed to transmit a digital image or other data so that the information can be carried on a communication system of lower capacity
71	disco biscuit	the extreme feelings of euphoria and general well-being which the drug induces in its users
72	double whammy	a twofold blow or setback
73	dragon boat	a rowing boat of traditional Chinese designed, shaped like a large canoe and decorated with carved dragon's head prow, used in the modern competitive sport of dragon boat racing
74	eating disorder	any of a range of psychological disorder characterized by abnormal or disturbed eating habits
75	ecological footprint	something which has had a permanent (and damaging) effect on the surrounding environment
76	energy audit	a system review of the energy needs and efficiency of a building or buildings
77	escape key	a key on many computer keyboards which causes a special character code to be transmitted which is commonly used to

No.	Compound	Meaning
		signal that the user wishes to cancel, and thus escape from, the current position
78	ethical investment	an investment which takes account of the investor's scruples by screening the companies to be invested in for their business morality and social outlook
79	ethnic cleansing	the mass expulsion or extermination of people from a minority ethnic or religious group within a certain area
80	expansion slot	a socket in a piece of computing equipment, especially a personal computer or workstation, into which an additional electronic circuit board may be plugged to add capacities to the system
81	eyephone	a headset used in VIRTUAL reality environments which provide its wearer with stereoscopic visual images and synchronized sound
82	fantasy football	a competition in which participants select imaginary teams from among the real players in an actual league and score points according to the actual performance of their players
83	feeding frenzy	a voracious competition among would-be purchasers or consumers
84	flying bishop	an informal term for a bishop in the Anglican Church appointed to minister, within another's diocese, to those who don't accept the ordination of women
85	freeride	a type of snowboard for all-round use on and off piste
86	frozen embryo	a fertilized human embryo which has been deep-frozen for storage
87	functional food	a foodstuff which contains additives specially designed to promote health and longevity
88	fundholder	in the UK: a general practitioner who is provided with and controls his or her own budget
89	gagging order	in the UK: an official order forbidding public discussion of a specified subject, in print or by broadcasting

No.	Compound	Meaning
90	gap year	a period of one academic year taken as a break from formal educational by a student between leaving school and taking up a place at college or university
91	gay gene	in slang, a sequence or sequences of DNA which, when present in the human X chromosome, may predispose toward homosexuality
92	genetic engineering	the deliberate modification of a living thing by changing its genetic structure
93	genetic fingerprinting	the analysis of genetic information from a blood sample or other small piece of cellular materials as an aid to identification
94	gesture politics	political action which concentrates primarily on publicity value and influencing public opinion
95	ghostbuster	In slang: a person who professes to banish ghosts, poltergeists, and other spirits
96	glass ceiling	an unofficial or unacknowledged barrier to personal advancement, especially in the workplace
97	gold standard	the example which sets the standard to which other parts of a system must conform
98	golden goal	the first goal scored during an extra time, which ends the match and gives victory to the scoring side
99	granny dumping	the deliberate abandonment or dumping at an unfamiliar location of an elderly person by those responsible for him or her
100	green shoots	signs of growth or renewal, especially of economic recovery
101	grey economy	the part of country's economy relating to commercial activity that is unaccounted for in official statistics
102	gridlock	a situation in which no progress can be made, a state of deadlock
103	handbag	a form of commercial, catchy, dance music
104	hard-ass	a tough and combative person, especially one seasoned by life and experience

No.	Compound	Meaning
105	hardcore	a type of fast, harsh music, especially techno
106	health tourism	the organization and operation of holidays for people who wish to dedicate their holidays to becoming or remaining fit
107	hearing dog	a dog trained to guide and help deaf
108	heli-skiing	a headset used in VIRTUAL reality environments which provide its wearer with stereoscopic visual images and synchronized sound
109	helpdesk	a section of a business or organization, staffed by specialists able to assist customers or users who have problems, principally those relating to computer equipment of software
110	heritage tourism	the organization and operation of holidays for people who attract to the past may indulge in
111	high-five	a celebratory gesture in which two people slap their right hands together high over their heads
112	high-top	a soft-soled sports shoe with a laced upper which extends above the height of the ankle; worn for sports such as baseball and basketball and also as a fashion item
113	home cinema	a system for showing films in the home which is designed to simulate as closely as possible the viewing conditions in a cinema
114	home page	the file on a World Wide Web site which is the one intended for users to access first, whose network location is published for that purpose, and which commonly provides an introduction and index to other elements of the site; more loosely, the personal details of an individual made available on such a system
115	home shopping	the purchase of goods from home, especially goods offered on cable television
116	homesitter	a person who lives in or takes care of a home by agreement with the usual occupants while they are away, especially as a commercial service

No.	Compound	Meaning
117	hot button	a central issue, concern, or characteristic that motivates people to make a particular choice (for example, among consumer goods, political candidates, or social structures)
118	human resources	the department in an organization which deals with the administration, management, and training of employees, also the area of work dealt with by such a department
119	inner child	a person's supposed original or 'true' self, especially when regarded as damaged or suppressed by negative childhood experiences
120	interactive service	the purchase of goods from home, especially goods offered on cable television
121	jelly shoes	brightly colored sandals made of moulded plastic
122	jet-skiing	a sport in which a jet-propelled vehicle like a motorbike is ridden across water
123	juice box	a small carton with attached plastic straw containing a single portion of fruit juice
124	jungle fever	a jocular or derogatory term for a burning desire to engage in an interracial sexual relationship
125	keyhole surgery	surgery carried out through a very small incision, using fiber-optic devices to observe the effect of laser scalpels or tiny instruments
126	kick-start	an impetus given to get a process or thing started or restarted
127	killer application	In marketing jargon, a product of technology which is good, or which contains features so advanced or innovatory, that it is irresistible to potential purchasers
128	killing field	a place of mass slaughter
129	lipstick lesbian	a lesbian of glamorous or manifestly feminine appearance
130	living will	a document written by a person while still legally fit to do so, requesting that he or she should be allowed to die rather than be kept alive by artificial means if subsequently severely disable or suffering from a terminal illness

No.	Compound	Meaning
131	loyalty card	an identity card issued by a retailer to its customers so that each individual transaction can be recorded in order to amass credits for future discounts or other benefits
132	magic realism	a literary style in which realistic techniques such as naturalistic detail and narrative are combined with surreal or dreamlike elements
133	managed care	a system of health care designed for the efficient management of resources
134	marzipan layer	in the jargon of British Stock Market: the stockbroking executives ranking immediately below the partners in a firm. Also, by extension, those people deemed to rank just below the highest echelon of a community
135	millennium bug	in informal usage, the coding of dates in software using only two digits for the year which will cause errors to occur when the century changes
136	mission statement	a declaration made by a company of its general objectives and principles of operation
137	mouse potato	a slang term for a person who spend an excessive amount of time in front of a computer, especially one who uses it online
138	nanny state	a derogatory nickname, according to which government institutions are seen authoritarian and paternalistic, interfering in and controlling people's lives in same way as nanny might try to control those of her charges
139	necrotizing fasciitis	a form of acute streptococcal infection causing tissue destruction through inflammation of the fascia of a muscle or other organ
140	negative equity	the indebtedness that occurs when the market value of a property falls below the outstanding amount of a mortgage secured on it, representing a reversal for the favourable situation in which a property is a value asset

No.	Compound	Meaning
141	network computer	a low-cost personal computer without local disk storage designed to be connected to the internet, a local area network, or a similar network, from which it would access application and data
142	new man	a man who rejects sexist attitudes, and aims to be caring, sensitive, and non aggressive and to take a substantial role in his household's domestic routine
143	new romantic	a follower of a British youth cult and fashion of the early eighties which combined elements of punk and glam-rock to form a style in which both sexes dressed in flamboyant clothes and often wore make-up
144	newsgroup	one of a number of online discussion forums which together make up Usenet, an informal communications system now mainly carried on the internet but separate from it
145	One Nation	a nation which is not divided by social inequalities
146	open system	a system allowing computer software and hardware from different manufacturers to be used together
147	outplacement industry	a professional approach to the process of dismissal and redundancy, and active assistance in seeking a new position
148	pathfinder prospectus	a prospectus which contains information relating to the proposed flotation of a company but does not state the expected price of shares, and which is issued prior to the official prospectus
149	peace dividend	a benefit, especially a financial one, gained from a reduction in spending on defense; a sum of public money which may become available for other purposes in these circumstances
150	peace process	negotiations towards the peaceful settlement of an established conflict
151	performance poetry	poetry viewed primarily as a medium for public rather than private consumption
152	pink pound	the perceived buying power of homosexuals as a group

No.	Compound	Meaning
153	policy wonk	in slang: a policy expert, especially one who takes an obsessive interest in minor details of policy
154	political correctness	conformity to a body of literal or radical opinion on social matters, characterized by the advocacy of approved views and the rejection of language and behaviour considered discriminatory or offensive
155	power bimbo	a working breakfast at which high-level political or business discussions can be held
156	power breakfast	a working breakfast at which high-level political or business discussions can be held
157	power dressing	a style of dressing for work and business intended to convey an impression of efficiency and confidence
158	power lunch	a working lunch at which high-level political or business discussions can be held
159	power nap	a nap, especially one taken in the day time, intended to refresh a person involved in high-level and important work
160	power user	a person, not a computer specialist, who shows considerable skills and ability in using a computer system or software
161	private key	the encrypted messages can be deciphered only by using a second key that is known only to the recipient
162	Producer Choice	a policy which gives programme-makers control over the budget, allowing them to purchase services from other department or from outside the organization
163	propeller-head	a mildly derogatory slang term for a person who pursues an obsessive interest in computer or technology; a boring or studious person
164	protection factor	the ratio of the time it takes skin to burn when wearing a sunscreen compared with the time it takes to burn without one
165	pulse dialing	a system of telephone dialing, in which each digit is transmitted as an equivalent number of electrical pulses

No.	Compound	Meaning
166	quad bike	an off-road four-wheeled motorcycle used for sport and recreation
167	quality circle	a group of employees which meets regularly to consider ways of resolving problems and improving production in an organization
168	quality time	time spent productively or profitably, especially with reference to time spent by working parents with their children
169	quantum chaos	the field of research and the effects
170	queercore	a cultural movement amongst young homosexuals which deliberately rebels against and dissociates itself from the establishment gay scene, having as its primary form of expression an aggressive type of punk-style music
171	recovered memory	repressed memory, especially of childhood sexual abuse, recovered during psychoanalysis
172	recovery movement	an emotional dependency on supporting or caring for another person or people
173	recreational drug	a drug regarded as a source of pleasure and enjoyment for one's leisure moments
174	red ribbon	an indication of sympathy and support for sufferers from aids awareness
175	red route	a traffic management scheme (marked by red lines along the edge of the road) designed to ease congestion on main roads in London
176	riot girl	a young militant feminist
177	road rage	a driver's uncontrolled aggressive behaviour, apparently caused by the stresses of modern driving
178	road-kill / roadkill	the killing of an animal by a vehicle on a road; an animal killed in this way. Also, a person or thing resembling such an animal; a helpless victim

No.	Compound	Meaning
179	roid rage	"heightened aggression towards other as a side-effect of taking anabolic steroids; an outburst of intense anger resulting from this
180	rolling news	a twenty-four-hour radio news service
181	safe haven	a protected zone in a country designated for members of a religious or ethnic minority
182	safe sex	sexual activity in which precautions are taken to ensure that the risk of spreading sexually transmitted diseases is minimized
183	scratch card	a card with a section or sections coated in an opaque waxy substance which may be scratch away to reveal a symbol indicating whether a prize has been won in a competition
184	screen saver	a program which, after a set time, replaces an unchanging screen display with a moving image to prevent damage to the phosphor. Also, a graphic image displayed by such a program
185	serial killer	a person who commits a series of similar murders with no apparent motive
186	serial monogamy	a mode of life characterized by a sequence of monogamous affairs with different partners
187	set-top box	the process of assembling something by cutting down and reshaping sections of a larger whole
188	shock jock	a radio disc-jockey who is deliberately offensive or provocative
189	single currency	a unified currency proposed for the use of all member states after the economic and monetary union of Europe
190	slam dancing	a form of dancing to rock music in which participants deliberately collide violently with one another
191	slaphead	a bald or shaven-headed person
192	sleaze factor	the sleazy or sordid aspect of a situation, especially as involving politics

No.	Compound	Meaning
193	sleazebag	a sordid or despicable person, especially someone considered morally reprehensible
194	sleep mode	in computer jargon, a state of a computer system in which only those parts of it needed to respond to some external stimulus and return the remainder to full operational status are supplied with electrical power
195	snail mail	a mocking or sarcastic slang term for the ordinary postal system, emphasizing its slowness compared to electronic mail; a communication sent by conventional post
196	social cleansing	the removal of an identified social group regarded as undesirable
197	software agent	computer programs which are commonly referred to
198	software piracy	the systematic illegal copying of computer software for financial gain
199	sound bite	a shot, pithy extract from a recorded interview, speech, or discussion, used for maximum punchiness as part of a news or party-political broadcast; also, a one liner deliberately produced to be used in this way
200	speed bump	a transverse ridge in the road to control the speed of vehicles
201	speed camera	a roadside camera, triggered by speeding vehicles, which takes either video footage or a photograph of the offending vehicle with a record of its speed
202	speed hump	a transverse ridge in the road to control the speed of vehicles
203	spell-check	the practice, among audience members at a rock concert, of jumping from the stage to be caught and carried aloft by the crowd below
204	spin doctor	a senior political spokesperson employed to promote a favorable interpretation of events to journalists
205	sport tourism	the organization and operation of holidays for people who wish to dedicate their holidays to becoming or remaining fit
206	sports bar	In the US: a bar where non-stop televised sport is shown.

No.	Compound	Meaning
207	spree killer	a person who kills in a sudden, random, and apparently unpremeditated and motiveless manner, especially one who kills a number of people at a single location in such an attack
208	stakeholder economy	an economy in which every member of a society has an interest in its economic progress
209	stealth bra	in the US, a protective device to be fitted over the bodywork for the front of a car
210	steampunk	a subgenre of science fiction set in an industrialized, nineteenth-century society
211	step aerobics	a type of aerobics involving stepping up on to and down from a portable block
212	street style	a style inspired by contemporary urban culture
213	swagger portrait	a commissioned portrait of a prominent or wealthy person intended to represent the sister's role, power, or status
214	swingbeat	a form of dance music combining elements of rhythm and blues, soul, hip-hop, and rap music
215	tape streamer	the system was based on a cassette tape
216	technology transfer	offices whose purpose is to put researchers in touch with organization which can commercialize their discoveries and which help negotiate licensing agreements
217	technology transfer office	a repository offering a wide selection of goods for sale at discounted prices to members of a club
218	three-peat	a third success in a particular championship or other event, especially the third of three consecutive wins
219	thrillcraft	any of various types of recreational water vehicles, used in exciting or dangerous water sports, and capable of high speeds
220	tone dialing	a system of telephone dialing, in which each digit is transmitted as a short burst of a single audio frequency
221	tough love	care and concern expressed by encouraging a person to give up certain behaviors, take responsibility for themselves, and seek self-help

No.	Compound	Meaning
222	towelhead	a derogatory slang expression for a person who wears a headcloth or turban
223	toyboy	in British slang: an attractive young man is kept as a lover by an older person
224	traffic calming	the deliberate slowing of traffic, especially along residential streets, by the construction of road humps or other obstacles to progress
225	trainspotter	in British slang: a derogatory term for an obsessive follower of any minority interest or specialized hobby
226	tree house	tree house
227	tree hugger	a (chiefly derogatory) term for an environmental campaigner
228	trip hop	a form of dance music combining elements for hip-hop which softer, more ambient sounds, special effects, and allusive lyrics
229	trophy wife	a derogatory expression for a wife regarded as a status symbol for her husband
230	turf war	a dispute over territory between rival groups or departments
231	urban legend	an unverifiable and usually apocryphal anecdote of some aspect of modern life, widely recounted as if true, which has acquired the status of folklore
232	vision thing	a political view encompassing the longer term as distinct from short-term campaign objectives *compounding-the thing required is vision for the future
233	voice mail	a system for electronically storing, processing, and reproducing verbal messages left through the conventional telephone network, or transmitted through a digital computer network
234	voluntary simplicity	a person who makes a change of career or lifestyle to a mode that is less pressured and demanding
235	waitperson	a person who serve a visitor to a restaurant

No.	Compound	Meaning
236	warehouse club	a form of water sport in which participant ride on a short, wide board or wakeboard, resembling a surfboard, towed by a motorized craft
237	water birth	a form of children birth in which the mother is supported in a specially designed pool or tub so that the child is delivered into the water
238	white information	financial information indicating that a person is creditworthy
239	wind farm	a group of energy-producing windmills or wind turbines
240	wise use	Especially in the US: environment policy promoting a controlled use of natural resources
241	wolf-dog	a dog which is a hybrid between a wolf and a dog
242	work shadowing	the process of accompanying and observing a person at work, for training or research purposes
243	workgroup	a group of workers engaged in a series of specialized or collaborative tasks who share and process information by means of linked computers
244	wormhole	a concept in cosmology describing a 'tunnel' which might form under certain circumstances to connect two places which are separate either in time or in space
245	year out	a period of one academic year taken as a break from formal educational by a student between leaving school and taking up a place at college or university

APPENDIX D

List of English Lexical Blends

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
1	abortuary	abort + mortuary	a clinic which abortions are carried out
2	abzyme	antibody + enzyme	an antibody that has been altered to give it some of the properties of enzyme * formed by combining the a and b of antibody with the last syllable of enzyme
3	aquacise	aqua + exercise	physical exercise carried out in shallow water
4	automagically	automatically + magically	in informal usage, concerning an automatic process, especially in computing, which is sufficiently complex or incomprehensible that it appears to happen by magic
5	banoffi	banana + toffee	Designating any of various desserts consisting of bananas and soft toffee (made with caramelized condensed milk)
6	cambozola	Camembert + Gorgonzola	the trademark of a type of German blue cheese with a Camembert-like-rind, produced using Gorgonzola blue mould * formed from the first element of Camembert and the final element of Gorgonzola
7	docutainment	documentary + entertainment	a documentary intended to entertain as well as inform

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
8	edutainment	education + entertainment	entertainment with an educational aspect; material intended to entertain and to inform
9	emoticon	emotion + icon	a shorthand representation of a smiling face formed from text characters
10	floptical	floppy + optical	the trademark of a type of floppy disk in which the position of the heads is accurately controlled by a separate optical track, thereby permitting a much higher storage capacity
11	feminazi	feminist + Nazi	a contemptuous term for a radical feminist
12	grebo	greaser + dumbo	a British urban youth cult favouring heavy metal and punk rock music, and long hair
13	himbo	him + bimbo	in slang, a man whose main asset is good looks
14	horsiculture	horse + agriculture	the commercial development of farmland or open countryside such as wildflower meadows for the pasturing or exercising of horses
15	infotainment	information + entertainment	broadcast material which is intended to entertain and to inform
16	intertext	intermediate + text	language or text which is intermediate in sharing the features of two different language forms, or intermediary in its relation to the reader and the text, as a commentary or exegesis
17	Japanimation	Japan + animation	animated cartoons produced in Japan

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
18	medicide	medicine + suicide	doctor-assisted suicide
19	Mockney	mock + Cockney	a form or speech perceived as an inauthentic and affected imitation of Cockney in accent and vocabulary (Mockney speech/ Mockney accent)
20	netizen	net + citizen	a person belonging to the community of network users, particularly those connected to the internet
21	nutraceutical	nutrition + pharmaceutical	a food containing health-promoting additives, a functional food adj. relating to, or designing nutraceutical
22	Orimulsion	Orinoco + emulsion	the proprietary name for an emulsion of bitumen in water, which is used as a fuel *Orinoco: the bitumen was originally extracted from the Orinoco oil belt in Venezuela
23	ribozyme	ribonucleic + enzyme	a type of ribonucleic acid which is capable of acting as an enzyme
24	Romo	romantic + modernist	a 1990s revival of the New Romantic movement in pop music (romantic modernism)
25	squarial	square + aerial	a proprietary name for a type of flat diamond-shaped aerial for receiving satellite television broadcasts
26	swaption	swap + option	the right to enter into a swap contract at preset rates at an agreed future date
27	sysop	system + operator	the system operator of a computer bulletin

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
28	telnet	telecommunication + network	a protocol used in TCP/IP networks which allows the user of one computer to log in to another computer, esp. remotely via the internet; also: a program that establishes a connection from one computer to another by means of such a protocol; a link thus established.
29	twigloo	twig + igloo	a form of temporary shelter made of branches and used especially by environmental protesters
30	Unabomber	university + bomber	the media name given to the perpetrator of a series of mail bomb attacks, carried out in America between 1978 and 1994 (the unabomber is a bomber)
31	urgicenter	urgent + center	an emergency clinic, an emergicenter
32	vegelate	vegetable + chocolate	chocolate which contains a certain proportion of vegetable fat other than cocoa butter
33	voxel	volume + pixel	a point in a computer representation of a three-dimensional space containing a numerical value representing some property of the point
34	watercise	water + exercise	an exercise in water
35	anecdata	anecdotal + data	information or evidence based on reports of individual cases rather than systematic research or analysis; anecdotal evidence

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
36	alcopop	alcoholic + pop	a carbonated, often fruit-flavoured drink containing alcohol
37	babelicious	babe + delicious	of a person, especially a young woman: extremely sexy
38	docusoup	documentary + soap opera	a television genre consisting of (actual or semi-staged) unscripted footage of people going about their ordinary lives and works; it combines the actuality of the fly-on-the-wall documentary with the developing story-line of the soap opera
39	intermercial	internet + commercial	an advertisement published via the internet
40	internaut	internet + astronaut	an (expert or habitual) user of the internet
41	netizen	net + citizen	a person belonging to the community of network users, particularly those connected to the internet
42	poptastic	pop + fantastic	denoting fantastically good pop music, or an atmosphere or background associated with this
43	bromance	bro + romance	intimate and affectionate friendship between men; a relationship between two men which is characterized by this; also: a film focusing on such a relationship
44	burkini	burka + bikini	a type of swimsuit for women which covers the head and body,

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
			typically leaving only the hands, feet, and face exposed, and which is intended to respect Islamic traditions of modesty in dress
45	brinicle	brine + icicle	a long, tapering tube of ice formed around a plume of very cold, hypersaline seawater, typically descending from a developing ice sheet towards the sea floor
46	craftivism	craft + activism	the practice of creating and displaying handmade objects, esp. items incorporating knitted or sewn text or imagery, to promote a political message or raise awareness of a social issue
47	cannabutter	cannabis + butter	butter infused with cannabis, used as an ingredient in cannabis edibles such as cookies and brownies
48	commentariat	commentary + proletariat	the news media, viewed as a mass or class of people; spec. the elite members of the political news media, as a class
49	chillax	chill + relax	to calm down and relax; to take it easy, to chill
50	cybrarian	cyber + librarian	a person who is practiced at finding information on the internet on behalf of others, or who compiles or administers a library of reference material online
51	Clintonomics	Clinton + economics	he economic policies of President Clinton.

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
52	crunk	crazy + drunk	U.S. slang; chiefly in the context of hip-hop: exciting or fun; (of a person) extremely energized or excite
53	chugger	charity + mugger	a charity worker who raises funds by approaching people in the street, usually seeking to set up regular contributions via bank transfer rather than asking for an immediate cash donation.
54	eatertainment	eat + entertainment	experience which combines eating with entertainment; spec. the sector of the restaurant industry comprising restaurant chains based on an entertainment theme, such as sport, music, or film
55	fauxhawk	faux + Mohawk	a hairstyle resembling a Mohawk (Mohawk n. 4), in which the hair is styled upwards in a strip running from the front to the back of the head but the sides of the head remain unshaven.
56	freegan	free + vegan	of or relating to the practice of eating discarded food, typically collected from the refuse of shops or restaurants, for ethical or ecological reasons
57	flexitarian	flexible + vegetarian	a person who follows a primarily but not strictly vegetarian diet
58	flexecutive	flexible + executive	a professional whose use of information technology offers flexible employment

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
			opportunities; a telecommuter; also: a person, frequently a freelancer, who holds a variety of jobs, either simultaneously or successively
59	freemium	free + premium	originally: an incentive, such as a free gift, given by a business in order to persuade customers to pay for other goods or services (rare).
60	gengineer	genetically + engineer	to produce, develop, or alter through genetic engineering
61	glam-ma	glamour + grandma	a glamorous grandmother, esp. one who is relatively young or fashion-conscious; also used as a form of address
62	glamping	glamour + camping	a form of camping that involves accommodation and facilities more luxurious than those associated with traditional camping
63	grrrl	grrr + girl	a young woman perceived as strong or aggressive, esp. in her attitude to men or in her expression of feminine independence and sexuality
64	haterade	hater + gatorade	a notional drink that engenders or embodies feelings of hatred, negativity, or resentment; chiefly as part of an extended metaphor, esp. in <i>to drink (also sip, etc.) the haterade</i> ; also, simply: excessive or unwarranted hatred, resentment, or criticism

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
65	hacktivism	hack + activism	the practice of gaining unauthorized access to computer files or networks in order to further social or political ends
66	irritainment	irritate + entertainment	broadcast material which is irritating yet still entertaining; irritating entertainment
67	Jafaican	Jamaican + fake	a non-Jamaican person who adopts or identifies with aspects of Jamaican culture, esp. in a way regarded as contrived or inauthentic
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - that imitates or is influenced by Jamaican culture - also: of or relating to a variety of English originally and chiefly associated with young people in the multicultural neighbourhoods of inner-city London, partially influenced by Jamaican Creole
68	jeggings	jeans + leggings	tight-fitting stretch leggings for women, styled to resemble a pair of denim jeans
69	lactivist	lactation + activist	a passionate advocate of (exclusive) breastfeeding as the preferred means to feed a baby
70	listicle	list + article	a journalistic article or other piece of writing presented wholly or partly in the form of a list
71	masstige	mass + prestige	a class of mass-produced, relatively inexpensive goods

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
			which are marketed as luxurious or prestigious
72	machinima	Machine + cinema	the practice or technique of producing animated films using the graphics engine from a video game; also: a film produced in this way; such films as a genre.
73	Meritage	merit + heritage	any of various wines of high quality produced exclusively in the United States from blends of Bordeaux grape varieties
74	militician	military + politician	in western Africa (originally and esp. in Nigeria): a politician who, though maintaining an outward display of democracy, is strongly associated with or actively supported by a military establishment, and typically gained power through military force
75	murderabilia	murder + memorabilia	objects connected with a murder, esp. a notorious one, treated as collectable items.
76	Oatrim	oat + trim	a gel-like substance derived from hydrolysed oat starch, which consists mainly of dextrin, contains a relatively high proportion of soluble fiber in the form of beta-glucan, and is used as a fat substitute, thickener, or stabilizer in various food products

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
77	precariat	precarious + proletariat	people whose employment, income, and living standards are insecure or precarious; such people considered collectively as a social class
78	picon	picture + icon	an icon representing a short sequence of film, used in digital editing or archiving
79	racino	racetrack + casino	a building complex or grounds having a racetrack and gambling facilities traditionally associated with casinos, such as slot machines, blackjack, roulette, etc.
80	promposal	prom + proposal	an invitation to be someone's date to a school prom; esp. one which is elaborately staged, filmed, and made available on social media for others to view
81	prebuttal	pre- + rebuttal	a statement made in anticipation of a criticism or question; a pre-emptive rebuttal
82	phablet	phone + tablet	a very large smartphone having a touch screen which is intermediate in size between that of a standard smartphone and that of a tablet computer.
83	puggle	pug + beagle	a dog cross-bred from a pug and a beagle; such dogs considered collectively as a breed
84	quillow	quilt + pillow	a quilt that can be folded into an attached pocket to form a pillow

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
85	robug	robot + bug	a small insect-like robot capable of movement over uneven or vertical surfaces
86	slacktivism	slack + activism	actions performed via the internet in support of a political or social cause (e.g., signing an online petition), characterized as requiring little time, effort, or commitment, or as providing more personal satisfaction than public impact
87	skeezy	skeevy + sleazy	slovenly, distasteful, sleazy; disreputable or immoral, esp. sexually
88	sharrow	share + arrow	a road marking in the form of two inverted V-shapes above a bicycle, indicating which part of a road should be used by cyclists when the roadway is shared with motor vehicles
89	shoppertainment	shopper + entertainment	the provision of entertainment or leisure facilities within or alongside a retail store or shopping centre, as part of a marketing strategy designed to attract customers; the entertainment or facilities provided in this way
90	sext	sex + text	a sexually explicit or suggestive message or image sent electronically, typically using a mobile phone

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
91	synthespian	synthetic + thespian	a computer-generated character in a film
92	schlockey	schlock + hockey	a two-player game, typically played outdoors, in which participants use a stick to push a disc or puck through an open-top box which has been divided into compartments to resemble a hockey pitch
93	taikonaut	<i>tai kong</i> outer space + astronaut	a Chinese astronaut
94	tenderpreneur	tender + entrepreneur	a person who uses his or her political connections to secure government contracts and tenders for personal advantage
95	Trustafarian	trust fund + Rastafarian	a wealthy young (usually white) person with a bohemian lifestyle, typically one who adopts aspects of the appearance and culture of other ethnic groups, esp. Rastafarians, and who lives in or frequents a fashionable, multicultural area.
96	Ullans	Ulster + Lallans	Ulster Scots
97	voluntourism	volunteer + tourism	tourism in which travellers spend time doing voluntary work on development projects, usually for a charity
98	webliography	web + bibliography	a list (either printed or online) of electronic works or documents relating to a particular topic

No.	Lexical Blends	Source words	Meaning
90	webisode	web + episode	an episode or instalment of a drama or comedy series, which is made available online rather than being broadcast on television; sometimes also: a stand-alone (commercially produced) video made available in this way
100	zir	ze + hir	used as a gender-neutral third person singular objective pronoun, corresponding to the subjective pronoun <i>ze</i>