

COMPARISON OF THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS IN PATANI MALAY AND THAI

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the structure of words in Patani Malay and Thai to determine the similarities and differences in the marker of the two languages through contrastive analysis studies. The data used in this study were collected from Patani Malay speakers who are able to speak the language well. They can tell stories or explain something with their language and still use it in daily life. The informants are students, teachers, merchants, fishermen, farmers, and retirees. This study indicates that the structure of words in Patani Malay and Thai has similarities and differences in rules. The equation includes the addition of affixes, compounding, and reduplication. The differences in the rule of the word in Patani Malay and Thai include the position of affixation, reduplication of the root and assigning an “emphatic high tone”, and semantic reduplication.

Keywords: contrastive analysis; Patani Malay; affixation; compounding; reduplication

Introduction

Language has a very important role in human life, including social life, government, work, and home (Miller, 2002). In the southern border provinces of Thailand, which consist of Pattani, Yala, Narathiwat, and four districts in Songkla (Chana, Thepa, Nathawi, and Sabayoi), 83% of the people speak local Malay (Premsrirat et al., 2004). Nowadays, although Patani Malay is the main language used in the daily life of the local people in southern border provinces, it acts as a spoken local language that is distinguished from

Thailand's official language. In 1992, the central government enacted compulsory education legislation, forcing all youth to attend ordinary schools certified by the Ministry of Education in which Thai, the official language, is used as the medium of information. As a result, more and more local people learnt Thai. Some people have become bilingual in both Patani Malay and Thai.

A language situation survey was carried out in 2007 (Premsrirat et al., 2008) among 1,255 Patani Malay speakers in Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat provinces to provide a clearer understanding of the language use, language ability, and language attitudes of the speakers in the area. Patani Malay is the most commonly used language in daily life, while a mixed language incorporating elements of Patani Malay and Standard Thai is second, followed by Standard Thai as the third.

Even though some Patani Malay speakers use Thai in daily life, they face the influential language of Patani Malay in some ways. Difficulties of learning a language are the many differences in the linguistic system of the first language (L1) to the second language (L2). The influence of Patani Malay is very strong in learning Thai. The primary approach used to study L1 interference was developed and practised by Lado (1957). He states that the same element in the mother tongue and a second language will greatly support second language learning. Conversely, different elements will certainly make it difficult for students. Furthermore, Cummins (1980) believes that in the course of learning one language, a child acquires a set of skills and implicit metalinguistic knowledge that can be drawn upon when working in another language. Therefore, the comparison of Patani Malay and Thai becomes important to find out the similarities and differences in the elements of the two languages. This comparison is known as a contrastive analysis effort.

Contrastive analysis is the comparison of the linguistic system of two or more languages and is based on the main difficulties in learning a new language caused by interference from the first language. Contrastive analysis is based on the following assumptions: (1) the main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language or "language transfer"; (2) such difficulties can be identified by the contrastive analysis; and (3) teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to eliminate the interference effects (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

In the 1950s and 1960s, contrastive analysis underwent a period of rapid development and expansion, particularly in the United States where the first systematic and extensive formulation of the contrastive analysis was proposed by Lado's (1957) *Linguistics Across Cultures*. In this book, Lado (1957) claimed that "those elements which are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult" (p. 2).

Furthermore, Firbas (1992) asserts that the contrastive method is a useful heuristic tool capable of throwing valuable light on the characteristic features of the contrasted languages. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), contrastive analysis focuses on the comparison of the linguistic systems of the two languages, especially the sound and grammar systems of L1 and L2, to find solutions to second language instruction

problems. In addition, Jie (2008) states “contrastive analysis stresses the influence of the mother tongue in learning a second language in phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic levels. It holds that the second language would be affected by the first language” (p. 36). Moreover, contrastive analysis is a method to distinguish between what is needed and not needed to learn by the target language (TL) learner through evaluating languages (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Aarts (1982) distinguishes 10 assumptions underlying the contrastive analysis hypothesis held until the middle of the 1960s. Details about these assumptions are as follows:

1. Language learning is a habit formation issue.
2. Students of a foreign language transfer the items, categories, and structures of their native language to the target language. This means that their old habits may interfere with their learning task.
3. Interference occurs at each aspect of linguistic structure (phonological, syntactic, and semantic) and influences both language production and perception.
4. Both similarities and dissimilarities between the target language and the native language of the learner can be pinpointed by comparison.
5. A systematic comparison could not be reached unless the target language and the native language of the learner are scientifically described within the same theoretical framework.
6. Only equivalent sub-systems can be compared.
7. Dissimilarities between the native language and the target language cause difficulty in L2 learning, while similarities do not. The difficulty is the sum of the dissimilarities.
8. With the result of CA, L2 learning difficulties can be predicted.
9. Difficulties could be positioned in hierarchies according to how divergent the two languages are.
10. To discover dissimilarities is the task of linguists while to develop efficient teaching materials is the task of textbook writers.

Contrastive research in Thai was previously conducted by Thep-Ackrapong (2005), who studies the influence of Thai language lexicons in writing English. The findings of the study show that Thai students violate some collocation restrictions when writing in English such as “My hair is busy” (My hair is messy), “I play a computer” (I work on a computer). Such violation is caused by the direct translation of Thai words into English. In addition, Pongpairoj (2002) investigates lexical errors in paragraphs written by students. The findings of the study show that the Thai preposition “on” is used in English sentences such as “there are birds on the sky.” (There are birds in the sky). The Thai number in a plural form is used in English sentences such as “The room was full of furnitures.” The word “furniture” in Thai is a countable noun while in English, it is a mass noun. These violations show that the students fail to acquire competence in the English lexicon.

Furthermore, Likitrattanaporn (2002) discusses grammatical errors in writing English paragraphs and essays by third-year students majoring in accounting and marketing. The findings of the study show that a majority of written work is full of direct translation from Thai into English sentences, such as “I made the English homework.” The other grammar points are using Thai nouns, for example, “We ate chicken fried.” and the ellipsis of English articles, which are not found in Thai such as “I want to buy car.” For Patani Malay and Thai contrastive research, Wacharasukhum (2012) investigates the issue of Thai language use among Malay ethnic students in the southern border provinces of Thailand, which builds on earlier Patani Malay and Thai studies. The findings indicate that intonation and spelling tones provide the biggest challenges for Patani Malay speakers. However, no previous research comparing Thai and Patani Malay word structures has been conducted.

According to the background explanation, contrastive analysis is a comparison of the linguistic systems of the two languages and finding solutions to second language instruction problems. The difficulties in learning a language are connected to the significant differences between first and second-language linguistic systems. The Patani Malay language has a significant impact on Thai learning. Furthermore, none of the research conducted in contrastive analysis has revealed the similarities and differences in the word structure of Patani Malay and Thai. Thus, through contrastive analysis studies, this study investigates the structure of words in Patani Malay and Thai to determine the similarities and differences in the markers of the two languages.

Literature Review

Patani Malay

Previous research on Patani Malay phonemes includes the works of Chotikakamthorn (1981), Intrachat (1984), and Krisnapan (1985). They discovered outcomes in consonant and vowel phonemes. There are 30 consonant phonemes of Patani Malay /p/ /t/, /c/, /k/, /ʔ/, /p^h/, /t^h/, /c^h/, /k^h/, /b/, /d/, /ʃ/, /g/, /f/, /s/, /h/, /z/, /ʎ/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /ŋ^l/, m^b/, /n^d/, /n^j/, /ŋ^g/, /l/, /r/, /y/, /w/ in which all of them can occur as initial consonants and only 3 of them /h/, /ŋ/, /ʔ/ can occur as final consonants. There are 18 vowel phonemes: /i, ī, e, ε, ē, u, ā, u, ũ, o, ɔ, ɔ̃, ạ, a̤, ḁ, a̧, ą, a̩, a̪, a̫, a̬, a̭, a̮, a̯, a̰, a̱, a̲, a̳, a̴, a̵, a̶, a̷, a̸, a̹, a̺, a̻, a̼, a̽, a̾, a̿, a̽̄, a̽̅, a̽̆, a̽̇, a̽̈, a̽̉, a̽̊, a̽̋, a̽̌, a̽̍, a̽̎, a̽̏, a̽̐, a̽̑, a̽̒, a̽̓, a̽̔, a̽̕, a̖̽, a̗̽, a̘̽, a̙̽, a̽̚, a̛̽, a̜̽, a̝̽, a̞̽, a̟̽, a̠̽, a̡̽, a̢̽, ạ̽, a̤̽, ḁ̽, a̦̽, a̧̽, ą̽, a̩̽, a̪̽, a̫̽, a̬̽, a̭̽, a̮̽, a̯̽, a̰̽, a̱̽, a̲̽, a̳̽, a̴̽, a̵̽, a̶̽, a̷̽, a̸̽, a̹̽, a̺̽, a̻̽, a̼̽, a̽̽, a̽̾, a̽̿, a̽̽̄, a̽̽̅, a̽̽̆, a̽̽̇, a̽̽̈, a̽̽̉, a̽̽̊, a̽̽̋, a̽̽̌, a̽̽̍, a̽̽̎, a̽̽̏, a̽̽̐, a̽̽̑, a̽̽̒, a̽̽̓, a̽̽̔, a̽̽̕, a̖̽̽, a̗̽̽, a̘̽̽, a̙̽̽, a̽̽̚, a̛̽̽, a̜̽̽, a̝̽̽, a̞̽̽, a̟̽̽, a̠̽̽, a̡̽̽, a̢̽̽, ạ̽̽, a̤̽̽, ḁ̽̽, a̦̽̽, a̧̽̽, ą̽̽, a̩̽̽, a̪̽̽, a̫̽̽, a̬̽̽, a̭̽̽, a̮̽̽, a̯̽̽, a̰̽̽, a̱̽̽, a̲̽̽, a̳̽̽, a̴̽̽, a̵̽̽, a̶̽̽, a̷̽̽, a̸̽̽, a̹̽̽, a̺̽̽, a̻̽̽, a̼̽̽, a̽̽̽, a̽̽̾, a̽̽̿, a̽̽̽̄, a̽̽̽̅, a̽̽̽̆, a̽̽̽̇, a̽̽̽̈, a̽̽̽̉, a̽̽̽̊, a̽̽̽̋, a̽̽̽̌, a̽̽̽̍, a̽̽̽̎, a̽̽̽̏, a̽̽̽̐, a̽̽̽̑, a̽̽̽̒, a̽̽̽̓, a̽̽̽̔, a̽̽̽̕, a̖̽̽̽, a̗̽̽̽, a̘̽̽̽, a̙̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̚, 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a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̏, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̐, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̑, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̒, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̓, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̔, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̕, a̖̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̗̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̘̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̙̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̚, a̛̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̜̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̝̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̞̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̟̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̠̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̡̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̢̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ạ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̤̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ḁ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̦̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̧̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ą̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̩̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̪̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̫̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̬̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̭̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̮̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̯̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̰̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̱̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̲̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̳̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̴̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̵̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̶̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̷̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̸̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̹̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̺̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̻̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̼̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̾, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̿, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̄, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̅, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̆, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̇, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̈, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̉, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̊, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̋, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̌, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̍, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̎, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̏, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̐, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̑, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̒, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̓, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̔, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̕, a̖̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̗̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̘̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̙̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̚, a̛̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̜̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̝̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̞̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̟̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̠̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̡̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̢̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ạ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̤̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ḁ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̦̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̧̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ą̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̩̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̪̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̫̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̬̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̭̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̮̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̯̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̰̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̱̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̲̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̳̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̴̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̵̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̶̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̷̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̸̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̹̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̺̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̻̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̼̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̾, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̿, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̄, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̅, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̆, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̇, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̈, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̉, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̊, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̋, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̌, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̍, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̎, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̏, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̐, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̑, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̒, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̓, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̔, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̕, a̖̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̗̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̘̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̙̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̚, a̛̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̜̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̝̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̞̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̟̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̠̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̡̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̢̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ạ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̤̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ḁ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̦̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̧̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ą̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̩̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̪̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̫̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̬̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̭̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̮̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̯̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̰̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̱̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̲̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̳̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̴̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̵̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̶̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̷̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̸̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̹̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̺̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̻̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̼̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̾, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̿, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̄, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̅, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̆, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̇, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̈, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̉, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̊, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̋, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̌, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̍, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̎, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̏, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̐, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̑, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̒, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̓, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̔, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̕, a̖̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̗̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̘̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̙̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̚, a̛̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̜̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̝̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̞̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̟̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̠̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̡̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̢̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ạ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̤̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ḁ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̦̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̧̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ą̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̩̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̪̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̫̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̬̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̭̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̮̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̯̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̰̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̱̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̲̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̳̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̴̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̵̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̶̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̷̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̸̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̹̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̺̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̻̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̼̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̾, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̿, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̄, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̅, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̆, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̇, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̈, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̉, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̊, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̋, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̌, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̍, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̎, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̏, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̐, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̑, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̒, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̓, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̔, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̕, a̖̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̗̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̘̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̙̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̚, a̛̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̜̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̝̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̞̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̟̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̠̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̡̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̢̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ạ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̤̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ḁ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̦̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̧̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ą̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̩̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̪̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̫̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̬̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̭̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̮̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̯̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̰̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̱̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̲̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̳̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̴̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̵̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̶̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̷̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̸̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̹̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̺̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̻̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̼̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̾, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̿, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̄, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̅, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̆, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̇, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̈, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̉, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̊, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̋, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̌, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̍, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̎, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̏, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̐, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̑, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̒, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̓, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̔, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̕, a̖̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̗̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̘̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̙̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̚, a̛̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̜̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̝̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̞̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̟̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̠̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̡̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a̢̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, ạ̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽̽, a

words, and phrases. Furthermore, Wacharasukhum (2012) expands on previous Patani Malay and Thai research to study the issue of Thai language use among Malay ethnic students on Thailand's southern border. The major challenge for Patani Malay speakers, Wacharasukhum (2012), is intonation and spelling tones in Thai. Thai language inflection is quite complex, including conditions relating to alphabet groups, long-short vowels, and final consonant sounds. These are not available in Patani Malay. Students who use Patani Malay as their first language have a poor capacity to analyse high-low tones.

Contrastive Analysis

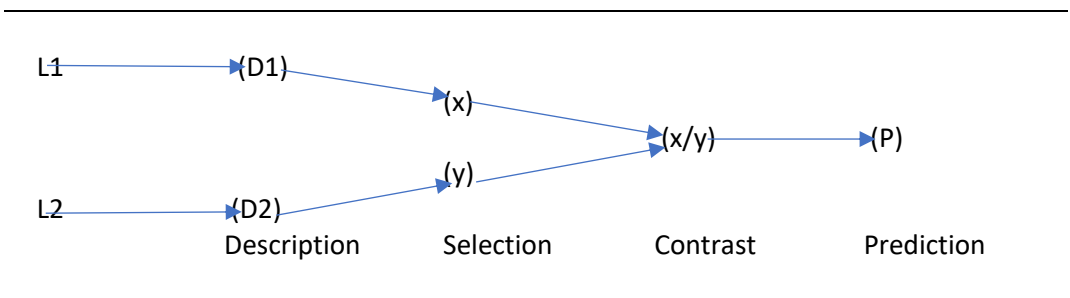
Contrastive analysis is the systematic study of a pair language with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Contrastive analysis, the primary approach used to study L1 interference, underwent a period of rapid development and expansion in the 1950s and 1960s, particularly in the United States where the first systematic and extensive formulation of the contrastive analysis hypothesis was proposed by Lado (1957) in linguistics across cultures. This article is regarded as having launched the contrastive analysis movement in language teaching. Lado (1957) believes that the degree of difference between the two languages also correlated with the degree of difficulty. Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, however, contrastive analysis was extensively practised in various European countries, particularly in Eastern European countries, and in the early 1990s, there were clear signs of renewed interest. Since then, the rapid development of automatic data processing and information technology has opened up new prospects for contrastive approaches through the potential of large corpora.

CAH [contrastive analysis hypothesis] claimed that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of first language system with the second language system, that a scientific, structural analysis of the two languages in question would yield a taxonomy of linguistic contrasts between them, which in turn would enable the linguist to predict the difficulties a learner would encounter. (Brown, 2000, p. 248)

The contrastive analysis is a linguistic approach that contrasts two or more languages in order to identify similarities and differences between them. The purpose is not only to better understand the languages but also to understand characteristics that might make language learning easier or more challenging for speakers of those languages. The contrastive analysis method involves comparing the phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics of two languages (James, 1998). By identifying the similarities and differences between these language systems, linguists can make predictions about which aspects of the target language will be easy or difficult for learners to acquire. One of the key assumptions of contrastive analysis is that language transfer occurs when a learner applies knowledge from their first language to their second language. Language transfer is generally divided into two main categories: positive and negative. According to Gass

and Selinker (2008), positive transfer results in correct utterances and facilitates language learning. Basically, the learner's L1 might facilitate L2 learning. Lado (1957) asserts, "The basic premise of CA [contrastive analysis] hypothesis is that language learning can be more successful when the two languages – the native and the foreign – are similar" (p. 158). Nevertheless, negative transfer results in incorrect outcomes. It results in deviations from the target language. Whitman (1970) breaks down contrastive analysis processes into a series of component procedures. The procedure for this approach is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1
The Four Procedures of Contrastive Analysis



The four steps are: 1) taking the two languages, L1 and L2, and writing formal descriptions of them; 2) picking forms from descriptions for the contrast; 3) making a contrast of forms chosen; and 4) making a prediction of difficulty through the contrast. To describe the prediction stage, Stockwell et al. (1965) propose a hierarchy of difficulty based on the notion of transfer (negative, positive, and zero). When the structures of the given two languages are similar, a positive transfer will occur, while with those that are different, a negative transfer will take place. When there is no relation between those structures of the two languages, zero transfer will occur.

Methodology

Data on Patani Malay Language were collected from the Patani Malay speakers who are fluent in Patani Malay. Their age range is from 18 to 70 years old because young and older people are able to provide enough data on language. They are able to remember most Patani Malay vocabulary and communicate with others on various topics. They are also able to tell stories or explain using their language and still speak it in daily life. The 15 informants were divided into three groups of five people each as following: (1) students are studying at Prince of Songkla, Pattani campus; (2) workers who routinely work as merchants, fishermen, and farmers and never move else to spend time in their lives; and (3) retirees who are over the age of 60. They are Pattani people who have been living in

the area since they were young, and fluently speak Pattani Malay as their daily language, and they speak it well.

This study was conducted according to the guidelines as approved by the Research Ethics Committee of Mahidol University (13 September 2020). Aside from that, during the interviews, the guidelines approved by the supervisor and the Mahidol University Research Ethics Committee are followed. The interviews were conducted at a date and time, and also a place comfortable to the interviewees. Before starting the interview, the researcher explained the objective of the study and asked for permission to record the interview and take notes. For recording, the researcher used SONY ICD SX45 digital recording, and subsequently transferred the audio data to a notebook computer for checking and transcription. During the interview, the researcher gave freedom to the interviewees to answer questions and express their ideas. The time for each interview was around 40-50 minutes. The conversation and talk were recorded without the awareness of the sample groups, which were commonly used in their everyday life.

For the interview content, there are three domains of question. The students were asked to talk about their family and the subject they were studying. The working group was asked to talk about their family, their products for their business, fishing methods for fishermen, and how to grow crops for farmers. The retired group was asked them to talk about their family and life when they were young.

Data Analysis

The audio-recorded data were transcribed using the international phonetic alphabet with their meaning in English. In Microsoft Excel, the data are presented in a three-line format in this research as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Data Presentation and English Translation of the Patani Malay Language

Line 1	Phonetic transcription	<i>dijɔ</i>	<i>cɔmɛ</i>
Line 2	Gloss	she	beautiful
Line 3	Free English translation	'She is beautiful.'	

For data presentation, first, the researcher represented a word, phrase, clause, and sentence in Patani Malay in IPA phonetic transcription on line 1. Second, the researcher gave glosses, or the literal meaning, of each word that appears on line 2. Lastly, the researcher provided a relatively free English translation of the Patani Malay Language.

Findings and Discussion

This study examines how words are structured in Patani Malay and Thai. The most fundamental concept in the study of word structure is the “morpheme”. Nida (1949) defines morphemes as the minimal meaningful units that may constitute words or part of words. There are two types of morphemes which are free morphemes that can be pronounced by themselves. By contrast to a free morpheme, a bound morpheme can only be pronounced if it is tied to another morpheme (Nida, 1949; Thomas, 1993). A morpheme of Patani Malay and Thai is a free and bound morpheme. However, the basic unit of language is a word, which the Patani Malay and Thai words may be simple and complex.

For the concept of words, many scholars have assumed that “word” is a basic unit of language that has meaning (Lyons, 1968; Sapir, 1921; Thomas 1993). It is usually used for a unit that is written with space before and after it. They usually represent a useful compromise between phonetic and syntactic. Furthermore, Pike (1977) defines “word” as:

The smallest unit arrived at for some particular language as the most convenient type of grammatical entity to separate by spaces; in general, it constitutes one of those units of a particular language which actually or potentially may be pronounced by itself. (p. 89)

The data of word formation in Patani Malay and Thai are identified. Subsequently, the analysis of similarities and differences in the process of its formation and the following results were obtained.

The Equality of the Structure of Words in Patani Malay and Thai

Patani Malay and Thai grammatical rules have many similarities both in sentence structure, word formation, and phonological process. One of them is the basic sentence structure model, both Patani Malay and Thai languages can be formed by the subject-verb-object (SVO) model, for example, in the following sentences.

- | | | | | |
|-----|----------------------------|------------|---------------|----------------|
| (1) | <i>pɔʔ</i> | <i>gi</i> | <i>mmukaʔ</i> | (Patani Malay) |
| | father | go | fishing | |
| | “The father goes fishing.” | | | |
| (2) | <i>kháw</i> | <i>kin</i> | <i>khâaw</i> | (Thai) |
| | he | eat | rice | |
| | “He eats rice.” | | | |

The words of Patani Malay and Thai are fairly similar. These equations include the addition of affixes, compounding, and reduplication. Each of these equation rules will be explained.

The Addition of Affixation

In both Patani Malay and Thai, the structure of words can be formed by adding affixation to create new lexical items and give the result in a change of the word class of root. Affixes of Patani Malay include prefixes that appear before the root (e.g. /*bu-*/ in the word /*ʔumɔh*/ “house” becoming / *buʔumɔh*/ “to marry”) and suffixes that appear after the root (e.g. /*-mɛ*/ in the word /*minuŋ*/ “to drink” becoming /*minuŋmɛ*/ “beverage”), whereas in Thai, affixes can be also added to a root to create new lexical items and give the result in a change of the word class of root. Affixes of Thai include prefixes that appear before the root (e.g. *kaan-*, *khwaam-*) and suffixes that appear after the root to create abstract words. Suffixes in Thai are much rarer than prefixes as shown in the following detail.

When a noun is preceded by /*bu-*/ in Patani Malay, it changes from a noun to an intransitive verb (N→V_{itr}) as shown in the following examples.

- | | | | | |
|-----|------------------------|---|-----------------------------|----------------|
| (3) | <i>ʔaŋiŋ</i>
“wind” | → | <i>buʔaŋiŋ</i>
“to blow” | (Patani Malay) |
| (4) | <i>ʔapi</i>
“fire” | | <i>buʔapi</i>
“angry” | (Patani Malay) |

When a verb is preceded by /*pu-*/, it will change from verb to noun and conveys the meaning as the actor of an action (V→N) as follows:

- | | | | | |
|-----|---------------------------|---|----------------------------|----------------|
| (5) | <i>ŋaŋiŋ</i>
“to sing” | → | <i>puŋaŋiŋ</i>
“singer” | (Patani Malay) |
| (6) | <i>samuŋ</i>
“to rob” | | <i>pusamuŋ</i>
“robber” | (Patani Malay) |

When a verb has a suffix, it changes from a verb to an instrumental noun and abstract noun as follows:

- | | | | | |
|------|----------------------------|---|------------------------------|----------------|
| | instrumental nouns | | | |
| (7) | <i>make</i>
“to eat” | → | <i>makeŋɛ</i>
“food” | (Patani Malay) |
| (8) | <i>minuŋ</i>
“to drink” | | <i>minuŋmɛ</i>
“beverage” | (Patani Malay) |
| | abstract nouns | | | |
| (9) | <i>pike</i>
“to think” | → | <i>pikeɣɛ</i>
“thought” | (Patani Malay) |
| (10) | <i>keceʔ</i>
“to say” | | <i>keceʔpɛ</i>
“speaking” | (Patani Malay) |

The Thai prefix /*kaan-*/ is roughly equivalent to the gerund form of the verb in English as shown in the following examples.

- | | | | | |
|------|-------------------------|---|--------------------------------|--------|
| (11) | <i>wîŋ</i>
"run" | → | <i>kaanwîŋ</i>
"running" | (Thai) |
| (12) | <i>phûut</i>
"speak" | | <i>kaanphûut</i>
"speaking" | (Thai) |

The Thai suffix /-sàat/ is placed after the root to create abstract words as shown in the following examples.

- | | | | | |
|------|------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------|
| (13) | <i>phaasǎa</i>
"language" | → | <i>phaasǎasàat</i>
"linguistics" | (Thai) |
| (14) | <i>prawàt</i>
"story" | | <i>prawàtsàat</i>
"history" | (Thai) |

Compounding

One of the similarities in the structure of the words of Patani Malay and Thai is compounding, taking two or more free morphemes to create a new word. The meaning of the new free morpheme can be perceived from the sense of each morpheme. The rest of this section explains how a noun and verb are most commonly compounded.

Compound Noun

A compound noun consists of one or two simple nouns functioning as a single unit filled in the head noun slot of a noun phrase. A construction consisting of a noun followed by a noun resembles a noun phrase with a head noun and noun modifier. The following are more established compound nouns with "Noun +Noun", for example:

- | | | | |
|------|--|---------------------------------|----------------|
| (15) | <i>ʔaʔε</i>
water
"tear" | <i>matɔ</i>
eye | (Patani Malay) |
| (16) | <i>matɔ</i>
eye
"sun" | <i>hayi</i>
day | (Patani Malay) |
| (17) | <i>phɔ̄ɔ</i>
father
"parents" | <i>mêε</i>
mother | (Thai) |
| (18) | <i>phî</i>
older sibling
"sibling" | <i>nɔ̄ɔŋ</i>
younger sibling | (Thai) |

When a noun follows a verb in a compound, it often modifies the noun. The following are more established compound nouns with "Noun +Verb" as shown in the following examples:

(19)	<i>nasiʔ</i> rice “fried rice”	<i>goyɛŋ</i> fry	(Patani Malay)
(20)	<i>kappa</i> boat “airplane”	<i>tubɛ</i> fly	(Patani Malay)
(21)	<i>náam</i> water “waterfall”	<i>tòk</i> fall	(Thai)
(22)	<i>kwâaw</i> rice “fried rice”	<i>phàd</i> fry	(Thai)

A construction consisting of a noun followed by an adjective resembles a noun phrase with a head noun and adjective modifier. The following are more established compound nouns with “Noun +Adjective”, for example:

(23)	<i>baʃu</i> shirt “a red shirt”	<i>meyɔh</i> red	(Patani Malay)
(24)	<i>ɣumɔh</i> house “a big house”	<i>busa</i> big	(Patani Malay)
(25)	<i>tûu</i> cupboard “refrigerator”	<i>yen</i> cold	(Thai)
(26)	<i>náam</i> water “weight”	<i>nàk</i> heavy	(Thai)

Reduplication

Reduplication is one of the structures of the word that is similar in both Patani Malay and Thai. Reduplication refers to the morphological process of repeating a radical element or part of it. Reduplication is used to specialise or intensify the meaning of the base with a tendency to suggest plurality or emphasis. In Patani Malay and Thai, reduplication contractions can be divided into two main categories: repetitive and partial.

Partial Reduplication

Partial reduplication refers to a pair of morphemes or words whose member has been altered in some ways. Partial reduplication mainly has the effect of elaboration, providing stylistic features. In Patani Malay, partial reduplication refers to a pair of morphemes or words whose second member has been altered in some ways. A reduplication pair may be inseparable because each part of them does not have a clear meaning as shown in the following examples:

- (35) *kwana* → *kwana kwunε* (Patani Malay)
"know" "to know"
- (36) *make* → *make makɔŋ* (Patani Malay)
"eat" "to eat"

In Thai, a polysyllabic word is reduplicated with the first syllable intact, but the vowel of the second syllable changes. Examples are given below.

- (37) *sɔmtam* → *sɔmtɔŋ sɔmtam* (Thai)
"papaya salad" "papaya salad"
- (38) *sǎnyaa* → *sǎnyɔŋ sǎnyaa* or *sǎnyɨŋ sǎnyaa* (Thai)
"promise" "promise"

Differences in the Structure of Words in Patani Malay and Thai

The structure of words in Patani Malay and Thai are different in the addition of affixes and reduplication.

The Addition of Affixation

In Patani Malay, the structure of a word can be formed by adding an affix to a root to create new noun or verb lexical items. When a noun is preceded by */bɔw/* in Patani Malay, it will be changed from a noun to an intransitive verb (N→V_{itr}) as shown in the following example.

- (39) *ʔumɔh* → *bɔwʔumɔh* (Patani Malay)
"house" "to marry"
- (40) *ʔanɔʔ* → *bɔwʔanɔʔ* (Patani Malay)
"son daughter" "to give birth"

In contrast with Patani Malay, Thai affixes can be added into a root to create only new noun lexical items. The Thai prefix */kaan/* is roughly equivalent to the gerund form of the verb in English as shown in the following example.

- (41) *khǎan* → *kaan khǎan* (Thai)
 “write” “writing”

The Thai prefix /*khwaam*/ is roughly equivalent to the English suffix -ness as shown in the following example.

- (42) *rɛw* → *khwaamrɛw* (Thai)
 “quick” “quickness”

Affixes of Patani Malay include prefixes that appear before the root (e.g. /*bu-*/ in the word /*ʔumɔh*/ “house” becoming /*buʔumɔh*/ “to marry”) and suffixes which appear after the root (e.g. /-*mɛ*/ in the word /*minun*/ “to drink” becoming /*minunmɛ*/ “beverage”). In contrast to Patani Malay affixation, Thai affixes /*kaan*/ can appear both before and after the root. The Thai prefix /*kaan*/ is normally placed before the root to create the gerund form, but it can also be placed after the root to create new lexical items as shown in the following examples.

- (43) *phûut* → *kaanphûut* (Thai)
 “speak” “speaking”
- (44) *damnæn* → *damnænkaan* (Thai)
 “to proceed” “to carry on the work”

The Thai prefix /*mahǎa*/ “great” is placed before the root to create a new word whose meaning is very great as shown in the following examples. In contrast to Thai, Patani Malay is not the prefix that serves as the root for creating the new word which means “great”.

- (45) *nakhɔɔn* → *mahǎanakhɔɔn* (Thai)
 “city” “great city”
- (46) *witthayaalay* → *mahǎawitthayaalay* (Thai)
 “college” “university”

Reduplication

In Patani Malay, an adjective can be duplicated to emphasize the quality or the state of an adjective, for example:

- (47) *bwsa* → *bwsa bwsa* (Patani Malay)
 “big” “quite big”
- (48) *kwuciʔ* → *kwuciʔ kwuciʔ* (Patani Malay)
 “small” “quite small”

In contrast with Patani Malay, an adjective in Thai can be duplicated and assigned an “emphatic high tone”. This modified form is the first constituent of the reduplicated word and emphasises the meaning of the root as shown in the following examples.

- (49) *dii* → *dii dii* (Thai)
 “good” “very good”
- (50) *yâak* → *yâak yâak* (Thai)
 “difficult” “very difficult”

In semantic reduplication, some reduplicated Thai word is semantically identical to the root form but not phonologically similar, as shown in the following examples.

- (51) *săay* *ŋaam* → *săay ŋaam* (Thai)
 “beautiful” “beautiful” “beautiful”
- (52) *lék* *nóy* → *lék nóy* (Thai)
 “small” “a little” “small”

Conclusion

The result of this study reveals the similarities and differences between Patani Malay and Thai. These aspects are to be considered to become a learning concept that facilitates second language learning. Firstly, affixations can be used to produce new lexical items and change the word class of a root in both Patani Malay and Thai, resulting in changes to a word structure. Prefixes that come before the root (such as */buɣumɔh/* “to marry”, */pɯlawɛ/* “fighter”) and suffixes that come after the root (such as */makeŋɛ/* “food”, */minuŋmɛ/* “beverage”) are examples of affixes in Patani Malay, whereas, in Thai, affixes can be also added to a root to create new lexical items and change the word class of the root. In Thai, some prefixes that come before the root (e.g., */kaanrian/* “studying”, */khwaamdii/* “goodness”) and suffixes that come after the root to form abstract terms (e.g. */phaasăasàat/* “linguistics”, */sǎntìphâap/* “peace”). Nevertheless, in Thai, the same affixes can appear both before and after the root to produce new lexical items (e.g. */kaankhian/* “writing”, */kitcakaan/* “business”).

Secondly, partial reduplication and repetitive reduplication are the two basic forms of reduplication in Patani Malay and Thai. Partial reduplication refers to a pair of morphemes or words whose member has been altered in some ways (e.g., PM-*/kuna kɯnɛ/* “to know”, TH-*/sǎnyin sǎnyaa/* “promise”). Repetitive reduplication refers to the simple reduplication in which free words are repeated for plurality or emphasis (e.g., PM-*/budɔʔ budɔʔ/* “children” */busa busa/* “very big”; TH- */dek dek/* “children” */dii dii/* “very good”). However, there are a few differences in adjective repetitive reduplication in Thai that can be duplicated in the root and assign an “emphatic high tone,” which is characteristic of the Thai language. In addition, in semantic reduplication, some reduplicate Thai word is semantically identical to the root form, but does not phonologically resemble such as */săay/* “beautiful” */ŋaam/* “beautiful” */săay ŋaam/* “beautiful”.

Thirdly, the word structure of Patani Malay and Thai is compounding, taking two or more free morphemes to produce a new word, which is the meaning of the new free

morpheme that may be perceived from the sense of each morpheme. The most often compounded words in these two languages are nouns, verbs, and adjectives.

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