Thai English as a Variety

by

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ABSTRACT

This study is about Thai English (ThaiE), a variety of World Englishes that is presently spoken in Thailand, as the result of the spread of English and the recent Thai government policies towards English communication in Thailand. In the study, I examined the linguistic data of spoken ThaiE, collected from multiple sources both in the U.S.A. and Thailand.

The study made use of a qualitative approach in examining the data, which were from (i) English interviews and questionnaires with 12 highly educated Thai speakers of English during my fieldwork in the Southwestern U.S.A., Central Thailand, and Northeastern Thailand, (ii) English speech samples from the media in Thailand, i.e. television programs, a news report, and a talk radio program, and (iii) the research articles on English used by Thai speakers of English.

This study describes the typology of ThaiE in terms of its morpho-syntax, phonology, and sociolinguistics, with the main focus being placed on the structural characteristics of ThaiE. Based on the data, the results show that some of the ThaiE features are similar to the World Englishes features, but some are unique to ThaiE. Therefore, I argue that ThaiE is structurally considered a new variety of World Englishes at the present time.

The findings also showed an interesting result, regarding the notion of ThaiE by the fieldwork interview participants. The majority of these participants (n=6) denied the existence of ThaiE, while the minority of the participants (n=5) believed ThaiE existed, and one participant was reluctant to give the answer. The study suggested that the participants' academic backgrounds, the unfamiliar notion of ThaiE, and the level of the participants' social interaction with everyday persons may have influenced their answers to the main research question.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AEC	ASEAN Economic Community
A/Adj	adjective
AGR	argument
ASEAN	The Association of Southeast Asian Nations
C/COMP	complementizer
CAUS	causative
D/Det.	determiner
CLASS	classifier
DEM	demonstrative
DP	determiner phrase
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELC	English Language Complex
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
FB	Facebook
FEB	february
FEM	feminine
GEN	genitive

GNS	German native speaker
I	inflection
IPA	International Phonetic Alphabet
LF	logical form
LOC	locative
N	noun
NCl	noun-classifier order
NEG	negative
NES	native English speakers
NRel	noun-relative clause word order
NNES	nonnative English speakers
NP	noun phrase
OV	object-verb word order
PF	phonological form
POSS	possessive
P/Prep	preposition
PRO	null subject
PP	prepositional phrase
Prog	progressive

Rel	relative
S/SG	singular
Spec	specifier
SVO	subject-verb-object word order
TAM	tense/aspect/mood
TCT	The Tourism Council of Thailand
ThaiE	Thai English
Top	topic
Unasp.	unaspirated
V	verb
Vd.	voiced
Vl.	voiceless
VO	verb object
VP	verb phrase
WE	World Englishes
XOXO	hugs and kisses

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter comprises five sections. Essentially, Section 1.1 provides synopses

of this research: what is it about?, why was it studied?, and the methodology as to how I

went about conducting the study. Section 1.2 concerns the spread of English in which the

British Empire and the United States of America (U.S.A.) have brought about the

dissemination. Section 1.3 touches on the models of spoken English used in the world

and talks about the concentric and dynamic models. Section 1.4 addresses issues of

language variation, language change and language contact, and code-switching. Section

1.5 introduces the terminology pertinent to this dissertation research: World Englishes,

New Englishes, Postcolonial Englishes, Asian Englishes, and Thai English

1.1 This Dissertation Research

1.1.1 What do I study? This dissertation research examines if Thai English

(ThaiE) might be considered a variety of English in its own right, next to Asian

Englishes, such as Cambodian English, China English, Japanese English, Singapore

English, and so forth. In order to describe the linguistic features of ThaiE, the speech

data from several sources were investigated. Firstly, the primary speech data was

collected from a 2-month period of fieldwork, using survey questionnaires and digitally

recorded interviews with twelve highly educated ThaiE speakers in three geographical

locations: the Southwest United States, Central Thailand (Bangkok), and Northeastern Thailand. Secondly, the speech data from the secondary sources was derived from text samples of English language television news reports and radio programs that were broadcast in Thailand, and transcript excerpts of ThaiE speech data that were published in English academic journals. Under the framework of World Englishes (WE) (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008), the results of this study will show that ThaiE should probably be recognized as a new variety of Asian English in the modern world. Additionally, since research on ThaiE is less known to many, this dissertation research may one day serve as a call for further investigation into ThaiE.

1.1.2 Why was ThaiE studied? My initial motivation for wanting to study ThaiE came from a personal observation as to how highly educated ThaiE users used English in their informal communication. There appeared to be some features of Thai that were used in their English spoken and written texts, thus setting their English off as something distinct from Standard English, or other Asian Englishes.

For example, B incorporated the Thai final polite particle *ka* in her written response to A who had a birthday on February 13th, as shown in an exchange between my friends in (1). The use of *ka* by both A and B in this context indicates a high degree of mutual politeness and respect between the female speakers. Although the *ka* ending is superfluous, this exchange can still be understood by any English speaking persons

without any attempt to translate the Thai particle *ka*. Therefore, (1) begs the question as to why such an exchange is still comprehensible to other speakers of English even though they do not understand the meaning of *ka* in the example.

(1)   A: Thank you all my friends for a wonderful birthday wishes.. May

                      god (and Bhudda) blessed you all!! XOXO

  →   B: Happy Birthday *ka* sis

  →   A: Thank you *ka* B..XOXO

            C: Happy B-day!!!!”:)

            D: Hei darlll…happy birthday?? party tonight?? Oh you’re still so

                      young, still under 40 yrs old…..(-_-)..

            A: Thank you C. XOXO

            A: @D..ha ha..you are right, I’m still young (I think ei..ei)….We will

                      go out to celebrate on Friday instead. XOXO

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Since I wanted to illustrate that (1) was an example of ThaiE, an Asian English variety that has emerged from speakers having low exposure to native English speakers and how their English use was derived from the educational system in Thailand. The focus of this study is on language change, not code-switching, of ThaiE as a new variety spoken by highly educated native Thai speakers of English. In the aforementioned example, the conversation highlights the informal ThaiE communication between close

friends and how such observation has subsequently led me to investigate ThaiE as a variety in this study.

Upon examination of the term ThaiE, I have discovered that the study of ThaiE has been rare. The majority of studies done and pertinent to the term have either focused on Thai as an isolating language (Burusphat, 2002; Deepadung, 2009; Khanittanan, 2007) or English by Thai learners (thus learner's language) (Tan, 2005). A few studies have mentioned that ThaiE had a potential to develop if more Thais used English (Glass, 2009; Watkhaolarm, 2005), but the degree of identifying it as a full-fledged variety in its own right has yet to be recognized and further exploration is needed (Lim & Gisborne, 2011).

Because of the rarity of research and my own curiosity, this study delves into examining if ThaiE really exists in the world. If it does exist, how accepted is it as a variety, among highly educated Thai educators and scholars, and their attitudes towards ThaiE? If ThaiE does exist, what can it be described as the criteria of ThaiE? What are its shared features found in the speech of its participants?, and what are some of the transcript samples seen in the Thai media and English scholarly journals that are broadcast and published in English?

1.1.3 How did I go about conducting the research? This study includes 20 speech samples of ThaiE data that I have collected firsthand and via other sources. The first set of data was compiled as a result of 2 months of fieldwork in the U.S.A. and

Thailand. For this data, I conducted survey questionnaires and digitally recorded interviews in English, using a Sony stereo digital voice recorder (model ICD-SX712D), with 12 highly educated native Thai speakers of English in the state of Arizona and the Thailand provinces of Bangkok, Khon Kaen, and Mahasarakham. The participants were recruited by me and my friends who were both graduate students and college professors in Thailand. This study was IRB approved (Protocol # 1111007086, see *Appendix A*) before the data collection started.

Data from the 12 participants were divided into three groups: four from the Southwestern U.S.A. (all females with two having masters and two PhDs), four from Central Thailand (one male and three females with a combination of one bachelor's and three PhDs), and four from Northeastern Thailand (two males and two females with two masters and two PhDs). These participants were university professors, researchers, and English teachers (in Thai and U.S. universities) with diverse disciplinary backgrounds in the fields of Arts, Geochemistry, Industrial Engineering, Linguistics, Marketing, Neuroscience, Pharmaceutical Science, and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. The following factors were shared by all participants. They were:

- bilingual and/or multi-lingual speakers with a background language of Thai, Esaan (Northeastern Thai dialect),
- learned English as a foreign language from schools in Thailand,

- lived overseas for a period while pursuing a higher education (i.e. in America, Australia, and England),

- been exposed to diverse English varieties throughout their lives,

- taught international courses within their disciplines, and

- spoke English on a regular basis within their professional and/or personal contexts.

The questionnaires comprised of 16 questions, aiming to elicit the participants' demographic and language background for information. The interviews were pre-arranged and took place in the participants' offices located in their universities or in public areas, such as hotel lobbies, and restaurants. All interviews were digitally recorded with each ranging from one to 1.5 hours long and transcribed by me, using the simple transcription conventions (Schiffrin, 1994).

The other sources of speech data were collected from eight speech samples, four from the media in Thailand and four from the research articles. Of the media, the data were transcribed and checked by me several times to make sure that they were consistent from two television interview excerpts, one television news report, and one talk radio show, all broadcast in English. Of the research articles, four articles containing transcription of ThaiE speech data were looked at and originated from the following sources:

- Deveney, Barbara (2005). *An investigation into aspects of Thai culture and its impact on Thai students in an international school in Thailand.* Journal of Research in International Education, 4(2), 153-171.

- Hayes, David (2008). *Becoming a teacher of English in Thailand.* Language Teaching Research, 12(4), 471-494.

- Hayes, David (2009). *Learning language, learning teaching: Episodes from the life of a teacher of English in Thailand.* Regional Language Centre Journal, 40(1), 83-101.

- Wannaruk, Anchalee (2008). *Pragmatic transfer in Thai EFL refusals.* Regional Language Centre Journal, 39(3), 318-337.

Speakers in this study were regarded as speakers of ThaiE. The criteria for identifying them conformed with definitions of the speakers of New Englishes, Asian Englishes and particularly ThaiE addressed in Lim and Gisborne (2011), Hickey (2004) and Sarmah, Gogoi, and Wiltshire (2011). That is, like other Asian English varieties, ThaiE has evolved in the multilingual contexts of Asia where their speakers have little exposure to native English speakers and their English variety has emerged solely from the educational system. As mentioned, the participants that I surveyed and interviewed fit into this definition as speakers of the expanding circle variety where English has not

only been classified as an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in their geographic context, but where English is also used on a regular basis within their professional and personal contexts. Speakers from the media and those identified in the research articles were highly educated native Thai speakers of English who used English on a regular basis in their professional contexts (i.e. as teachers, journalists, talk radio hosts in Thailand, and international students in the U.S.A.).

This study will seek to answer the following research questions:

1. Is Thai English a variety in its own right?

1.1 If yes, what historical and sociolinguistic influences conspire to produce Thai English in this context?

1.2 How did the Thai educational system influence the development of Thai English as a variety in this context, as opposed to other countries in Asia?

2. What are the typological features of Thai that may appear in English?

3. What are the linguistic features of Thai English, based on the collected data? And what are the attitudes of highly educated Thai speakers of English towards ThaiE?

4. How could we explain such a language phenomenon in this context?

5. What future does Thai English hold in relation to other English varieties in the world?

1.2 The Spread of English

The spread of English outside the borders of Europe has been taking place since the colonial past to the modern day present. Since the fifteenth century, the English language has reached remote continents and a wide range of populations of diverse speech communities throughout the world. Via colonialism and migration, Western Powers, such as the Portuguese, the Spaniards, the Dutch, the French, and the British, set out to navigate the lands and seas beyond their European homelands in quest of military, political and economic gains. The consequences of such expansion resulted in both positive and negative outcomes: wealth, exploitation of indigenous resources, commercial trade and exchange, the discovery of the New World, a huge influx of human migration to the new territories, assimilation and acculturation to the local cultures, slavery, emergence of new mixed or contact languages to name just a few (i.e. pidgins, creoles, new varieties of English), and so on (van Gelderen, 2006, pp.1-11; Hickey, 2003, 2004; Schneider, 2011, pp. 42-197; Winford, 2003, pp.1-28).

Due to the British Empire, English was rendered the most influential language in history. Consequently, English (especially *British English*) was desired as the language of choice by the privileged class of many different societies throughout the world. While it tended to be unavailable to the general public, such as commoners and villagers, English was exclusively accessible to the educated, the elite, and powerful. This traditionally included the usual suspects, such as the ruling classes and their families,

diplomats, court officials, and high ranking military officers. Because of its association with the British Empire, British English had inevitably gained its momentum, as the global language of choice for many decades, throughout history up until World War II. (Hickey, 2004; Schneider, 2011)

It was after World War II, and especially after the Cold War, that the English variety, known as *American English*, has arisen and obtained global popularity. Instead of British English, American English was now considered the most favorable English variety that many nations and English learners in the world wanted to emulate, given that the United States of America (U.S.A.) represented a superpower in the world (Hickey, 2004). For the same reasons that British English was previously associated with history's past global superpower, American English has now assumed that role as the world's present leading global leader. As in the previous case, the global population is following suit by wishing to learn American English as the global language of choice.

To assist this trend, the United States has played a significant role as a facilitator of the spread of English (particularly American English) in the current history (Schneider, 2011). According to Schneider (2011), the recent dissemination was reflected in the form of globalization. Globalization entails the most important cultural development of westernization and, in many respects, refers to Americanization in particular. As Schneider (2011) put it, "American cultural dominance operates on many levels, including the world's economy (sometimes also called 'McDonalization'), in the

media (with Hollywood movies and American TV serials to be found almost everywhere), politically and so on" (p. 52). Generally speaking, the current spread of English has been considerably successful, mainly due to the United States who has indirectly rendered English spoken by Americans to be perceived as the most sought-after variety of English in the world today. It is due to this simple superpower association and the positive attitudes that a large number of the world population have towards westernization and Americanization that has caused this phenomenon (Hickey, 2004, p. 14). In other words, the successful spread of English from the past to the present time has been said to be from colonialism, migration, and globalization (van Gelderen, 2006, p. 271).

1.3 The English Models

In examining the spread of English, several scholars have proposed models designed to categorize the English varieties used in the world. One of the most frequently referenced is the "Three Circles" model by Braj Kachru (1992). In his concentric model, English speakers were divided into three groups, or circles, of World Englishes, i.e. English in the inner circles, the outer circles, and the expanding circles respectively. Kachru's criteria for categorization of English use were based on geography of the English speakers and the English status of the countries they lived in.

The inner circles comprise English used in such countries as the United States (U.S.), The United Kingdom (U.K.), Canada, Australia and New Zealand. *The outer circle* countries are Bangladesh, Ghana, India, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Zambia, and *the expanding circles* include China, Egypt, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Korea, Napal, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, USSR and Zimbabwe (Kachru, 1992; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

Interestingly enough, Kachru's concentric model correlated with Barbara Strang's proposal of the classification of English spoken in the world in the 1970s (Schneider, 2011). In Strang's proposal, spoken English was categorized into three types: English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), and English a Foreign Language (EFL). Therefore, in relation to Kachru's concentric model, the inner circles were conceptualized as ENL, the outer circles with ESL, and the expanding circles as EFL respectively in Strang's proposal (Schneider, 2011, pp. 30-31). Despite the different use of terminology, Kachru's concentric model represents the traditional bases where English is officially recognized by the governments of the different countries, as the native, second, or foreign languages, in the world.

It is worthy to note that, although Kachru's circles model is widely used and referred to in the literature, especially in the applied linguistics and language teaching fields, it has been criticized for being too simplistic, due to a lack of historical background. Additionally, it is inapplicable for Englishes in the contexts where

bilingualism and multilingualism co-exist, because the labels "the inner circles/ENL, the outer circles/ESL and the expanding circles/EFL" imply that speakers from each circle are, by definition, monolinguals of a monolithic society. In reality, speakers from diversely linguistic and cultural backgrounds made up each group (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Schneider, 2011).

For example, the so-called inner circle English speakers in Kachru's model, like in the U.K., the U.S, and Australia, comprise a large number of immigrants from many countries, i.e. China, India, Korea, Japan, Mexico, and Ukraine, to name a few. To these immigrants, English may not be their native, but second and/or foreign languages. In addition, they may dominantly speak their native languages, i.e. Chinese, Hindi, Korean, Japanese, Spanish, and Ukrainian respectively, with their family members and people in their communities, even though they are physically residing in the inner circle countries. Similarly, native English speakers from the inner circles, such as American couples from the U.S.A., permanently retiring in the expanding circle countries, such as Thailand where English is classified as a foreign language, may still use English as their native language on a daily basis with their family members and members of their newly adopted community. Therefore, they cannot be classified as the EFL speakers, simply because they live in the expanding circle country.

The most recent "English model" has been "the Dynamic Model". This model was developed from the previous models and proposed by Edgar Schneider (2007, 2011).

Originally, the dynamic model was intended to apply to all New and Extraterritorial Englishes that took root in the Asia-Pacific region (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). In the dynamic model, Schneider tries to analyze the spread of English use in terms of linguistic phases. There are five phases in the spread. Each phase is given a term. While in the process of development, some stages may overlap to a certain degree. According to Schneider (2011), phase 1 is called "foundation". Phase 2 is known as "exonormative stablisation". Phase 3 is "nativization". Phase 4 is "endonormative stablisation" and Phase 5 is "differentiation" (pp. 33-35).

The *foundation* occurs when English is introduced to a new territory over a period of time. At this initial stage, trade or long-term settlements may be the motivation. There is no obvious bilingualism, but there is evidence of lexical borrowing, such as toponyms, in English. EFL contexts in China during the nineteenth century may be examples where the indigenous populace and the English people interacted, but for trade only. According to Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008), two types of language contact are involved in this phase. One is language contact between English and indigenous languages. The other is between English settlers of different dialects in which all parties will eventually have to adjust their own dialects to align with one another, thus leading to a new stable dialect such as a koine, which basically is a language of settler communication (Schneider, 2011, p. 47).

The *exonormative stabilisation* is the phase dependent on the mother countries. It describes the period during which the settler communities rely on the language and political norms provided by their mother countries, such as England during the British rule. Bilingualism is more noticeable in this stage, but mostly it is comprised of vocabulary items that are of indigenous origins. An example is Fiji, as a British colony between 1879 and 1970 (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 33-34). In those periods, English was acquired through formal institutions, like schools, and still not available to the general public.

The *nativization* is the most interesting stage, according to Schneider (2011). It is the phase that Gill (2009 for Malaysian English) describes as being independent; hence liberation and expansion phase (pp. 134-136). In this stage, English becomes accessible to the local populace. Some features of the indigenous language are nativized into the English currency and the English settlers start to accept a new identity in a new location. Examples are Hong Kong English and Indian English of today (Hickey, 2004; Lim & Gisborne, 2011; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

The *endonormative stablisation* is the most important phase of linguistic development in which English is viewed as an international language, a language that is used to access knowledge and information in science and technology (Gill, 2009, pp. 136-138). This phase entails that the English settlers come to accept not only their new identity but also the local norms in their new nation. At this stage, they are totally

independent of Britain, the U.S.A., and so on. They adopt their own language norms and policies. There is a period where codification of the new language takes place to represent their new identity and culture in the new society. A good example is Singapore English in the present time (Lim & Gisborne, 2011, p. 6; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p.34).

The *differentiation* is the last stage of change where emphasis is being placed on a young proud nation that legitimizes his or her several social group identities and dialectal differences within the nation. Australia and New Zealand are examples of the countries that have come into full circles of the process (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 34-35). In this model, Schneider pointed out (in Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008) that "despite obvious differences, transplanted Englishes throughout the world are shaped by fundamentally uniform sociolinguistic and language-contact process" (p. 31). Therefore, the benefit of the dynamic model is that it is "truly dynamic" in the sense that it certainly explains the linguistic processes that take place in contact situations from start to finish (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 36). In addition, it is the most recent model that has been widely adopted to understand the linguistic processes of new language contact, such as Asian and regional Englishes (Schneider, 2011). However the drawback of the dynamic model is that it has not been tested with all varieties of English in the world, even with New and Extraterritorial Englishes in Africa and South Asia. For that reason, nobody knows for sure if this model is applicable to all English varieties (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Despite the criticism, the dynamic model appears to be the most appealing model that I could use

in explaining what is happening in the ThaiE variety in this study. For this reason, I will come back to the dynamic model in Chapter 7.

1.4 Language Variation, Language Change and Language Contact, Code-Switching

 1.4.1 Language variation. Language functions as a means of communication. To express certain notions of something, the speakers may employ various forms of the language (known as *language variation*) to converse with his or her listeners. Such forms are systematic and realized in terms of different pronunciation, morphology, word choices, and grammar, depending on the groups in communication (Schneider, 2011). For example, the auxiliary verb "can" is pronounced /kan/, using the short low back vowel /a/ in British English, while it is pronounced /kæn/, using the low front vowel /æ/, as in *cat* in American English. A British English speaker may call a rental room of a building, designed as residence, a *flat* while an American English speaker calls it, an *apartment*. Or, many English speakers use the passive construction with the copula BE, as in *John was scolded*, while colloquial Singapore English speakers utilize the *kana*-passive structure to express the same meaning, thus *John kana scolded.*

 These language variations demonstrate that speakers of English can convey the same meaning of something using different language variants. The differences are usually motivated by other factors, such as speakers' pronunciation habits (Sarmah, Gogoi, & Wiltshire, 2011; Schneider, 2011); social norms and language policies within

their countries (Lim, 2004). The significance of cross-cultural understanding is not on the language variants, but rather on the notion of "mutual intelligibility" between speakers and hearers within the context of communication (Smith, 2009). According to Smith (2009), cross-cultural communication depends on three facets: intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability. *Intelligibility* is the ability to recognize a word or utterance spoken by language users; hence understanding in the levels of the pronunciation and morphology. *Comprehensibility* is the ability to construe the meaning of those words or utterances; thus the syntax and semantics. *Interpretability*, which is the most important aspect, is the ability to decipher the subtle meanings behind words or utterances, therefore the pragmatics and discourse nuances.

In the early literature on English language teaching and learning, the discussion of English use has focused heavily on the notion of *correctness* of English (Kachru, 2009; Quirk, 1988). For prescriptivists, such as Quirk (1988), the correct forms of English were associated with *Standard English*, and standard in this sense refers to good, superior, and better (Schneider, 2011, p. 16). Therefore, any forms deviating from proper English would be considered incorrect, inferior, or bad English. In general, Standard English is connected with the prescriptive rules that are taught in school. Examples are "don't split infinitives" and "don't end a sentence with a preposition" (van Gelderen, 2006, p. 8). Interestingly, the results of such perspectives have been evident among English speakers, in particular from the expanding circle countries. Most speakers of the EFL circle

commonly believe that Standard English is in line with English spoken by native speakers in the U.K. and the U.S.A. (Foley, 2007; Hickey, 2004). Consequently to speak correct English, exonormative standards must be embraced.

Contrary to the past, the recent research has criticized the notion of Standard English as being the misconception in language teaching and learning (Kachru, 2009). As Schneider (2011) calls it, "such a mindset is erroneous" (p. 15). Because "languages vary", Schneider (2011) stresses that there is no one language variation that is better than another (p. 16). Due to the fact that, in the present day, *Englishes* (which is in the plural form) comprise speakers of linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds from a "plurilithic society", that means speakers of Englishes are not from a monolithic background where English belongs to one particular group (Pennycook, 2009). Instead, Englishes employed in the modern world represent different language variations by speakers of the same language (i.e. English in this case) that are from different backgrounds and contexts. Consequently, to convey the same meaning of something, speakers of English may articulate it in distinct language forms, using different language variants. As long as the message is mutually intelligible, the communication is successful.

However, in language variation, there appear many terms that may be confusing. Summed up, *language variation* refers to how speakers may communicate the same meanings, using different variants within the same language. The alternative term of

language variations is *varieties*, which are defined as the language forms of the single language that are specific to a certain group of a community (Schneider, 2011, p.16). For example, the English variety spoken in England is known as British English variety, the English spoken by mainstream Americans is American English, and the colloquial English spoken in Singapore is Singapore English.

Therefore, the label *varieties* represents specific characteristics of language use, such as language habits, shared by members of a given group in a certain context. The term is similar to *dialects*. While *varieties* are neutral, *dialects* are regionally related. Or when we think of *varieties*, Gelderen (2006) delineates this term into three distinct sub-labels: regional, social, and register (pp. 6-7). *Regional varieties* (sometimes called *dialects*) are distinguished by regions, such as New England English in the Northeastern U.S.A. *Social varieties* (sometimes called *sociolects*) are typical to a certain social group, such as Black American or African American English in America. And a *register* (sometimes called *jargon*) is characteristic to specific professions, such as computer engineers, and in baseball games. Other relevant yet overlapping terms are *styles* and *accent*. While *styles* are perceived as *formal* and *informal*, the notion of *accent* is limited only to pronunciation, or use of different vowels in pronouncing same words or utterances, i.e. British and American accent. The formal style often relates and refers to writing, Standard English, or the use of correct forms of English; whereas, the informal style is thought of as colloquial or spoken English.

In conclusion, a language is really a set of linguistic varieties, and English is a language that has many varieties. To understand speakers of English, correctness is only one aspect of understanding the linguistic varieties and language attitudes related to the social status of the speakers and their variety. For this reason, the same thing may be uttered differently by different speakers of the same language. What matters is the "linguistic and situational appropriateness that counts, not… the notion of 'correctness'" (Schneider, 2011, p. 16). As long as the language variations are mutually intelligible between speakers and hearers in the cross cultural and pluritithic contexts, the communication is considered successful.

1.4.2 Language change and language contact. The study of language change is a sub-field of language contact studies that takes place within the ecology of bilingualism or multilingualism (Ansaldo, 2011; Schneider, 2011). According to Gelderen (2006, 2011), language change is motivated by two reasons: external and internal.

The *external* changes are unpredictable. They are often brought about by contact between speakers of different languages, innovations of speakers, and/or as a result of political and social policies. The motives for changes are usually triggered by numerous reasons, such as for prestige alignments, group solidarity, symbolization of language forms, identity expression, and a need for speakers to be creative, polite, conservative, explicit or prescriptive, and so on.

The *internal* changes are predictable. They generally result in changes of the prescriptive, or other, rules (van Gelderen, 2006, p. 7). For example, speakers stop using the plural marking on nouns (i.e. *I have 2 son*) and inflections on the verbs (i.e. *He go to school everyday*). Or when speakers start to use the prepositions; such as, *of, for* and words like *the, have* to express location, definiteness, and possession respectively. The reasons for changes are for ease of pronunciation, making use of the available articulatory space for pronunciation, increasing transparency to hearers by analogical formation and regularization, giving meanings to distinct expressions, and so forth (Schneider, 2011).

The results of language change are perceived in terms of language varieties, particularly in the bilingual and multilingual speakers in African contexts (Ansaldo, 2011; Mufwene, 2001; Schneider, 2007, 2011). These researchers argue that English varieties evolve, or have evolved, out of a selection process in which speakers select and replicate all available linguistic features from a multilingual pool that they have. For example, Ansaldo (2011) argues that colloquial Singapore English emerged from linguistically diverse speakers in Singapore. In his article, these speakers were assumed to possess a pool of linguistically diverse features to start with (i.e. of the Sinitic, Malay and English languages, p. 23). Via contact with other speakers, these features were competing with each other before they were selected and replicated into the resulting linguistic forms that were aligned with other speakers within their context; thus leading to

language change which was realized in the forms of colloquial Singapore English (Ansaldo, 2011, pp. 13-14).

Yet, language contact may also be conceived in terms of contact intensity ranging from a very light to intense degree (Schneider, 2011, pp. 27-29; Thomason & Kaufman, 1988). In this respect, Schneider (2011) conceptualizes language contact in terms of the cline of contact intensity. There are three levels of language contact (i.e. light, intense, and very intense) and each degree gives rise to a distinct linguistic effect.

At the very *light* degree of contact, the results are evident in lexical borrowing. The outcomes are illuminating when one culture is admiring another; thus leading to the introduction of loan words of the influenced language in its currency (Schneider, 2011). Examples are the use of typographical names, such as names of places, rivers, and mountains of the indigenous languages in America.

In the *middle* degree of contact, the outcomes are apparent in the forms of language interferences, slight changes in morphology and syntax. Examples are the omission of inflectional endings, such as the third person singular –s in verbs, like *She drink milk* (in Philippines), and the use of progressive in stative verbs, like *You must be knowing him* (in India) (Schneider, 2011, p. 204). In this level, all sorts of pronunciation, discourse, and pragmatics can shift.

Lastly is change in the *very intense* contact category. The effects are realized in pidgins or creoles, the new contact languages that have arisen from when two people

living together in very closely and having very unequal relationships. Examples are *Pidgin English* used in the plantations and for trading between English speakers and Pacific islanders in the nineteenth century, and *Creole English* employed in the plantations of the New World where a large number of slaves were transported from West Africa from the fifteenth to the nineteenth centuries (Schneider, 2011, pp. 27-29).

In a broad sense, pidgins are reduced language forms that emerged from speakers who do not share the same first languages. They are rule-governed and used in trade contexts only (Schneider, 2011; Winford, 2003). On the other hand creoles evolve from pidgins; therefore, they are more systematic and rule-governed. As new contact languages, creoles are used for communication, just like what we would do in every day communication (Schneider, 2011; Winford, 2003). Or say differently, many think of pidgins as contact language of the first generation while creoles of the second generation.

In a narrow sense, pidgins are highly reduced lingua francas with limited vocabulary and simple grammar. As very simplified languages, they involve mutual accommodation and their functions are primarily restricted to barter and exchanges. Examples of pidgins are Eskimo Trade Pidgin, Chinese Pidgin English, Pidgin English in Japan during the post-war period or military occupation after World War II, Indian Butler English, and Hawai'i Pidgin English (Schneider, 2011; Winford, 2003).

On the contrary, creoles have more complex grammars that are shaped by both the superstrate languages of the colonizers (i.e. English) and the native languages of the

subjugated people, but most Creole vocabulary are drawn from the superstate influence. Examples of creoles are Carribean creoles, i.e. Jamaican and Guyanese creoles (with English lexicon) and Haitian creole (French lexicon). Others include Daman Creole Portuguese spoken in India, Papia Kristang spoken in Malaysia and Singapore, Krio (English lexicon) spoken in West Africa, and so on (Winford, 2003, pp. 20-24).

1.4.3 Code-switching. Code-switching is a generic language contact phenomenon, occurring only in skilled bilingual speakers (Clyne, 2003; Winford, 2003). Hickey (2004) characterizes it as speakers:

> moving from one language to another within single sentence or phrase. This is a phenomenon found among bilinguals who feel it is appropriate to change languages (or dialects in some cases)—perhaps to say something which can only be said in the language switched to. Code-switching is governed by fairly strict rules concerning the points in a sentence at which one can change over. (p. 656)

As a cover term of bilingual language mixture, code-switching is used with fluent bilingual speakers who alternate language use from one code to the other within the same speech event, sentence, turn or utterance. The words "code" here means "language" or "variety" (Clyne, 2003, p. 70) and "languages" and "dialects" in Hickey's definition are interchangeable terms. The differences between them are merely political ones

(Schneider, 2011). In a narrow definition, code-switching is distinguished into four types, based on the patterns of use.

Type 1 involves switches from code A to code B as in (2), where a bus conductor switches from Sawahili into English (shown in italics) while in an exchange with a passenger. In Type 1, the same speakers usually switch from their native languages to English, while in Type 2, the speakers switches from English to their native languages.

(2)   Conductor: Umelipa nauli ya basi?

                        "Have you paid the bus fare?"

        Passenger: (No response)

        Conductor: Unaenda wapi?

                        "Where are you going?"

        Passenger: Nafika Jerusalem

                        "I'm going to Jerusalem [housing estate]."

        Conductor: *You must always say clearly and loudly where you are going to*

                        alight, OK?

                        (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 134, as cited in Winford, 2003, p. 103)

Type 2 involves language negotiation where participants switch from one code to the other until they accomplish an exchange. An example is present in (3), in which a mother changes between English and Cantonese (in italics) while talking with her son.

(3)   Mother: Finished homework?

        Son: (No response) (2.0 sec.)

        Mother: Steven, *yiu mo wan sue?*

                        "Steven, do you want to review your lessons?

        Son: (1.5 sec.) I've finished.   (Winford, 2003, p. 104)

Type 3 involves switching of the codes within a single turn, which can be inter-sententially or inter-clausally. (4) is an example of inter-sentential switches. A Luyia man is interviewing a Luyia female nurse. The nurse switches her codes from English (in italics) to Sawahili and then to Lwidakho (in bolds), their shared language.

(4)   Male interviewer: Unapenda kufanya kazi yako lini? Mchana au usiku?

                       "When do you like to do your work? Days or night?"

        Female nurse: *As I told you, I like my job.* Sina ubaguzi wo wote kuhusu wakati ninapofanya kazi. *I enjoy working either during the day* au usiku yote ni sawa kwangu. Hata *family members* wangu wamezoea mtindo huu. *There is no quarrel at all.* **Obubi bubulaho**.

                       "As I told you, I like my job. I have no difficulty at all regarding when I do work. I enjoy working either during the day or at night; all is okay as far as I'm concerned.

Even my family members have got used to this plan. There

is no quarrel at all. There is no badness."

(Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 123, as cited in Winford, 2003, p.

104)

An example of an intra-clausal switch is shown in an utterance of a Spanish-English (in

italics) bilingual speaker in (5).

(5)   There was a guy, you know, *que* [that] he *se montó* [got up]. He started playing

with *congas*, you kno, and *se montó y empezó a brincar* [got up and started to

jump] and all that shit.

(Sankoff & Poplack, 1981, p. 11, as cited in Winford, 2003, p. 105)

Type 4 involves momentary switches within a sentence or turn, as in (6). Auer

(1995) calls such switches as "transfer" or "insertion" of single morphemes, but Kachru

(1978) and Singh (1985) call them "code-mixing" (as cited in Winford, 2003, p. 105).

For Kachru and Singh, the example in (6) is not considered real code-switching, but

rather code-mixing of single morphemes within the same clause. But for many

researchers (i.e. Clyne, 2003; Winford, 2003), both terms are used interchangeably.

(6)   Hata   siku   hizi   ni-me-*decide*   kwanza   kutumi sabuni ya miti

       Even   days   these   1S-PERE-decide   first   to use soap   of stick

       "[But] even these days I've decided first to use bar soap"

(Myers-Scotton, 1993, p.4, as cited in Winford, 2003, p. 105)

Of course, it is unclear what the boundaries of code-switching are (Clyne, 2003; Winford, 2003). The term itself has still posed as problematic. Therefore in this paper, I will mention it loosely. As language performance, code-switching refers to language mixture commonly found in fluent bi- or multi-lingual speakers. The term not only suggests that speakers are fluent in at least two languages, but also their choices for switching are essentially motivated by the different situations, or sociolinguistic domains, with which they associate themselves (Hickey, 2004; Winford, 2003). Put another way, the use of code-switching may be perceived as appropriate for specific language varieties, language interaction, and communities that speakers situate themselves in those specific communities. And such language performance is common in fluent bi- or multi-lingual speakers.

1.5 Key Terminology

1.5.1 World Englishes (WE). The term World Englishes was coined by Braj Kachru in 1985, the founding father of the discipline "World Englishes" (Kachru, 1992; Jenkins, 2003). By definition, World Englishes (in the plural form) refers to "kinds of English" that are spoken by any English speakers in the world (Schneider, 2011, p. 29). Kachru's rationale for introducing this term is not only to stress diversity in language use

today, but also to insinuate that nobody has ownership over English. English belongs to everyone who speaks it. Anyone speaking English is presumed to have equal status. There is no such thing, as one English variety that is better than the other. Nor should one variety be a norm-setter for the others to follow. Therefore, the label "World Englishes" was introduced. However, the term was criticized for being misleading for the fact that "World" here refers only to "non-native varieties of English" and it excludes the native English varieties as a whole (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Hickey, 2004, p. 507).

Examples of varieties of World Englishes are Indian English in India, Singapore English in Singapore, West African English in the Western part of Africa, Black South African English in South Africa, China English in China, Japanese English in Japan, and Thai English in Thailand. As shown, the term excludes the varieties of English used in the U.K. and the U.S.A. where "metropolitan standards," or English used in radio and television networks, based in large cities like Washington, Los Angeles, Atlanta, and London are employed (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 3-4).

For a less confusing and yet more general label, Rajend Mesthrie and Rakesh Bhatt (2008) suggested an umbrella term called the "English Language Complex" (ELC), denoting all English varieties in the world today (first appeared in Tom McArthur, 2003). The term was re-introduced and elaborated by Rajend Mesthrie and Rakesh Bhatt in 2008 in which the entire English varieties were grouped together under one cover term, the ELC. According to Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008: 3-4), the ELC comprises four varieties:

- The metropolitan standards,

- The colonial standards,

- The regional dialects, and

- The social dialects.

The metropolitan standards are English varieties used in the U.K. and the U.S.A. The rationale behind this being that the U.K. and the U.S.A. are the major providers of English for telecommunication and media across the world. Therefore, the English varieties that are dominant in both countries are known as the metropolitan standards, or mainstream English prevalent in networking and broadcasting.

The colonial standards are English varieties common in countries and territories that were colonies and/or under the rule of the British Empire. Examples of the colonial standards are English in India, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and South Arica.

The regional dialects are Englishes ubiquitous in some regions of the metropolitan and colonial varieties. In this sense, the regional dialects are English dialects, geographically-based within the U.K., the U.S.A., and the former colonies or territories of the British Empire, by users of distinct regions. Examples are the English variations in the North and South of the U.S.A.

Lastly are *the social dialects*. Social dialects are the English variations employed by a certain ethic group, mostly within the same speech community. For this reason, the

social dialects are sometimes known as "ethnic dialects" or "ethnolects" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 10). Examples are Black English used among African Americans in the U.S.A., Chicano English among Mexican Americans in the Southwest of the U.S.A., and the Broad, General, and Cultivated varieties of English used in Australia.

Put another way, "World Englishes" includes only the English varieties that are active in the ESL and EFL countries, but it excludes the English varieties in the U.K. and the U.S.A. for the reason that English in both places are employed as a native language. Yet, it should be noted that the word "world" that modifies "Englishes" in this terminology is deceptive. For the general audience, "world" should have them thinking of any variety of English in the world. However, the "world" here has a specific meaning in which all English varieties are included, except the native English varieties used in the U.K. and the U.S.A. Consequently, it is expected that some readers may be confused if they are unfamiliar with the connotation of World Englishes. In this instance, *World Englishes* specially means all non-Western varieties of English, except the metropolitan English in the U.K. and the U.S.A.

Despite the criticism of being over-generalizing, misleading and considered dated, the label "World Englishes" has still been widely used in the literature while the term ELC has not been so.

1.5.2 New Englishes. The term "New Englishes" (the other name used is "extraterritorial varieties" in Hickey, 2004) constitutes English varieties in a relatively narrow sense, as opposed to World Englishes. It is spelled with capital letters for both words and refers to "forms of English which developed mainly through the educational system of the countries involved" (Hickey, 2004, p. 504). Due to the historical genesis, "New Englishes" basically entail English varieties in countries that were former colonies, or territories, of the British Empire.

To be considered an assemblage of "New Englishes", an individual English variety must meet four characteristics (Platt, Weber and Ho, 1984). That is, (i) that English must be developed from the educational system (i.e. in the classrooms, in school, through formal education, not from the homes of English users); (ii) that English has been developed in an area where the majority of the people do not speak English as a native language; (iii) that English is used in many functions both formally and informally, such as in correspondence, government communications, literature, and as a lingual franca for some users; and (iv) that English has become indigenized, meaning it has its own specific rules of use and the rules are somewhat different from the rules adopted in the metropolitan varieties (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

Put another way, New (or Extraterritorial) Englishes are the narrow ESL varieties. Mostly, they encompass the varieties in South Asia and forms of South-East Asian Englishes that have historical ties to either the U.K. or the U.S.A. Examples are Indian

English (in India), Singapore English (in Singapore), Indian South African English (in South Africa), and Irish English (in Ireland).

1.5.3 Postcolonial Englishes. This is a new term coined by Edgar Schneider (2007, 2011). "Postcolonial Englishes" refers to all English varieties that have shared historical origins in British colonization activities. The terminology excludes British English, but includes many varieties. Examples of Postcolonial Englishes are New (or Extraterritorial) Englishes, American English, Australian English, and English-related creoles (Schneider, 2007, 2011).

1.5.4 Asian Englishes. "Asian Englishes" refers to English forms that have evolved in multilingual, mostly postcolonial, contexts of Asia (Lim & Gisborne, 2011). The plural form in the terminology deliberately implies that there are several varieties spoken at different locations with different background languages, or "languages that have had and continue to have influence on English" (Hickey, 2004, p. 509). Typically in South Asia and South-East Asia, Asian Englishes are distinguished from other kinds of Englishes by having arisen on the basis of few native English speakers and of expansion through exposure to English, usually by the educational system (Hickey, 2004, p.25).

To determine whether an individual English variety is considered an Asian English, Hickey (2004: 511-514) suggests that we take three characteristics of the following criteria into consideration:

- Background,

- Genesis, and

- Function.

1.5.4.1 Background. On the basis of background, the term *Asian Englishes* has no historical input from native English speakers. That means that Asian Englishes do not arise, or have not arisen, from the situations where native speakers transmitted English to the indigenous people from one generation to the other. Therefore, there is no historical background that implicates that English was transported to the local populace by the native English speakers.

1.5.4.2 Genesis. It means that Asian Englishes was originated from the educational system. For example in Singapore where local populations are multilingual, English is taught in schools as a medium of instruction since the primary education level. In turn, the use of English in the public sphere furthers the rise of its variety in the Asian contexts.

1.5.4.3 Function. In this respect, Asian Englishes portrays different functions based on their maturity, i.e. as mature Asian Englishes and as emergent Asian Englishes.

If an individual Asian English variety is full-fledged, it will fully take part in all functions in societies both formally and informally, i.e. in education, the media, politics, and in most domestic functions. If it is still developing, we will see a number of linguistic forms of the speakers' background languages in English.

Examples of Asian Englishes are Singapore English, Hong Kong English, and Thai English (Ansaldo, 2011; Hickey, 2004; Lim & Gisborne, 2011; Sarmah, Gogoi & Wiltshire, 2011).

Overall, "Asian Englishes" is a new term in the recent literature. Due to its being neutral and geographically-related, it implicates a group of Englishes spoken in the contexts of Asia that have no historical input from native English speakers and that they have arisen from the educational system. While Hickey (2004) characterizes Asian Englishes as "second-language, near-native or indeed native varieties at overseas locations, above all in parts of Asia, and which are not historically continuous with British or American English" (p. 503), Lim and Gisborne (2011) exemplify them as examples of the expanding circle varieties (p. 7). Of course, Asian Englishes have emerged from multilingual communities, highlighting their existence in the linguistic and cultural pluralism of the modern world.

1.5.5 Thai English (ThaiE). ThaiE is a recently new term appearing in the existing literature. It entails an Asian English variety spoken by educated native Thai

speakers of English (Sarmah, Gogoi, & Wiltshire, 2011). As a "very much newer" variety, ThaiE has yet to be widely recognized by many (Lim & Gisborne, 2011, p. 7). This may be due to its recent emergence, a lack of exposure, a lack of research, or all of these combined reasons.

A few researchers have acknowledged that ThaiE belongs to one, or more, of the following varieties: Asian English varieties (Lim & Gisborne, 2011; Sarmah, Gogoi, & Wiltshire, 2011; Yano, 2009), L2 varieties (Lim & Gisborne, 2011), non-native varieties of English (Hickey, 2004), and Second-Language English (Hickey, 2004, p. 510; Lim & Gisborne, 2011, p. 7). The common ground for all of this terminology is that ThaiE has had no colonial ties to both the U.K. and the U.S.A. Their speakers have had lower exposure to native English speakers. The variety has been developed from the formal education realm and the tourist industry. As Hickey (2004) put it:

> The term… refers to varieties of English which are to be found in
> countries which do not have a background of English colonialism and
> hence not a tradition of native English (however slight), e.g. Thailand,
> Cambodia/Kampuchea, Indonesia. Such countries show a much lower
> level of exposure to the English language, particularly in education, i.e. in
> the formative years of language acquisition. (p. 510)

What is interesting about ThaiE is that there are matching notions of correct English with Standard English in their speakers' attitudes. Like many emerging

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Englishes in South-East Asia, the emphasis has been placed on "their closeness to standard form of English from Britain to the United States" (Hickey, 2004, p. 506). Therefore the exonormative mind-sets are generally adopted and viewed as the correct models to follow, although many researchers nowadays have come to agree that such erroneous perspectives were merely the misconception in language teaching and learning in the present day (Foley, 2007; Kachru, 2011; Schneider, 2011).

The next chapter will focus on English in Thailand and the typology of Asian Englishes, English and Thai, highlighting the shared and different linguistic features that both languages have and how those features may be selected and replicated in the ThaiE speech that ThaiE speakers articulated.

Chapter 2

THE TYPOLOGY OF WORLD ENGLISHES VERSUS STANDARD ENGLISH, THAI

VERSUS ENGLISH, AND ENGLISH IN THAILAND

This chapter is comprised of three sections. Section 2.1 presents a typology of

World Englishes versus Standard English (Hickey, 2004; McMahoon, 2002; Mesthrie &

Bhatt, 2008; Platt, Weber, & Ho, 1985; Wee, 2004; William, 1987). Section 2.2

summarizes the typology of Thai versus English (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006; Campbell

& Shaweevongs, 1968; Haas, 1964; Hickey, 2004; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005;

McMahoon, 2002; Radford, 2009; Smyth, 2002; van Gelderen, 2010; Whaley, 1997;

Wittayarak, 1978), and Section 2.3 addresses English in Thailand (Baker, 2008, 2009;

Butler, 1999, 2005; Foley, 2005, 2007; Glass, 2009; Horey, 1991; Prapphal, 2008;

Prapphal & Oller, 1982; Watkhaolarm, 2005).

The Typology of World Englishes versus Standard English, Thai versus English,

and English in Thailand

In Section 2.1, the typology of Englishes concerns the structure and sound system

contrasts of World Englishes and Standard English. *Standard English* in this study refers

to English used as exonormative and metropolitan standards in the U.K. and U.S.A.

Whereas *World Englishes* entails the L2 varieties employed elsewhere; including World

Englishes, New or Extraterritorial Englishes, and Asian Englishes in general (Hickey,

2004; Lim & Gisborne, 2011, Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Murata & Jenkins, 2009). In Section 2.2, the dissimilarity and similarity between Thai and English are highlighted. Three major linguistic aspects of the two languages are described with respect to their morphology, syntax, and sound system. In Section 2.3, the discussion will turn to issues encompassing English in Thailand. All key sections of this chapter may, to some extent, serve as a baseline for understanding why some linguistic features of Thai and English influence the ThaiE data in the study.

Before turning to English in Thailand in Section 2.3, I must point out that the outlines in Sections 2.1 and 2.2 are not meant to be exhaustive, nor indicative, of any specific groups of English speakers in the world. As caveats, we should treat these overviews as general tendencies for some (not all) English users that they may, at some point in time, have towards certain usages of English communication in certain situations. Therefore, I will show only the common characteristics that these languages shared and that are frequently mentioned in the literature (Bisang, 2006; Hickey, 2004; Hopper & Traugott, 1993; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005; Lim & Gisborne, 2011; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Smyth, 2002; Whaley, 1997).

Section 2.1 presents the comparative typology of World Englishes versus Standard English.

2.1 World Englishes versus Standard English

Two contrasts of World Englishes and Standard English are mentioned in this section. Section 2.1.1 concerns their syntactic features; Section 2.1.2 is about their sound system. In Section 2.1.1, the syntactic features of World Englishes and Standard English are described in the forms of their constituents (i.e. NPs, VPs, and PPs) and sentence structures (as in topicalization, auxiliary-inversion, and use of invariant question tags). In Section 2.1.2, their sound system includes consideration of the vowel sounds, consonant sounds, common phonological processes, and takes on stress, tone and intonation.

2.1.1 Syntactic features. World Englishes represent a number of salient syntactic features that are slightly distinct from Standard English. A few common characteristics of World Englishes are listed below in respect to their constituents and sentence structures.

2.1.1.1 In constituents. When addressing the constituents, we think of:

- Noun Phrases (NPs),

- Verb Phrases (VPs), and

- Prepositional Phrases (PPs).

Therefore in this subsection, I will explain the uses of these constituents which are obvious in World Englishes and somewhat distinct from usages in Standard English.

2.1.1.1.1 The use of NPs. Under this category, we look at the following structures.

A. Use of articles. The articles include null article, *a/an*, and *the*. In World Englishes, the definite article "the" tends to be used in a generic sense, as in (7).

(7)   *The* food is more important than *the* art.   (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 50)

Or when the articles are supposed to be uttered, they are not realized based on the definite/indefinite parameter like Standard English. Rather, the articles employed in World Englishes operate under the criteria of "presupposed/asserted" and the notion of "specificity" between speakers and hearers (Hickey, 2004, p. 607). If a nominal item is presupposed, meaning that both the speaker and hearer have old information on the nominal item being discussed, the NP will be preceded by "the", as in (8). If the nominal item is asserted, meaning it is merely the speaker who is familiar with the nominal item but the hearer is not, then "one" will be used, as in (9). However, if both interlocutors have no knowledge of the nominal item, zero article (ɸ) will be used, as in (10) in Singapore English.

(8)   *The* food is lovely.   (Hickey, 2004, p. 607)

(9)   At the stall I bought *one* soda water.   (Hickey, 2004, p. 607)

(10)   If they gave (ɸ) chance…   (Hickey, 2004, p. 607)

B. Genitive use. In addition to the article use, we look at the use of genitive (-*'s*). While Standard English uses the genitive with animate objects, World English users may

apply the genitive with inanimate objects, as in (11), which are often seen in the Africa-Asia varieties of English (Lass, 1987, p. 148 as cited in Hickey, 2004, p. 607). Or if used with animate objects (in bold), the genitive may be omitted, as in African American English (12) (Green, 2002, p. 102, as cited in Hickey, 2004, p. 607).

(11)   The *car's* brake gave going down the hill.   (Hickey, 2004, p. 607)

(12)   **Bill** car is outside the house.   (Hickey, 2004, p. 607)

   C. Number. Plural nouns may be pluralized and regularized with the suffix –s, despite their being mass nouns and irregular nouns. Examples are *furnitures, staffs, equipments, childrens, sheeps* and *oxens* for World English users (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 53), while Standard English speakers use *furniture, staff, equipment, children, sheep* and *oxen* respectively.

   D. Gender. In some World English varieties, the anaphoric pronoun (in italics) is not indexed with the antecedent NP (in bolds), as in (13). Hickey (2004) explains this tendency as the influence of the background language of a speaker that does not have any grammatical gender in his or her language, hence resulting in transfer from the background language to World Englishes.

(13)   **My husband** who was in England, *she* was by then my fiancé. (East African
          variety)   (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 55)

E. Pronouns. World English users may pluralize the pronoun "you" and use it in the forms of *y'all* or *yous(e)* as in Indian South African English (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p.57). Sometimes, World English users may delete the dummy pronoun "it" in the cleft construction which is from "It is…" to be just "Is…", as shown in (14) in Uganda English and (15) in Singapore English.

(14)   Is very nice food.

                    (Platt, Weber & Ho, 1984, as cited in Methrie & Bhatt, 2008, p.58)

(15)   (zero subject) Must buy for home; otherwise he no happy.

                    (Wee, 2004, p. 1062, as cited in Methrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 58)

2.1.1.1.2 The use of VPs.

A. Tense. The present tense tends to be unmarked in World English verbs (in italics) when used in narrative for the past events. For example, a speaker of Singapore English in (16) tells a story of his or her recent vacation to a group of friends. Instead of marking temporal inflection on the verbs "stay" and "catch" to indicate a time reference (as past or present) to the hearers, the speaker uses the invariant form of "stay" and "catch" to recount the past story. The interpretation of tense in World Englishes, whether the event happens in the past or present, is determined by the context (Comrie, 1988; Hickey, 2004; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

(16)   We *stay* there whole afternoon and *catch* one small fish.

(Platt, Weber & Ho, 1984, p. 69, as cited in Mesthrie & Bhatt,

2008, p. 58)

        B. Aspect. Two types of aspect are employed in the World English varieties: past

habitual and perfective. Firstly, *the past habitual aspect* describes an action that takes

place repeatedly, like an individual's habit that lasts for a certain length of time. The past

habitual aspect is expressed by the use of "use(d) to" and is common in World Englishes,

as in (17) in Malaysian English. Except for the article, (17) is normal in American

English (K. L. Adams, personal communication, September 12, 2012), and the same

thought may be uttered by Standard English users as in (18). Secondly, *perfective* is

commonly indicated by the verbs "finish, already." An example is shown in (19) in

Singapore English and Malaysian English.

(17)   My mother, she *used to* go to Palau Tikus Market.

(Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 63)

(18)   My mother went to the Palau Tikus Market on a daily basis, but she doesn't go

        there anymore.

 (19)   He *already* go home.   (Williams, 1987, p. 184, as cited in Mesthrie &

Bhatt, 2008, p. 62)

However in Irish English, perfective is used as immediate perfective and resultative perfective (Harris, 1993, pp. 159-163, as cited in Hickey, 2004). On the one hand, *the immediate perfective* describes an action that takes place immediately after the other; hence occurring in the "after + V-ing" construction, as in (20). In this sentence, something immediately happens to Michael after the beer is spilled. On the other hand, the resultative perfective describes a result of someone doing or having something and then a second action that is resulted from the first is completed, as in (21). In this sentence, the resultative perfective aspect is realized in the OV word order, which appears sentence-finally where the novel is being read as the result of Brian's having the novel in the first place.

(20)   Michael is *after spilling* the beer.   (Hickey, 2004, p. 612)

(21)   Brian has *the novel read*.   (Hickey, 2004, p. 612)

C. Modality. It appears that a certain modality is used as a generic politeness marker for some World English varieties. For example, Indian English uses "may" in (22), while Singapore English uses "would" in (23).

(22)   This furniture *may* be removed tomorrow.   (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 135)

(23)   I will help you, but I am not sure if my brother *would*.

(Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 135)

D. Number. World English verbs are not inflected for the third person singular pronouns (i.e. he, she). The invariant verbal forms are used instead in World Englishes as in (24), while in Standard English, the same verb will be inflected for number in (25).

(24)   He *go* to school.   (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 66)

(25)   He *goes* to school.

E. Use of progressive with stative verbs. World English users tend to use the progressive form (*–ing*) with stative verbs while, in principle, Standard English does not allow progressive with statives (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 60), although they do occur in some native English speakers nowadays. An example sentence is shown in (26), which we often see in Indian English and McDonald television commercials, while Standard English speakers will simply utter "I love it" for the same referential entity.

(26)   I'm *loving* it.   (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 67)

F. Copular BE. In the present tense, the copular BE is often omitted, as in (27) in Singapore English. However in habitual aspect, the invariant BE is pervasive as in (28). While in Standard English, the copula is not only present, as in (29), but also inflected in the same sentences, as in (30).

(27)   The house ɸ very nice.   (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 68)

(28)   A lot of them *be* interested in football matches.

(Filippula, 1999, p. 136, as cited in Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 68)

(29)   The house *is* very nice.

(30)   A lot of them *are* interested in football matches.

    G. Use of unstressed DO. In informal questions, do-support is not used in World Englishes as in (31) in informal Indian South African English. In declaratives, DO/DID is expressed in periphrastic constructions, as a free transparent morpheme adjoined to an invariant main verb (DO/DID + V), to indicate that the context is in the present or past tense in (32) in Swaziland English. Whereas in Standard English, do-support is obligatory in interrogatives and the verb is inflected for past tense, thus the same sentences may be articulated in Standard English as in (33) and (34) respectively.

(31)   She gave you the look?   (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 70)

(32)   She *did take* the book.   (Arua, 1998, p. 144, as cited in

                                                                       Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 70)

(33)   *Did* she give you the look?

(34)   She *took* the book.

    2.1.1.1.3. The use of PPs. World Englishes use the prepositions variably (Hickey, 2004, p. 523; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 73). For example, the prepositions "at" and

"on" are often omitted from World English sentences, as in (35) and (36), while Standard

English are not. Sometimes, World English users employ different prepositions from

Standard English to mean the same thing, e.g. *discuss about* (while Standard English uses

just *discuss*), *good in* (while Standard English uses *good at Math*). Or World English

users completely drop the prepositions from some phrasal verbs, e.g. *pick* (for pick up)

and *apply* (for apply for) (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 71-72).

(35)   He had lunch ɸ one o'clock.   (Hickey, 2004, p. 608)

(36)   We're going there ɸ Tuesday.   (Hickey, 2004, p. 608)

2.1.1.2 In sentences. Three aspects of World English sentence structures are

characterized below:

- The use of topicalization devices,

- Inversion/non-inversion of the auxiliary in indirect questions and

  subordinate clauses, and

- The use of question tags (Hickey, 2004; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

2.1.1.2.1 Topicalization. World English users tend to employ a syntactical device

called "topicalization" to introduce a context and reinforce old information to their

interlocutors. Within the sentences, there may be topic and focus. The *topic* usually introduces old information and can be repeated; while the *focus* introduces new information and cannot be repeated (Rizzi, 1997). For this reason, their sentences often appear as left dislocation, front-focusing, clefting, and/or by the presence of sentence-final emphasizers.

For *left dislocation*, the sentence illustrates a topic-comment construction where the topic (in italics) is a focused NP which is located on the left of the sentence, and the comment is in a full sentence on the right, e.g. "*The people*, they got nothing to eat" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 81). For the example, this is standard spoken American English (K.L. Adams, personal communication, September 12, 2012). Therefore, it should be noted that there might be different opinions on what is considered Standard English usage, depending on whether we are discussing spoken versus written varieties, or where in the discourse the form is.

Next is *the front-focusing structure*, which is used in highlighting topic(s) of the sentence sentence-initially (Hickey, 2004). The front-focusing structure is similar to topic, in which old information can be repeated to the hearers. To accomplish this strategy, two constructions are either employed. One is by moving the VP-object to the front of the sentence (in italics) to receive focus within the context, e.g. "*Banana* you want" which derives from "You want banana" (Hickey, 2004, p. 610). The other is by *using a cleft sentence*, like "It's …", as in "*It's* her brother who rang up this morning" in

Irish English (Hickey, 2004, p. 610). The same thing may be stated in Standard English as "Her brother called her this morning", but the emphasis of topicalization realized by the cleft construction in the former sentence is more intense on the "it's the brother" part than the subject position "her brother" of the latter sentence. Or, another interpretation could be that it was her brother who called this morning, depending on the context.

Another topicalization device is accomplished by *the use of sentence-final adverbs* "but, now," or "so", as emphasizers of the entire sentence, e.g. "He was a great runner, *but*" in Irish English (Hickey, 2004, p. 610). In this example, "but" means "though" in Standard English. The difference between this topicalization device and the other three (previously mentioned above) is that focus of the first three topicalization types is on the fronted NPs and the cleft part, whereas the emphasis of the last device is on the whole sentence.

2.1.1.2.2 The use of auxiliary-inversion. World Englishes allow auxiliary-inversion in indirect questions, containing "wonder, if, whether" (e.g. I wonder *where does he work*) and subordinate clauses (e.g. They know *who has Vijay invited tonight*) (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 98), while there is no auxiliary-inversion in direct interrogatives (e.g. *When you are* coming home?) (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 97). This inversion/non-inversion feature is totally opposite to what appears in Standard English, in which inversion is allowed in Standard English direct interrogatives (e.g. What *did Mary*

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say?) but not in indirect questions (e.g. *John asked what did Mary say?) and subordinate clauses (e.g. *John wondered what did Mary say).

2.1.1.2.3 The use of invariant question tags, such as "is it?" in Singapore English, "isn't?" in Indian South African English, or the "X or not?" pattern, i.e. "can or not?" in Singapore English. For example, "You are going tomorrow, *isn't it?";* "You come tomorrow, *can or not?*" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 86).

2.1.2 The sound system. This area of World Englishes has been less researched than morphology and syntax. For those who have looked into it (i.e. Hickey, 2004; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008), a brief summary of their findings is present in this section. Keep in mind that the synopsis here is neither exhaustive nor specific to any particular L2 speaking groups of the English varieties. There is always a degree of intra-speaker and stylistic variation that we have to consider in regard to the speakers' phonological variation (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 119). Therefore in principle, not all speakers of the L2 varieties pronounce words exactly the same using the following features.

Presented here are the main phonological and phonetic characteristics of the English varieties in some L2 speakers from Africa and Asia (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 118-130). In this overview, Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) use the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) symbols to describe and call the varieties employed in two geographical regions as the varieties in Africa and Asia: Africa for the varieties in Africa and Asia for

the varieties in South and Southeast Asia (hence *Africa-Asia*), and their terminology

excludes the varieties in East Asia. Their sources of the Africa-Asia varieties are drawn

from *A Handbook of Varieties of English* (Schneider, Burridge, Kortmann, Mesthrie, &

Upton, 2004) and the synopsis of the English varieties specifically in Africa and South

and Southeast Asia is also found in this handbook, compiled by Mesthrie (2004, pp.

1099-1110).

According to Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008), examples of the varieties in Africa are

Indian South Africa English, Black South African English, Nigeria English, Ghana

English, Cameroon English and East African English. Examples of the varieties in Asia

are Indian English, Pakistan English, Singapore English, Philippine English and

Malaysian English.

The phonological variation of these L2 varieties is described in four major aspects:

- Vowels,

- Consonants,

- Common phonological processes;

- Stress, tone and intonation (Mesthrie& Bhatt, 2008).

The caveats are being that "the features are mainly found in mesolectal and basilectal

speech; acrolectal speakers usually have accents that are somewhat closer to prestige

target language norms" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 119). The terms *mesolect, basilect*,

and *acrolect* are traditional to the Creole languages, indicating grammatical systems of the Creole languages that are maximally distant from the superstrate, or colonial European, languages (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 226). In World Englishes studies, Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) describe that the term *basilect* has been extended to "cover an L2 sub-variety that is maximally different from the target language"; *acrolect* refers to "the version of the Creole, or the L2, which closely approximates the superstrate"; and *mesolect* refers to "a number of intermediate sub-varieties that arise when a basilect becomes influenced by the acrolect" (p. 226).

Therefore, it should be noted that, despite the described features, only some speakers (not all) of the L2 varieties may, at some point in time, pronounce words and sentences in that manner. While some World English speakers exhibit a sound system, using a large degree of the following features, others may display a smaller range of the phonological variation and for some others we may hardly ever detect any of these features at all. The point is to be aware of somewhat different sound systems used by diverse speakers of English so that cross-cultural communication is possible.

2.1.2.1 Vowels. Traditionally, the English vowels ([i, ɪ, u, ʊ, e, ɛ, ə, ʌ, o, ɔ, æ, a, ɑ]) are described in terms of three factors: the *height* of the body of the tongue, the *front-back position* of the tongue, and the degree of lip *rounding* (Ladefoged, 2006, p. 20; Odden, 2005, p. 21). The simple vowel chart is shown in Figure 2.4 (in Section 2.2.3), representing the relative vowel qualities used in English. According to the figure, the

high vowels comprises [i, ɪ, u, ʊ] in which the tense [i] and the lax [ɪ] are the high front vowels, and the tense [u] and the lax [ʊ] are the high, back vowels. The *mid vowels* includes [e, ɛ, ə, ʌ, o, ɔ] where the mid front vowels are the tense-lax vowel pair of [e] and [ɛ], the mid central vowels are [ə, ʌ] and the mid back vowels are [o, ɔ]. Lastly, the *low vowels* are composed of [æ, a, ɑ] where [æ] is the front unrounded vowel, [a] is the central unrounded vowel, and [ɑ] is the back unrounded vowel.

However, in examining the English vowels of the L2 varieties, the traditional vowels are not used as the standard set to determine if the vowel sounds pronounced by World English speakers deviate from their Standard English vowel counterparts (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). If assessed by the exonormitive criteria, the results in turn will welcome the revisiting notion of superior English (Standard English) versus marginal English (meaning anything but Standard), the concern that has been debunked in the recent literature. Since Englishes are pluralistic and belong to everyone who speaks the language, it is inevitable that we detect a wide range of accents across speakers in the world today. Because accents of English are said to "vary in the number of vowels", or how speakers realize the vowel sounds in words, it is natural for some accents to appear challenging to understand, while others may not (Ladefoged, 2006, p. 44). The judgment call is somewhat subjective to individual listeners.

As for the L2 varieties in Africa and Asia, Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) report that they use the five-vowel system (p. 120). Under this system, there are two subtypes of the

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vowels, as Type 1 and Type 2 (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 119-120). In Type 1 (see

Figure 2.1), the vowels in the lexical sets TRAP and STRUT are merged together, while

in Type 2 (see Figure 2.2), the vowels in the classes of LOT and STRUT are merged.

Examples of the varieties that use Type 1 are found in East African English, Ghana

English, and some varieties of Black South African English, while Type 2 is found in

Cameroon English and southern Nigeria English. As for the Asian English varieties,

Brown (1988: 134) discovers that the DRESS and TRAP classes appear to merge

together and realized as [ɛ] (as cited in Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 120-121). However

little research has been done in the phonology of the Asian English varieties, the findings

may not be inclusive enough.

KIT   FOOT   KIT   FOOT
  DRESS   LOT   DRESS   LOT/STRUT
            TRAP/STRUT   TRAP

Figure 2.1. Type 1 of the five-vowel system.   *Figure 2.2.* Type 2 of the five-vowel

system.

Therefore to understand Englishes spoken by speakers of diverse varieties, we

must take into consideration that the vowels belonging to certain word sets may be

realized differently by different speakers. Examples of the vowel realizations are listed

below, concerning sound system of the monophthongs, diphthongs and in the unstressed

vowels by speakers of the L2 varieties, particularly in Africa and Asia (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 118-130).

2.1.2.1.1 Monophthongs. Many L2 varieties in Africa and Asia realize the English monophthongs as short and long sounds. Examples of the vowel realizations from the particular lexical sets are shown, as follows:

A. Short monophthongs.

(i) KIT. The vowel in this lexical class may be realized as the following variants:

a. [ɪ] in all L2 African Englishes and in the South-East Asian varieties (i.e. Singapore English, Malaysia English and Philippine English);

b. The KIT vowel may be lengthened in some contexts in all African and South-East Asian varieties.

(ii) DRESS. The vowel in the DRESS class may be pronounced as:

a. [e] as the main variant in Indian South African English, East African English, Cameroon English, Indian English and Pakistani English;

b. [ɛ] as the main variant in Black South African English, Ghana English and Philippine English.

c. [æ] in Singapore and Malaysia English;

d. [a] in northern Nigeria English.

(iii) TRAP. The vowel from this word class is realized as:

a. [ɛ] in Black South African English and Singapore English;

b. [æ] in Indian English, Pakistani English and Malaysia English;

c. [ɑ] in Nigeria English, Ghana English, Cameroon English and Philippine

English.

(iv) LOT

a. [ɔ] in Black South African English, Ghana English, Cameroon English, Indian

English, Singapore English and Malaysia English;

b. [ɔ:] in Indian English, Pakistani English and Indian South African English;

c. [a] in northern Nigeria English;

d. [ɑ] in Philippine English.

(v) STRUT

a. [ɔ] in Cameroon English and southern Nigerian English;

b. [ʌ] in Indian English, Pakistani English and Philippine English;

c. [a] in Black South African English, East African English and Ghana English;

d. [ɑ] in Singapore English and Malaysia English.

(vi) FOOT

a. [ʊ] in Indian South African English, Nigeria English, Indian English, Pakistani

English and Ghana English;

b. [u] in Singapore English, Philippine English and Pakistani English.

B. Long monophthongs

(i) FLEECE

    a. [iː] in Indian South African English, northern Nigeria English, Indian English, Pakistani English, and sometimes in Ghana English and Malaysia English;

    b. [i] in Singapore English and Malaysia English.

(ii) GOOSE

    a. [uː] in all varieties that use [iː];

    b. [u] in all varieties that use [i];

    c. As free variation between [uː, u, ʊ] in Philippine English, with a tendency towards [uː].

(iii) THOUGHT

    a. [ɔː] in Indian South African English, Pakistani English, Ghana English and Indian English;

    b. [oː] in northern Nigeria English, Ghana English, Cameroon English, Singapore English, Malaysia English and Philippine English.

(iv) NURSE

    a. [ɛ] in Black South African English, southern Nigeria English and Ghana English;

    b. [a] in East African English;

    c. [ʌ] in Pakistani English;

d. [ɔ] in Cameroon English;

e. [ə] in Singapore English, Malaysia English and sometimes in Indian English.

(v) BATH

a. [a] in East African English, southern Nigeria English, Ghana English and

Cameroon English;

b. [ɑ] in Singapore English, Malaysia English, Philippine English;

c. [aː] in northern Nigeria English.

2.1.2.1.2 Diphthongs

The diphthongs from these following lexical sets may be realized as below:

(i) FACE. The vowels in the FACE class are variably pronounced as:

a. [eɪ] in Indian South African English, Pakistani English;

b. [e] in East African English, Nigeria English, Ghana English, Cameroon

English, Singapore English, Malaysia English and Philippine English;

c. [eː] in Indian English and Pakistani English.

(ii) PRICE

a. [aɪ] in Indian South African English, Nigeria English, Indian English and

Pakistani English;

b. [ai] in Ghana English, Cameroon English, Singapore English, Malaysia English

and as an alternative variant in Nigeria English;

c. [a] as an alternative form in Ghana English.

(iii) MOUTH

a. [aʊ] in East African English, Nigeria English, Ghana English, Cameroon English, Indian English and Pakistani English;

b. [u] in Singapore English and Malaysia English;

c. [o] as an alternative in Black South African English;

d. [a] as an alternative in Ghana English.

(iv) CHOICE

a. [ɔɪ] in Indian South African English, Nigeria English, Indian English and Pakistani English;

b. [ɔi] in Ghana English, Cameroon English, Indian English, Singapore English and Malaysia English;

c. [oɪ] in East African English and Philippine English.

(v) GOAT

a. [o] in East African English, southern Nigeria English, Ghana English, Cameroon English, Singapore English, Malaysia English and Philippine English;

b. [ɔ] in Black South African English;

c. [oː] in northern Nigeria English, Indian English, Pakistani English, and as an alternative variant in Malaysia English.

(vi) SQUARE

a. [eː] in Indian South African English and Indian English;

b. [ɛː] as a variant in Indian English;

c. [ɛ] in Black South African English, Ghana English, Cameroon English and as alternative form in Malaysia English;

d. [æ] in Singapore English and Malaysia English;

e. [e] in Philippine English;

f. [ea] in Ghana English and Nigeria English;

g: [ia] in southern Nigeria English.

(vii) NEAR

a. [ɪə] in Indian English and Pakistani English;

b. [iə] in Singapore English and Malaysia English;

c. [iɛ] in Ghana English and Cameroon English;

d. [ijɛ] in Indian South African English;

e. [ia] in East African English;

f. [ia] as an alternative in Ghana English;

g: Monophthongal [e] in Black South African English and a variant of [ɪː] in Malaysia English.

(viii) CURE

a. [ʊə] in Pakistani English;

b. [ʊa] in East African English;

c. [ua] in Nigeria English.

d. Monophthongal [ɔː] in Indian South African English;

e. Monophthongal [o] as Black South African English;

f. Monophthongal [ɔ] in Cameroon English, Singapore English, Malaysia English and a variant in Ghana English;

g. Monophthongal [u] in Philippine English.

1.2.1.3 Unstressed vowels. Examples of the unstressed vowels are realized as follows:

(i) HAPP*Y*

a. [iː] in Indian South African English and as an alternative in Indian English;

b. [i] in Ghana English, Singapore English and Malaysia English;

c. [ɪ] in Black South African English, East African English, Indian English, Pakistani English, Philippine English and as a variant in Ghana English;

d. [iɪ] in Nigeria English.

(ii) LETT*ER*

a. [ə] in white South African English, Indian English, Singapore English and Malaysia English;

b. [ɛː] in Indian South African English;

c. [ɛ] in Philippine English;

d. [a] in East African English, Ghana English and Cameroon English;

e. [ʌ] in Pakistani English.

(iii) COMM*A*

a. [ə] in Singapore English and Malaysia English;

b. [a] in Nigeria English, Ghana English, Cameroon English and Indian English;

c. [ɑ] in Indian Singapore English and Philippine English;

d. [ʌ] in Pakistani English and as an alternative in Malaysia English.

(iv) HORS*ES*

a. [ə] in Indian South African English, Indian English, Singapore English, Malaysia English;

b. [ɪ] in Pakistani English;

c. [ɛ] in Philippine English.

2.1.2.2 Consonants. Voiced and voiceless consonants make up the consonant sounds in English. In this section, the consonants are generally divided into six groups based on manner of articulation: stops, fricatives, affricates, nasals, liquids, and glides and approximates. Examples of the consonantal realizations by World English speakers are briefly present here (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 126-128).

2.1.2.2.1 Stops. The stops comprise [p, t, k, b, d, g]. The [p, t, k] are not aspirated in Standard English. But they are aspirated and realized as [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ] in Indian English, Pakistani English, Singapore English, and Philippine English.

2.1.2.2.2 Fricatives. The fricatives include [f, θ, s, ʃ, h, v, ð, z, ʒ]. Interestingly, *all* World English varieties treat /θ/ and /ð/ as something other than interdental fricatives (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 126). For example, [θ] and [ð] are treated as:

a. An aspirated dental stop [t̪ʰ] in Indian English, but its voiced counterpart [d̪] is not aspirated;

b. Alveolar stops [t, d] in East African English, Ghana English, Singapore English, Malaysia English and Philippine English.

2.1.2.2.3 Affricates. The affricates refer to [ʧ, ʤ] and are realized as:

a. [s, z] in East African English;

b. [ts, ds] in Philippine English.

2.1.2.2.4 Nasals. The nasals are composed of [m, n, ŋ]. Their realizations in some L2 varieties are as below:

a. N is retroflexed before [ʈ] and [ɖ] in Indian South African English, Indian English and Pakistani English.

b. Epenthetic [n] occurs before consonants in East African English.

c. Vowels are nasalized before final nasals, with subsequent loss of the nasal consonant in Ghana English.

2.1.2.2.5 Liquids. The liquids are [l, r]. Examples of their realizations by some World English speakers are as follows:

a. The R is rhoticized in Indian English, Pakistani English and Philippine English.

b. There is alternation between /r ~l/ in East African English and Ghana English.

c. R is regularly realized as [l] among Chinese speakers of Malaysia English.

d. Light [l] is common in Indian English and older speakers of Indian South African English.

2.1.2.2.6 Glides and Approximates. The glide and approximate refer to [w, j].

a. W is replaced by [hw] in wh-words in Ghana English.

b. W and V may occur interchangeably in India English and Indian South African English.

2.1.2.3 Common phonological processes. Two common processes are employed by many World English speakers (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008):

- Final devoicing of obstruents, and
- Consonant cluster reduction.

The final obstruents refer to this set of consonants: [b, d, g, v, ð, z, ʒ, dʒ]. *Devoicing of the final obstruents* occurs in Black South African English, Nigeria English, Ghana English, Camaroon English, Singapore English and Malaysia English. *Consonant*

cluster reduction is reported in many varieties as well, i.e. Black South African English, Ghana English, Indian English, Pakistani English, Singapore English, Malaysia English, and Philippine English (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 128).

With regard to the consonant cluster reduction, two alternative strategies are utilized by some World English speakers to make it easy to pronounce:

- Deletion, and

- Epenthesis.

The first strategy involves *deletion* of the final consonants in the clusters. Examples are shown in Cameroon English in (37) in which plosives like [t, d, p, k] tend to be deleted when they are the final consonants in the clusters. The second strategy is accomplished by *epenthesis*, or by inserting vowels between the clusters to break up the syllables. Examples are from basilectal Philippine English, as in (38).

	Deletion	**From**	
(37)	pas	past	
	miss	missed	
	col	cold	
	gras	grasp	
	jum	jump	
	tas	task	(Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 128)

	Epenthesis	**For**
(38)	[k*u*-lut]	cloth
	[d*i*-ris]	dress
	[t*a*-rap]	trap
	[*i*s-tat]	start
	[*i*s-kuwir]	square	(Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 128-129)

2.1.2.4 Stress, tone, and intonation. Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) report that there are tendencies towards *syllable-timing* among World English speakers in Africa-Asia while Standard English speakers exhibit *stress-timing* in sound system. *Syllable-timing* describes how each syllable is pronounced in approximately the same amount of time regardless of stress, while *stress-timing* depicts how the same amount of time is devoted to produce each phonological foot with regard to stress (McMahon, 2002, p. 124). For example, in "cat in the hat", there are two phonological feet: "cat in the" and 'hat", and each foot represents stress in the words. For syllable-timed speakers, "cat in the hat" will be pronounced as four equally stressed syllables, "cat-in-the-hat". But for stress-timed speakers, "cat in the hat" will be pronounced as containing two primary stresses or rhythms. The first stress is on "cat" which is in the first foot "cat in the", and the second one is on "hat" which is in the second foot "hat".

Because of the tendencies towards syllable-timing, World English speakers are in turn prone to demonstrate the following aspects of the sound system (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 129).

1) They tend not to use vowel reduction like in Standard English, and in

Some varieties, the use of schwa [ə] is rare. In other word, words with reduced vowels (like the schwa) are stretched out into separate noticeable syllables, as in [isku:l] for "school" in Indian English.

2) They tend to avoid pronouncing syllabic consonants (like *letter, little*). If

they do, epenthesis is employed for ease of pronunciation.

3) Stress shifts occur in a wide range of direction. Examples are below:

a. Shift to the right: *real ′ise* (while Standard English, like British English,

pronounces *′realise*)

b. Shift to the left: *a′dolescence* in Cameroon English which is from a

penultimate to an antepenultimate syllable (while Standard English says

ado′lescence)

c. There is no stress distinction between words that have both functions. For

example, some speakers may pronounce the pairs Adj. and V "absent" as both ´absent instead of ´absent (Adj.) and ab´sent (V) like in Standard English.

4) There is a smaller range of intonational contours, compared to Standard English. For example,

a. Tone and intonation units in Black South African English are shorter.

b. Sentence stress in Nigeria English is rarely used for contrast.

c. There appears to be less change of intonation or pitch direction in Malaysia English sentences.

The key to successful cross-cultural English communication is to understand that speakers of diverse varieties of English may pronounce words and sentences in certain ways, which are due to their background languages and the vowel and consonant systems that they use (Hickey, 2004; Ladefoged, 2006; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). As shown in this section, many L2 varieties (like African and Asian Englishes in particular) appear to share a number of phonological variations, i.e. in using the five-vowel system which results in a large number of vowels being realized in the closely similar sounds, the tendency towards syllable-timing, and the non-fricative realization of [θ, ð] (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 129-130). Also, there are some many aspects that Thai has in common with World Englishes (WE) typologically. By taking these phonological aspects into

consideration, chances of successful English communication are possible in the cross-cultural situations, especially with speakers who are not native to the metropolitan standards and who make up the largest number of the English speaking population in the world today. In the next section, the discussion turns to the dissimilarity and similarity between Thai and English.

2.2 Thai versus English

In this section, I endeavor to point out the dissimilarity and similarity of Thai and English as two independent languages in terms of their morphology (Section 2.2.1), syntax (Section 2.2.2), and sound system (Section 2.2.3). I shall mention that *Thai* in this study refers to Standard Thai used widely by the Thai population in Thailand, a country of Mainland Southeast Asia. Typologically speaking, Thai is a single language of one language family that has dialects (i.e. Central Thai, Northern Thai, Northeastern Thai, and Southern Thai), whereas English covers a group of the English varieties (i.e. Standard English, World Englishes, New or Extraterritorial Englishes, and Asian Englishes in general) as one united language from the same language family. Consequently, the difference and resemblance between the two language groups will be addressed in the following part, which may in turn offer possible explanations as to why ThaiE has emerged as the result of the two languages being induced in the contact situations.

2.2.1 The morphology. Morphologically, Thai is different from English in that Thai (as an isolating language) is pragmatics-oriented while English (as an inflectional or fusional language) is syntax and semantics-based (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006; Whaley, 1997). In Thai, the relevance of its pragmatic contexts determines the grammatical relations and interpretation found in English. Such linguistic traits are commonly found in the isolating languages of Mainland Southeast Asia as Thai, Lao, Khmer, Vietnamese, and Chinese (Mandarin) in Southern China. However for this section, I focus on Thai only as it is essential to this study.

Thai and English are two distinct languages of two different language families (Bisang, 2006; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005; Whaley, 1997). Considered an isolating language, Thai is from the Tai-Kadai or Daic language family, spoken as a national language of Thailand (Bisang, 2006; Burusphat, 2002; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005; Smyth, 2002; Whaley, 1997). As an inflectional language, English is from the Germanic languages and spoken worldwide as a global or international language (Hickey, 2004; Whaley, 1997). Of the morphology, Thai is different from English in that Thai is not only pragmatics-based, but Thai words are also not inflected to indicate any grammatical relations within the sentences. English words on the other hand are inflected, i.e. Ns for number, person, gender, case and Vs for tense, aspect, mood (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006; Whaley, 1997). Being pragmatics-based, Thai possesses two main characteristics that are pervasive in their lexical items:

- Inderterminateness;

- Versatility (Bisang, 2006).

2.2.1.1 Indeterminateness describes a quality (mostly found in the isolating languages) that demonstrates vagueness in interpretation and Thai words inherit indeterminateness (Bisang, 2006). Although all languages, including English, use pragmatics for interpretation, in the isolating languages in particular, there is usually a one-to-one correspondence between morphemes and words (Whaley, 1997, p. 129). But in cases of the isolating languages in Mainland Southeast Asia (i.e. Thai in particular), the one word-one morpheme notion is blurry because some polymorphemic words may contain unanalyzable syllables and some categories like Ns and Vs are nonobligatory (Bisang, 2006). To decipher the subtlety of meaning, one must take the relevance of pragmatics into consideration; thus resulting in semantic generality of the lexical items, as opposed to those found in the inflectional languages like English. As Bisang (2006) notes it, Ns in general inherit linguistic information, such as number, noun class, reference (definite, specific, indefinite), relationality (possession) and case, whereas Vs tells us about person/number, Tense/Aspect/Mood (TAM), transitivity (transitive vs. intransitive), diathesis and causativity (p. 589). Since Thai is a pragmatics-oriented language, the interpretation of grammatical relations inherited in Ns and Vs is inferred by the context.

To clarify this point, consider an example of the plural word "cats" in both languages. In English, the lexicon is made up of morphemes, but in Thai, it is the words that make up its entire vocabulary inventory. Despite the difference in nomenclatures, each morpheme or word has its own meaning. That is, *cats* in English comprises two morphemes: the free morpheme *cat* and the bound morpheme *–s*. The free morpheme *cat* is independent, has its own meaning and can stand by itself in a sentence. However, the bound morpheme *–s* is grammatical (which is a plural suffix, indicating number in *cat*) and cannot stand by itself, so the grammatical morpheme *–s* has to be bound to the lexical morpheme *cat* in order to entail the meaning of any carnivorous mammals of the family "felidae", such as our four-legged domesticated cats we raise with the family, or undomesticated lions and tigers we see at the zoos and in the wilderness.

While an English word like *cats* is decomposed into two morphemes (*cat* and *-s*) and pronounced as one syllable [kat], *cats* in Thai is realized by three independent words, and each word is regarded as a separate syllable, as in (39). In this example, each syllable of the Thai "cats" is considered an independent and meaningful word in itself. However if the Thai "cat" is mentioned in isolation, the hearers may interpret it either as "a/the cat" in a singular form or "cats" in the plural form, of which case the context will determine its number.

(39)   maew lǎy   tua

         cat   several CLASS

'cats'

Not only do Thai monosyllables correspond one-on-one to independent words, but Thai also accepts "strings of semantically unanalyzable syllables" as single words, the language specific property that is unavailable in English (Bisang, 2006, p. 590). Examples are seen in elegant Thai words, i.e. *pháttaakhaan* for "restaurant" and *ʔùthaahɔ̌ɔn* for "example". In these instances, each word is trisyllabic and each syllable cannot be analyzed into individual morphemes like in English.

2.2.1.2 Another characteristic of Thai, which is inextricably linked to indeterminateness, is *versatility*. Versatility means that a single linguistic item can take multiple meanings and functions in the sentences (Bisang, 2006; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005). Since Thai is a pragmatics-based language, having neither case nor agreement, the boundaries between the linguistic categories in Thai are not clear-cut like in English where syntax and semantics play a major role in determination (Baker, 2008). For this reason, one Thai word may relatively have more general functions (as N, V, A, P, C, I, D) and meanings than an English word does in the same context. For example in (40), the Thai word "nǔu" (in italics) may be considered either a N, meaning "a mouse", or the first personal pronoun "I" used by little children. In languages like Thai, the pragmatic context determines its syntactic meaning, thus the English translation shows its

equivalent as this child delivers a direct report to his, or her, older perlocutor of his, or her, dislike of a pair of the specific referential objects.

(40) *nǔu*   mây   chɔ̂ɔp khûu   níi

     mouse.1   NEG like   CLASS   this

     'I don't like this pair (e.g. of shoes).' (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 70)

       Another example of versality of the lexical items is the use of the Thai verb *hây*, meaning "to give" in English. Locations of the Thai words determine their syntactic categories (Bisang, 2006). For example, the Thai verb "to give" (in italics) is considered a coverb in (41), a causative verb in (42), and an adverbial subordinator in (43).

(41) khǎw pəd   pràtuu *hây*   chǎn

     3S   open   door give.COVERB   I.FEM

     'S/he opens the door for me.'   (adapted from Bisang, 2006, p. 590)

(42) pâa   sùwan *hây*   sǎamii kɛɛ   pay sɔ̀ŋ   khɛ̀k thîI

     aunt   Suwan give.CAUS   husband 3S.POSS go.Vd send   guest LOC

     bâan

     house

     'Aunt Suwan had her husband bring their guests back home.'

                                  (adapted from Bisang, 2006, p. 590)

(43) chǎn   pháyaayam   thamŋaan   nàk   phûa   *hây*   phɔ̂ɔ   phumjay

1S.FEM   try   work   hard   so that   COMP   father   proud

'I am working hard so that my father will be proud (of me).'

(adapted from Bisang, 2006, p. 591)

On the contrary, the English morphology has a syntactic and semantic boundary to determine which words belong to the lexical category (N, V, A) and which ones are of the grammatical category (i.e. prepositions, connectives, pronouns and demonstratives) (Hopper & Traugott, 2003, p. 4). As in (44), each English word is assigned a single category that is aligned with its syntax and semantics. As one can see, indeterminateness and versatility are not omnipresent in English. Also, it should be noted that although indeterminacy is a feature of language in general, this is an issue of degree.

(44)   POSS   Adj   N   BE   V.Prog   P   Det   Adj   N

My   little   brother   is   sleeping   in   the   living   room.

The Thai morphology illustrates a high degree of indeterminateness and versatility within their lexical items. Both characteristics are common linguistic properties of the isolating languages, like Thai, where Ns do not have case and Vs are not inflected for any grammatical relations. Thai word positions are keys to determine their

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syntactic relations and semantic interpretation in the sentences that we would see aligned with their English counterparts which, to some extent, are being inferred by the relevance of the Thai pragmatics. English on the other hand has morphemic boundaries that clearly distinguish the lexical category (N, V, A) from the grammatical category (P, I, C, D). Consequently and for this reason, English offers somewhat specific meanings in the sentences that can be interpreted from syntax and semantics while Thai proffers more general interpretation which is due to its pragmatic dependency.

2.2.2 The syntax.

2.2.2.1 Syntactic similarity. Syntactically, both Thai and English are *analytical languages* that display SVO word order (Bisang, 2006; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005; Whaley, 1997). Although a decent number of the Thai syntactic aspects is similar to its English counterpart (i.e. as head-initial, VO, prepositional, dependent-marking, and postnominal relative clausal languages), there are differences that result from the language-specific properties of Thai (i.e. use of topic-comment structures, use of topicalization, use of topic-drop, use of topic chain constructions, no case/no agreement, no articles, use of the classifier phrases, and use of serial verb constructions). Table 2.1 displays word order of Thai and English.

Table 2.1
Word Order of Thai and English (adapted from Bisang, 2006, p. 591)

	Verb/Object	Adposition	Demonstrative	Classifier	Possessor/Genitive	Rel.Clause
Thai	VO	Prep	NDem	NCl	NGen	NRel
Eng	VO	Prep	DemN	n/a	NGen	NRel

As shown in Table 2.1, Thai and English share four types of word order. In (45) – (49), examples from Thai are illustrated in A and English in B. As head-initial languages, the head elements (V and P in italics) usually precede the VP and PP as present in (45A) for Thai and (45B) for English. As VO languages, the Thai verb "eat" and the English "shot" (both in italics) in (46) precede their objects "rice" and "a woman" respectively. As prepositional languages, the Thai prepositions "in" and the English "on" in (47) are placed before their head nouns "house" and "the table". As dependent-marking languages, the Thai possessor marker "of" and the English genitive marker (-'s) in (48) mark the dependents, or modifiers, of their head nouns ("house" for Thai and "a man" for English). Lastly as languages that make use of the postnominal relative clauses, (49) shows that the relative clauses in both languages (in italics) follow their nominals (both "snake") in the sentences.

(45)   VP   PP

A: khǎw [*tham* ŋaan] [*thîi*   rooŋpháyaabaan]

       he/she do   work   at   hospital

       'He/She works at the hospital.'

     VP   PP

B: Mary [*teaches* English] [*at* a nearby college.]

(46)   V O

A: *kin* khâw

    eat rice

    '(I'm) eating rice'

B: John *shot* a woman.

(47)   Prep N

A: dam yùu *nay* bâan

    Dam BE in house

    'Dam is in the house

B: *on* the table

(48)   N Gen

A: bâan *khɔ̌ɔŋ* chǎn

    house of mine

    'my house'

B: a man*'s* house   (Whaley, 1997, p. 141)

(49)   N   Relative Clause

A: chăn   hěn   ŋuu   *thîi   kàd   dèk   phûuchay*

I   see   snake that   bite   child boy

'I saw the snake that bit the boy'

B: I saw the snake *that bit the boy*.   (Whaley, 1997, p. 248)

2.2.2.2 Syntactic difference. Although Thai and English are syntactically analytic,

Thai is different from English in eight aspects:

- Use of topic-comment structures,

- Use of topicalization,

- Use of topic-drop,

- Use of topic chain constructions,

- No case/no agreement,

- No articles,

- Use of the classifier phrases, and

- Use of serial verb constructions (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006; Iwasaki &

    Ingkaphirom, 2005; Sato & Kim, 2012; Smyth, 2002).

As a topic-prominent language, Thai exhibits the topic-comment structures in which topic-drop, topicalization, and the topic chain constructions are permitted in the sentences (Bisang, 2006; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005; Sato & Kim, 2012). Within the constituents (i.e. NPs and VPs), Thai is a language that has neither case nor agreement (Baker, 2008). Specifically, Thai NPs (or DPs) are mentioned without the articles (*a/an, the*), unlike in English (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005; Smyth, 2002). To indicate number, the classifier phrases must be employed in the Thai NPs. Lastly, Thai VPs demonstrate cases of serial verb constructions where the verbs share the same discourse topics within the sentences (Smyth, 2002; Sato & Kim, 2012). The explanation of these properties is illustrated below.

2.2.2.2.1 Use of the topic-comment structure. Although Thai and English display SVO word order, Thai is a topic-prominent language; English is a subject-prominent language. In Thai, a topic is a NP that usually occurs sentence-initially, functions as an emphasis, and basically tells what the sentence is all about (Smyth, 2002, p. 225). An example is shown in (50). In this sentence, the *topic* part (in italics) signals to the hearers that *old information* is reinforced, or verbalized again; the *comment* part (in regular fonts) is similar to focus where *new information* is introduced to the discourse (Radford, 2009).

(50) TOPIC   COMMENT

sûa   kàw   ca   aw   pay   bɔ.ri.càak   phrûŋ.níi

clothes old   will   take   go   donate   tomorrow

'I'll give away the old clothes tomorrow.'   (adapted from Smyth, 2002, p. 117)

2.2.2.2.2 Topicalization. Interestingly, *topicalization* tends to be prominent in languages that make use of topic-comment and Thai shows no exception (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005; Sato & Kim, 2012). Topicalization is a syntactic device, used in reinforcing old information to the hearers (Hickey, 2004). For English listeners, topicalization of the topic-prominent languages like Thai (in italics) may sound like repeated, emphasized, and redundant information, as shown in (51).

TOPICALIZATON

(51) *wan* *mɛ̂ɛ*   chǎn jà   sɯ́ɯ dɔ̀ɔkmáy   hây mɛ̂ɛ

     day   mother   I   will   buy   flower   give mother

     'As for Mother's Day, I will buy flowers for (my) mother.'

2.2.2.2.3 Topic-drop. Related to the topic-comment structure, Thai also features another important syntactic characteristic known as "topic-drop". Topic-drop is an omission of the syntactic subjects in the sentences. Topic-drop is allowed in Thai, as in (52). When this happens, the structure is alternatively called "topic-drop", "pro-drop", "null subjects" or "zero subjects" in the literature.

(52) tɔ̂ŋ   rîip   pay   sɯ́ɯ   hây

     must   hurry go   buy   give

'(I) must rush off and buy some for her.'   (adapted from Smyth, 2002, p. 117)

There are three types of null subjects in languages: the Romance *pro drop* type, the Germanic *topic drop* type, and the Chinese *discourse drop* type (Sigurðsson, 2011). Sigurðsson (2011) explains them as the types of referential null subjects portrayed in structures of three distinct languages. Of the Romance languages (like Italian), the null subjects are conditioned by agreement, as in (53), meaning the syntactic subjects of the sentences are dropped while the verbs manifest rich agreement to indicate arguments. Of the Germanic languages (like Swedish), the null arguments are conditioned by an empty Spec, C, as in (54), meaning that the Spec CP is empty, the null subject is moved to this empty position in LF, and the sentence is finally spelled out as lacking the syntactic subject in PF. And of languages like Chinese and Thai, there is no argument in the PF, as in (55), because there are no clause-internal constraints between their arguments. For this reason, it is hard to determine if a word is a subject or object without any inference to the context (for details on the conditions on argument drop, see Sigurðsson, 2011).

(53)   Parl*o*   /Parl*i*   islandese.   *Italian*

         Speak.1SG   /2SG   Icelandic   Subject-verb agreement

         'I/You speak Icelandic.'   (Sigurðsson, 2011, p. 268)

(54)   Kommer   tillbaks   imorgen   *Swedish*

Come.ɸ-AGR back	tomorrow	Empty Spec, C, but no agreement
'[I/We/She, etc.] will be back tomorrow.'		(Sigurðsson, 2011, p. 268)

(55) Kanjian   ta   le.   *Chinese*

See.ɸ-AGR   him   PER.ɸ-AGR   No clause-internal

restrictions

'[He/She, etc.] saw him.'   (Sigurðsson, 2011, p. 268)

However in this study, I will use the cover term "topic-drop" to refer to any syntactic phenomenon in the ThaiE data that either displays omission of the topic or optionality of topic-drop from the context. Therefore, topic-drop is allowed in Thai, but not in English. Because English is a topic-prominent language, the syntactic subjects (in italics) must be required in the sentence, as in (56).

(56)   *This (matter)* is between you and me.   (van Gelderen, 2010, p. 84)

2.2.2.2.4 Use of topic chain constructions. Like Japanese and Chinese, Thai may be considered a *radical pro-drop language* in which the liberal omission of a pronominal argument is allowed in the sentences (Sato & Kim, 2012). When this happens, the structures known as "topic chain constructions" are exhibited (in Speaker B) where the

empty topics are coindexed with the original topic as in (57) for Thai, and (58) for

Colloquial Singapore English, while the topics must be present in Standard English as in

(56).

(57) A: wan níi tham ʔâray

          day this do what

          'What did you do today?'

      B: [ɸ]Top   pay thúrâ thîi   praysanii

          (zero topic) go business location post office

          [ɸ]Top   rɔɔ naan mâak tɛ̀ɛ [ɸ]Top

          (zero topic) wait long very but (zero topic)

          jəə phûan [ɸ]Top   khui nídnòi lɛ́ɛw

          meet friend (zero topic) chitchat a little then

          [ɸ]Top   klàp bâan

          (zero topic) return home

          '(I) went to the post office. (I) waited for a long time (to be serviced), but

          (I) ran into a friend, so (I) talked for a little and then (I) returned home.'

(58) A: So, you can cycle now, can you?

      B: Yeah, [ɸ]Top can cycle, not very well, but [ɸ]Top can cycle, ah.

          [ɸ]Top   knocked myself against the pillar, but then [ɸ]Top

managed to pick up cycling.   (Sato & Kim, 2012, p. 8)

2.2.2.2.5 No case/No agreement. Thai is a language that has neither case nor

agreement while English has both case and agreement (Baker, 2008; Gelderen, 2010;

Smyth, 2002). Because of this, Thai Ns and pronouns do not encompass any

grammatical cases, nor do Vs agree with their subjects, as in (59). On the contrary, case

and verbal inflection (in italics) are manifested in English, as in (60).

PRON V

(59)   kháw   pen   khon   thîi   càay

3S   BE   CLASS   that   pay

'He is the one who paid.'   (adapted from Smyth, 2002, p. 54)

(60)   John'*s* car is in the garage.

The book *is* red and blue.

The book seem*s* nice (to me).

2.2.2.2.6 No articles. Thai is a language of no articles. To express plural number

in NPs, Ns in Thai do not make use of any suffixes (like *–s, -es* in English) to do so. Ns

in Thai do not have any syntactic marker to show that the Ns are grammatical subjects or

objects of the sentences; nor are Ns in Thai classified by case and gender (Baker, 2008;

Smyth, 2002). Because of these, Ns in Thai are generally interpreted as indefinite and the context determines their underlying meanings (Bisang, 2006). Therefore, they can be understood either as singular or plural indefinite, as in (61), while Ns in English express definiteness by the use of the articles *a/an, the*. When Ns in Thai convey specific meaning, their nominal sequence is presented in a single fixed form (known as *the numeral classifiers*), involving the head nouns, cardinal numbers, and specific classifiers of the head nouns, as in (62) and (63). In these examples, the nominal classifier (CLASS) in (62) has an indefinite reading while the interpretation in (63) is definite.

(61) Dam   mii   mia

Dam   have   wife

'Dam has a wife/wives.'

(62) Dam   mii   mia   sǎam   khon

Dam   have   wife   three   CLASS

'Dam has three wives.'

(63) mia   sǎam   khon   khɔ̌ɔŋ Dam   yùu   naǐ

wife   three   CLASS   of   Dam   be   where

'Where are the three wives of Dam?'

2.2.2.2.7 Use of the classifier phrases. Since Thai is a pragmatics-based language, its Ns denote merely a concept without showing any commitment to number (Bisang, 2006). To indicate number, a linguistic strategy known as "the numeral classifier" is employed to the Thai Ns so that the concept is accessible to the hearers. The use of the numeral classifiers is done by individuating the conceptual Ns into units, which is expressed by a fixed word order of NCl (see Table 2.1). However the numeral classifiers may be realized as the N-CLASS-Dem order in (64) to indicate singular, or as the N-#-CLASS order in (65) to indicate plural, with the CLASS being optional when a singular N is being referred to as in (64).

(64)   dèk   (khon)   níi

        child   CLASS   Dem

        'this child'

(65)   dèk   sɔ̌ɔŋ   khon

        child   two   CLASS

        'two children'

It must be noted that there are many arbitrary criteria used in highlighting the N concepts of Thai. However the typical criteria are cataloged in Bisang (2006) and Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2005). In Bisang (2006), the numeral classifier phrases are

used based on the materials (animate, inanimate, abstract), shape (one-/two-/three-dimensional), consistency (flexible, hard or rigid, discreet), size (big, small), location (classifiers for plots of land, countries, gardens, fields, etc.), and spatial arrangements of the Ns (p. 591). On the other hand, Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2005) think of Ns in Thai as classifiable objects. With regard to this, they provide a diagram of the overall structure of Thai classifiers, which is shown in (66). In the diagram, the Ns in Thai are holistically classified into animate and inanimate objects. Then the animate Ns are further divided into human classifiers and non-human classifiers. While human animate objects take the classifiers *khon* (for the general public) and *ong* (for royalties and monks), both meaning "body", as countable measure of the persons, the non-human animate classifiers take *tua* as a means to count non-human animate Ns, like animals, and to denigrate someone as if he or she is an animal. And examples of the Thai numeral classifiers are listed in (67) (for an extensive list of the Thai classifiers, see Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1968; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005).

(66)   Classifiable Objects

/khon/   /oŋ/   /tua/
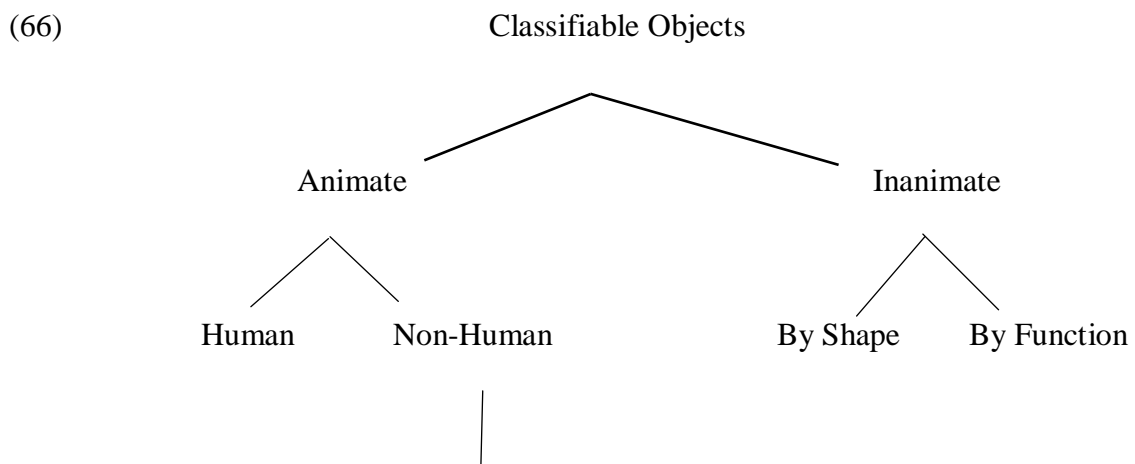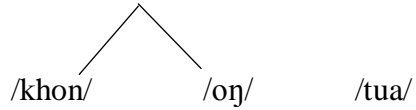
(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 75)

(67)   **Classifiers**   **Nouns**

/khon/   Common people

/tua/   Regular animals (cats, dogs), furniture with legs (tables, chairs),

              clothing (pants, underwear, bras, shirts), ghosts, dolls

/chûk/   Elephants

/phὲn/   Flat objects (paper, CD, vinyl records, dried pork)

/an/   Stick-shaped objects (brushes, toothbrushes, rulers, nail clippers,

              combs)

/khan/   Vehicles (cars, buses, taxis), eating utensils (spoons, forks)

/bai/   Container utensils (plates, bowls, cups or glasses), furniture

              (closets, cupboards), round objects (fruits, eggs, hats), flat objects

              (tickets, photographs, shaving knives, towels, carpets, sarongs)

/chabàp/   Newspapers, brochures

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, pp. 74-81)

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2.2.2.2.8 Serial Verb Constructions (SVCs). The SVCs are commonly used in Thai to denote a single event performed by the shared thematic subject (as an agent or experiencer), as in (68), while English does not use verb serialization, as in (69). Instead, the English event structure is represented within a single VP, not by the use of multiple verbs that shares the same discourse topic within the sentence like in Thai.

(68)   kháw   pay   súɯ   maa   kin

        s/he   go   buy   come   eat

        'He went out to buy something and brought it back to eat.'

(adapted from Smyth, 2002, p. 81)

(69)   I gave a letter to Sandra.

        I made Harry some soup.   (van Gelderen, 2010, p. 69)

2.2.3 The sound system.

Phonologically, Thai and English are totally different. Thai is a syllable-timed language; English is a stress-timed language. In Thai, sound system of each syllable is noticeable to the point that it appears to be stretched out as speakers try to place equal rhythm on each syllable; whereas in English, stress is prominent. A primary stress is assigned to one syllable of an English word only, not on every single syllable like Thai, so the hearers will hear sentences enunciated by stressed-timed English speakers as words cramming into interval intonational units. To expound on this fact, the obvious

difference between the sound systems of Thai and English is pointed out below. However for details on Thai phonetics and phonology, see Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1968; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005; Smyth, 2002.

Thai has nine vowels ([a, e, i, o, u, ɔ, ɛ, ɨ, ə]) (see Figure 2.3), but English has 13 vowels ([i, ɪ, e, ɛ, æ, ʊ, u, o, ɔ, ɑ, a, ə, ʌ]) (see Figure 2.4). Thai comprises aspirated voiceless stops [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ] whereas English does not have [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ]. Thai has only three voiceless fricatives ([f, s, h]) (see Figure 2.5), but English fricatives exceed [f, s, h] (see Figure 2.6). Thai clusters appear as double consonants, consisting of voiceless stops ([p, t, k, ph, th, kh]) and approximants ([r, l, w]), but [r, l, w] are restricted to the second consonant of the consonant clusters, as in [plaa] meaning " fish", [troŋ] "to be straight", [klaaŋ] "middle", [phleeŋ] "song", [khruu] "teacher", and [thrísàdii] "theory". English clusters allow a maximum of three consonants to occur at the initial positions of the words, and the triplets are ordered as a [s], stops, and glides, as in spring /sprɪŋ/, strike /straɪk/, and scrape /skreɪp/ respectively. Thai words can end only in [p, t, k, m, n, ŋ] and consonant clusters do not occur word-finally, but English words can end in any consonant, including clusters. Lastly, Thai is a tonal language[1], but English is a toneless

---

[1] As a tonal language, Thai has five tones: mid, low, falling, high, and rising. Whereas the mid or level tone is not diacriticized, the other tones are realized by the following diacritric marks: low [`], falling [ˆ], high [´] and rising [˘]. Since this

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language (Campbell & Shaweevongs, 1968; Wittayarak, 1978; Smyth, 2002; O'Grady,

Archibald, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller, 2005).

```
i      ɨ      u
   e    ə    o
     ɛ        ɔ
        a
```

```
i              u
ɪ              ʊ
   e      ə      o
      ɛ   ʌ   ɔ
        æ   a   ɑ
```

Figure 2.3. Thai vowels (adapted from Haas, 1964, p. xiii). *Figure 2.4.* English vowels (Odden, 2005, p. 21).

	CONSONANTS:	Bilabial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops:	Vd. Unasp.	b	d		-g	
	Vl. Unasp.	p-	t-	c-	k-	ʔ
	Vl. Asp.	ph-	th-	ch-	kh-	
Spirants: (Fricatives)	Vl. Unasp.	f-	s-			h-
Sonorants:	Vd. Semivowels	w		j		
	Vd. Nasals	m	n		ŋ	
	Vd. Lateral		l-			
	Vd. Trill or Retroflex		r-			

Figure 2.5. Thai consonant phonemes (Haas, 1964, p. xi).

section presents merely a sketch of the Thai sound system as a baseline to understand the

development of ThaiE as a variety in the study, discussion of the Thai tones is not

mentioned here, but see Brown, 1974 and Haas, 1964 for further details.

	labial	labio-dental	dental	alveolar	post alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
plosive	p b			t d			k g	
nasal	m			n			ŋ	
affricate					ʧ dʒ			
fricative	(ʍ)	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		(x)	h
approximant	w			l r		j		

Figure 2.6. English consonant phonemes (McMahon, 2002, p. 53).

Thai and Englishes are two different languages from two language families.

Although they share certain linguistic features, many are dissimilar. Morphologically,

Thai is isolating so its interpretation is pragmatically-dependent. English is inflectional

(or fusional); the interpretation depends on syntax and semantics. In terms of structures,

both Thai and Englishes are analytic in the fact that they illustrate cases of the head-

initial, VO, prepositional, dependent-marking and postnominal relative clausal languages.

Despite the syntactic similarity, eight aspects of Thai make the language distinct from

English. That is, Thai exhibits topic-comment and topicalization, allows dropping of the

discourse topic in the context, uses topic chain constructions, has neither case nor

agreement, has no articles, uses the numeral classifier phrases to indicate number, and

uses the serial verb constructions to denote a single event that is performed by the shared

thematic subject. Finally in the sound system, the difference is obvious, which is briefly

addressed in terms of their general pronunciation nature (syllable-timed vs. stress-timed),

vowel systems (nine vowels vs. 13 vowels) and consonant inventories (aspirated stops vs.

no aspirated stops; less fricatives vs. more fricatives; consonant clusters at word-initial and –final positions; tonal vs. toneless). These general linguistic profiles of Thai and English are summed up in Table 2.2, and it should be noted that some features of both languages may be used in describing some linguistic properties evident in the ThaiE data of the study in the later chapters. In the next section, issues encompassing English in Thailand are called for.

Table 2.2
Comparative Profiles of Thai and English

Linguistic Profliles/Languages	Thai	English
Morphology	Isolating (pragmatics-based interpretation)	Inflectional/Fusional (syntax and semantics-based interpretation)
Syntax	Analytic	Analytic
Sound system	Syllable-timed	Stress-timed

2.3 English in Thailand

English has been a part of Thailand for many years, so two aspects of English are described in this section. Section 2.3.1 illustrates the timeline when English came into Thailand and the roles it has taken in regard to the Thai educational system. Section 2.3.2 summarizes the attitudes and issues facing the spread of English in Thailand.

2.3.1 English from the past to present. English is viewed as manifesting multiple functions in Thailand: as a foreign language (EFL) (Baker, 2009; Horey, 1991; Prapphal & Oller, 1982), second language (ESL) (Baker, 2009), and international

language (EIL) (Baker, 2008, 2009; Horey, 1991). As part of the expanding circle, Thailand does not have its own codified variety of English (Butler, 1999, 2005; Watkhaolarm, 2005), although there is an informal folk variety known as "Thinglish" (as cited in Baker, 2009, p. 12). Baker (2009) recounts that English is the most commonly used second language in various domains (i.e. in the media, after Thai) in Thailand. It is a compulsory second language in schools and in higher education, and also considered the most frequently used second or foreign language in business both with native and nonnative speakers of English (Baker, 2009).

Despite the different treatment, English has always been a foreign language in Thailand. Until recently, English received an additional consideration as an international language from the Thai government. The deliberation was in response to the demands of the global economic development and competition, in particular within an intra-regionally economic and socio-cultural organization called "The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)" of which Thailand has been a member (Prapphal, 2008). Established in 1967, ASEAN comprise ten nations: Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDP, Malaysia, Myanmar, The Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. Their primary goal has been to accelerate the economic growth, social progress, and cultural development, with the urgent upcoming goal of creating an ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) due by 2020 where free trade, services, investment and air traveling within the region are allowed, starting in 2015:

The ASEAN Vision 2020 aims to create a stable, prosperous and highly
competitive ASEAN economic region, in which there is a free flow of goods,
services, investment and capital, equitable economic development and reduced
poverty and socio-economic disparities by 2020… ASEAN members are
negotiating intra-regional services liberalization in several sectors, including air
transport, business services, construction, financial services, maritime transport,
telecommunications and tourism… The ASEAN Single Aviation Market (SAM)
will introduce an open-sky arrangement to the region by 2015. The ASEAN SAM
will be expected to fully liberalize air travel between its member states, allowing
ASEAN to benefit from the growth in air travel around the world, and
encouraging tourism, trade, investment and services flows between member
states. (http://www.tceb.or.th/exhibition/why-thailand/business-
opportunities.html)

To meet the long-term goal and mission statements set forth by ASEAN and to
create the imminent AEC, English plays a major role in uniting these member states to
engage in collaborative work, research, and services intra-regionally (for details on
ASEAN, see http://www.aseansec.org/).

In relation to Thailand, English was first introduced into the country during the
reign of King Rama III (Baker, 2008, p. 137; Foley, 2005, 2007). During that time,

Thailand (formerly known as "Siam") started to open its borders and engage in trades with the Western Powers. Having been aware of the influence of westernization, which was seen as the future development of the country and the political threats from Western Powers, the king employed English teachers to teach his children in the late nineteenth century. As private instruction, the western educational methods were employed by English teachers from the western nations at that time (Baker, 2008). Therefore, English in this period was still unavailable to the general public in schools.

In 1921, English was taught in school, but access was made available only to the privileged group of the ruling class (Foley, 2005, 2007). Some examples were the court officials and administrative officers. Although English was available in school, it was treated as a foreign language and still inaccessible to the majority of the population in the country. However in 1960, English gained access to the public domain after it became part of the established Thai educational system. As a compulsory subject, students were required to learn English as a foreign language starting from Grade 5 in public schools. During this time, the instruction focused on formal lessons (i.e. reading and grammar). The classroom practice was teacher-centered and the teaching methods made use of rote learning and audio-lingual approaches.

In 1996, Thailand reformed its National Education Act, increasing the number of years students were required to finish compulsory education (Foley, 2005, 2007; Prapphal, 2008). In the previous National Education Act (which was implemented since

1960), the compulsory education covered Grades 1 to 6, of which English language instruction started in Grade 5. But in the recent Education Act of 1996, the compulsory education has been increased (from Grade 6) to Grade 9, with an option for students who wanted to pursue more education (either on vocational or academic tracks) to finish the compulsory education up to Grade 12, or its equivalent. Also with regard to the new National Education Act, the English language instruction syllabus was reformed. Instead of learning English from Grade 5, students in public schools are now able to receive it from Grade 1. The implementation of the new English language curriculum took effect nationwide after the National Syllabus was reformed in 1999. The rationale came from the national awareness of Thailand's role as an active ASEAN member in the Southeast Asian region and how the Thai government viewed English as a tool for international cooperation, networking, sharing of information with the global communities and for the country's economic development and competition, especially with other ASEAN countries (Foley, 2005, 2007; Prapphal, 2008).

After the year 2000, English took on a new role in Thailand. Although it was still considered an EFL by many Thais, English has now assumed an additional role as an international language (Baker, 2008, 2009; Horey, 1991). During this time, the National Syllabus's focus was on Thai students to be able to use English proficiently and incorporate English as life-long education so that they could compete economically with members of the ASEAN states (Prapphal, 2008, p. 139). In terms of the intra-regional

economic development, collaborative work and services, members of ASEAN also have agreed to allow easy mobility of their labor force within the region, this means workers and professionals from the member states could liberally seek employment and travel anywhere within ASEAN without securing any visas prior to traveling. A good example of how this directly benefited ASEAN members would be tourism, which has been the main industry generating the most income for Thailand (Horey, 1991). To be able to communicate internationally and compete economically with other ASEAN members, the Thai government has raised awareness of the importance of English language teaching and learning in Thailand with the goals that the new and future Thai generation would be able to engage in English international communication proficiently for life (Baker, 2008; Horey, 1991; Prappal, 2008).

To do so, the National Syllabus has changed the teaching methods from teacher-centeredness to student-centeredness (Foley, 2005, 2007; Prapphal, 2008). Instead of focusing on formal instruction that was exonormitive and not applicable to the real-life experiences of the students, English instruction in Thailand now centered on the functional-communicative approach, incorporating the local cultures and languages of students and of other ASEAN countries into English language instruction (Prapphal, 2008; Foley, 2005, 2007; Horey, 1991). The goal is for students to be able to use English and function as effective English communicators in the real world that particularly corresponds to the country's major money-making industry business (tourism), mobility

of the labor force, and other services within the ASEAN region. The timeline of English

in Thailand is summarized in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3
The Timeline of English in Thailand

King Rama III (1824-1851)	1921	1960	1996	2000-present
- English first came into Thailand; - Taught as private instruction, using the western educational methods, to royal children only.	- As an EFL; - Taught in school for the privileged group of the ruling class.	- As an EFL; - Taught as a compulsory subject in public schools, starting from Grade 5; - Teacher-centeredness; - Formal instruction (reading and grammar) using rote learning, audio-lingual approaches.	- As EFL; - The new National Education Act required that English be learned from Grade 1, but practice was fully implemented after a major reform of the National Syllabus in 1999.	- Also as an EIL; - Targeted English as life-long education, using a functional-communicative approach to teach in response to the needs to compete internationally and economically, particularly within the ASEAN group; - Student-centeredness.

2.3.2 Attitudes and issues of English in Thailand. The English roles have an

effect on the attitudes of the Thai people in general. As shown in Section 2.3.1, the

traditional view is that English is treated as an EFL in Thailand. In relation to this, the

general Thai attitudes associate English with a language of others (Glass, 2009, p. 533).

Being somewhat distant to both the Thai people and the Thai language, the motivation to attain proficient English use was consequently low (Horey, 1991, p. 157, Prapphal & Oller, 1982). Horey (1991) explained that since Thailand has never been colonized, English was viewed as a language of the elite group; most Thais had no interest in learning it in the past (p. 158). However, after the Thai government has increased awareness of English as an international language and emphasized the needs for effective English communicators in the economic and global marketplace and in tourism, the general attitudes towards English has been shifting to a positive manner (Foley, 2005). Put another way, it is no longer a luxury to know English. Instead, more Thais see it as a necessity for better employment, economic advancement, and workforce mobility within the ASEAN states and other international marketplaces.

The positive attitudes towards English are due to responses to the preparation for future economic changes within the ASEAN region and the reformed National Syllabus. To the latter, evidence has been seen in an increasing number of private international and bilingual schools in Thailand in the recent years. With regard to this, many schools need English teachers to teach students. Unfortunately, the notion of acquiring Standard English is still widely ingrained in the Thai people. Therefore, many schools prefer employment of the qualified native English speaking teachers to the qualified native Thai speaking teachers of English who can do the same, or better, job.

While the demand for native English teachers has been relatively high, the reality is that there are not many native English teachers wanting to teach in Thailand due to the poor salary offered. There are a large number of Thai English teachers in the country who can perform the same job, but remain unaccounted for because they are excluded from consideration. Since many Thai parents believe that authentic English must be taught only by native English speakers, there is speculation as to how effective their children will perform in English communication if taught by Thai English teachers. In addition to the Thai parents' mindsets, associating only Standard English instruction with native English teachers, there is a mismatch between the ambitious policy and the actual practice of English language instruction in Thailand. The issues are summarized below (Foley, 2005, 2007; Horey, 1991; Prapphal, 2008):

1) There are insufficient qualified English speaking teachers in the actual classrooms.

2) A large number of English language teachers in Thailand are native Thai speakers who are either not proficient or self-reported to be not confident in English communication. Since Thai is the first language for many and English is still viewed as a language of the others, imposing English into daily life communication is daunting and occurs infrequently in the actual classrooms.

3) Individuals speaking English with other native Thai speakers in the public tend to receive negative attitudes from others, a cultural aspect that detrimentally impedes

the spread of English in Thailand. Examples of direct harsh criticism and racial treatment are in the forms of derogatory remarks, e.g., having been accused of being pretentious, uncalled for, non-national, wanting to be a member of foreign groups, and so on. Since facework[2] is part and parcel of Thai culture, individuals receiving such direct pejorative comments from strangers usually view the remarks as personal attacks that in turn cause them to lose face or feel humiliated, in the public realm. To maintain positive face, most Thais tend to comply with the cultural norms to keep the collectivistic group happy.

Despite the attitudes and issues facing English language instruction, English seems to play multiple roles in Thailand, as described in Sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. As a foreign language, English has been seen as a language of the others and the elites; the motivation to learn it was low. But when English took on another role as an international language responding to Thailand's need to compete internationally and economically, it is now

[2] Facework is socially ingrained in collectivistic Thai culture. In Thai, there are acts of "gaining face" and "losing face". Gaining face is associated with positive face, or an act of maintaining a happy face for others to see, while losing face is related to negative face where an unhappy face is manifested. Since pragmatics is not the focus of this study, see Huang (2007) for details of facework.

considered a necessary language and the motivation to learn it has been relatively high. Despite the more welcoming attitudes and the widespread use of English communication in Thailand, resistance to learn English can still be found. But for those Thais who have been more open to English communication, their speech patterns may appear unique as a budding new variety of English which is crucial to this study. Currently, as the Thai language appears to be experiencing incremental changes from the widespread use of English within its public domains (i.e. news broadcasting, the media), it is inevitable to see ThaiE surface in the speech of these Thai English communicators. As Glass (2009) and Watkhaolarm (2005) commented almost a decade ago, ThaiE has the potential to be recognized as another English variety in the world as Thais incorporate more English use into their daily discourse. Presently, more Thais are using English to communicate with other Thais, non-native English speakers and native English speakers in their daily lives. The spread of English among this demographic group only seems to be reinforced by the Thai government's policy which aims to produce effective Thai English speakers to compete economically and internationally, particularly with other ASEAN member states. Finally, as a tool to accomplish the Thai government's goal in ASEAN, English has become part and parcel of the project in Thailand. Students are encouraged to learn English via the functional and communicative approach from Grade 1. The goal is to become more effective Thai English communicators in the global communities and intra-regional marketplace of Southeast Asia.

In the next chapter, the method of this study (i.e. participants, materials, and procedure) will be described.

Chapter 3

METHOD

This chapter consists of three sections. Section 3.1 describes the participants of the study. Section 3.2 explains the materials used in collecting the data, and Section 3.3 gives details of the procedure utilized in the research.

3.1 The Participants

The data for this study derives from 20 speech samples of ThaiE data: 12 speech samples from 12 highly educated native Thai speakers of English in the U.S.A. and Thailand, four speech samples from the media in Thailand, and speech transcript samples from four research articles. The participants in this study were considered speakers of ThaiE. The criteria for identifying them conformed to the definitions of the speakers of New Englishes, Asian Englishes, and particularly ThaiE addressed in Lim and Gisborne (2011), Hickey (2004), and Sarmah, Gorgi and Wiltshire (2011). Generally, their ThaiE evolved in the multilingual context of Asia where speakers have little exposure to native English speakers and their English variety emerged from the educational system. Specifically, the participants in this study:

- were native Thai speakers of English,

- were highly educated, with a minimum of a bachelor's degree,

- used English on a regular basis,

- were fluent in speaking English, and

- have been exposed to diverse English varieties to a certain degree.

I assigned the participants identification codes, composed of the letter N and numbers from 0 to 20, i.e. N01, N02, N03, etc. Consequently, the codes N01 to N12 refer to a group of participants whose speech samples were collected from the English questionnaires and English interviews with 12 highly educated native Thai speakers of English in America and Thailand: N01 - N04 were from the participants in the Southwestern U.S.A., N05 - N08 were from the participants in Central Thailand (Bangkok and its suburbs), and N09 - N12 were from the participants in Northeastern Thailand (Khon Kaen and Mahasarakham provinces). N13 to N16 represent the second set of the speech samples. In this set, I looked at four speech samples from the media in Thailand: two from television interviews, one from a television news report, and one from a talk radio program. Lastly, the third set of the speech data refer to N17 to N20. This set corresponds to the speech samples from four research articles[3] by Deveney (2005), Hayes (2008, 2009), and Wannaruk (2008).

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[3] The speech samples from this group were derived from four studies on English use and English language teaching in Thailand by Thai teachers and students. For the

The English backgrounds of the speakers from the secondary source were checked out by me from their work websites (for N09 to N12) and from the information the researchers described in the research articles (for N17 to N20). I found that, like the participants from N01 to N12, these speakers were also native Thai speakers of English, highly educated with a minimum of a bachelor's degree, used English on a regular basis, were fluent in speaking English, and have been exposed to different varieties of English to a certain degree.

3.2 The Materials

I employed a number of methods of data collection to enable me to look at English speech of highly educated ThaiE speakers and to cross-examine their speech with the speech samples from the media and the research articles. All materials used in my research were in English and from the following means:

- Ouestionnaires,
- Interviews,

speech data, see the transcript excerpts in Deveney (2005), Hayes (2008, 2009), and Wannaruk (2008).

- Speech samples from the television interviews, a news report, and a talk radio podcast from the media in Thailand, which were transcribed by me using Schiffrin (1994)'s simple transcription conventions, and

- Speech samples from the research articles, which were already transcribed by the researchers of the articles.

In this study, I conducted the English questionnaires (See *Appendix B* for the questionnaire questions) and one-to-one English interviews (See *Appendix C* for the interview questions) with the participants in the U.S.A. and Thailand. The questionnaire data was used in describing the demographic characteristics of the participants. The interview data served two purposes. The first was for me to assess the participants' English speaking ability, whether they were fluent in producing meaningful conversation while being interviewed in English. By meaningful, I mean I subjectively evaluated if each participant was able to conduct general English conversation and elaborate on the points that were being asked, or if their conversation were deemed coherent to me in sentences, not in words in isolation. For example, I asked N11 in (70) about a number of languages that she had taught in the past. Although N11 provided an answer in short utterances at first, she was able to elaborate on it to make me understand better. However, her English speaking ability would have been judged as "not fluent" and her speech data would have been excluded from the analysis, if she had appeared to be

unable to offer a further explanation to maintain the conversation; if she had remained

silent; or if she had answered only "yes" and "no", during the interview. The second

purpose of the interviews was to elicit speech data from the participants, as much as

possible, so that I could examine their English speech for my research.

(70)   R = Researcher; P = Participant

   R: So what language did you teach at that time? Or what languages did you

       teach at AUA?

   P: At AUA? Mostly Thai.

   R: Uh-uh.

   P: And I had ah you know just some part, I mean some hour that I went to

       teach at you know for the hotel person at ah Sofitel, but now it's the

       Pullman Hotel.

    The data from the media in Thailand and the research articles were used in cross-

examining the interview data from the participants in the U.S.A. and Thailand. This

cross-examination would allow me to see if ThaiE speech from my participants and

others from the media and the research articles showed any similarities or differences in

their ThaiE or not.

3.2.1 Questionnaires. Referring to the first set of the data collected; originally 13 educated ThaiE speakers (ten females; three males) participated in the study. The participants first completed the five-ten minute English questionnaires on their own; then I conducted one-hour English interviews with them. However, after reassessing the criteria for identifying highly educated ThaiE speakers in the participant pool, the data from only 12 participants (nine females; three males) were used in the analysis. The data of a female participant from the Northeastern Thailand group was excluded from the study because the member was not fluent in English. Although the member was highly educated, had a master's degree in English, and had taught English in a Thai university, the majority of her speech consisted of words in isolation such as "yes", "no", or silence, and she offered no elaboration when being interviewed. It was for this reason that I was unable to elicit a satisfied speech sample and the necessary information needed in the data collection. Therefore, her data was entirely excluded from the analysis.

The data from the 12 participants were used in the analysis. Of this set, the data was divided into three groups, based on the participants' locations. Group 1 included the speech data from four ThaiE speakers in the Southwestern U.S.A. Group 2 comprised the speech data from four ThaiE speakers in Central Thailand (Bangkok and its suburbs). Group 3 contained the speech data from four ThaiE speakers in Northeastern Thailand (Khon Kaen and Mahasarakham provinces). Based on the participants' completed English questionnaires, their demographic characteristics are reported in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

The Demographic Characteristics of 12 ThaiE Speakers in the U.S.A. and Thailand

	Sex	Age	Education	Use Eng as…	Years of Using English
Group 1: (N01 - N04) USA	4 females	39, 32, 44, 38 (m = 38.25)	2 PhDs; 2 Masters	All EFL	28, 15, 33, 7
Group 2: (N05 - N08) Central Thailand	3 females; 1 male	62, 36, 41, 24 (m = 40.75)	3 PhDs; 1 BA	All ESL	20+, 30, 30+, 12
Group 3: (N09 – N12) Northeastern Thailand	2 females; 2 males	39, 36, 35, 35 (m = 36.25)	2 PhDs; 2 Masters	3 EFL; 1 ESL	20, 22, 25, 20

According to Table 3.1, Group 1 (N01 - N04) comprised all female participants. Their average age was 38.25 years old. The first two participants had doctoral degrees, one in Geochemistry and the other in Industrial Engineering from U.S. universities. Both worked in a Southwestern U.S. university. While the first participant (N01) was a research scientist, the second participant (N02) was a part-time faculty member in the Math department. The other two participants had masters' degrees, with one in Education (N03) and the other in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) (N04). At the time of the data collection, N03 was a doctoral student in the Rhetoric, Composition and Linguistics program of a Southwestern U.S. university; N04 was currently not working. All participants from this group identified English as their

foreign language and had used English on a regular basis, as a language of communication in both their professional and personal contexts, ranging from 7 to 33 years at the time the data was collected.

Group 2 (N05 - N08) included three females and one male. All participants were originally from Central Thailand (Bangkok and its suburbs). Three participants with PhDs were from metropolitan Bangkok while one, with a bachelor's degree, was from suburban Bangkok. Their average age was 40.75 years old. N05 was the oldest participant in this group. She had a PhD in Linguistics from the U.S.A., had been a former head of the Western Languages department of a public Thai university in Bangkok for many years, and was currently an English teacher at her own private language school in suburban Bangkok at the time of the data collection. N06 also had a PhD, but in Biochemistry from Australia. She worked as a lecturer and a medical researcher of an international program in a public Thai university in suburban Bangkok. N07 was the only male participant in this group. He had a PhD in Marketing from Australia and was a lecturer of Marketing at an international university in Bangkok. N08 was the youngest participant in this group. She had a bachelor's degree in Arts from a public Thai university, and worked as a translator/interpreter for a Japanese company in Bangkok. All participants reported using English as their second language, mostly in their professional contexts, and ranging from 12 to more than 30 years.

Group 3 (N09 - N12) represents the speech samples from four participants in Northeastern Thailand (Khon Kaen and Mahasarakham provinces). Two participants were females, and two were males. All participants in this group were native of Northeastern Thailand. Their average age was 36.25 years old. Two had doctoral degrees in Pharmacy (N09 and N10); two had masters' degrees in TESOL (N11 and N12). N09 had a PhD in Pharmacy from the U.S.A. He was head of the Clinical Pharmacy division and a lecturer in both Thai and international programs of the Pharmaceutical Science faculty in a public university in Northeastern Thailand. N10 also had a PhD in Pharmacy, but from Australia. Similarly, she was a lecturer in both Thai and international programs of the same faculty and institution. N11 had a master's degree in TESOL from the U.S.A. and had been an English instructor at the Language Institute of the same university, similar to N09 and N10. N12 also had a master's degree in TESOL, but from a public Thai university in suburban Bangkok. He was an English teacher at a public Thai university in another province in Northeastern Thailand. At the time of collecting the data, N12 had just returned for a scheduled break from a study-abroad. His return was only for a short period of time to temporarily teach, but the primary goal was to collect data for his own PhD dissertation in the U.K. All participants in this group self-reported using English as their foreign language, except N10 who identified English as her second language. The difference in self-identification with English, as an EFL or ESL, among the participants is explained in the next chapter, based

on their interview data. The participants had used English in their contexts, ranging from 20 to 25 years until the time of the data collection.

       3.2.2 Interviews. I originally conducted the one-to-one English interviews with 13 highly educated ThaiE speakers in the U.S.A. and Thailand between December, 2011 and January, 2012, but the interview data from only 12 ThaiE speakers (nine females; three males) were used in the analysis. The interviews were unstructured and casual so that I could elicit as much natural speech as possible from the participants in their familiar and friendly environment such as in the participants' offices, the lobbies of hotels, restaurants, and the participant's residence. I used a Sony stereo digital voice recorder (model ICD-SX712D) to record the interviews and then transcribed the data, using the simple transcription conventions by Schriffin (1994). The data from the interviews were used in the analysis of ThaiE and the results of the participants' speech are revealed in the next chapter.

       3.2.3 Speech Samples from the Media. The second set of the data included N13 to N16, representing four English speech samples from the media in Thailand. N14 and N15 were the English interview excerpts from Thai English television programs. N16 was the speech data from a television news report, and N17 was an audio podcast from a talk radio program that was broadcast on the internet. All participants were educated

ThaiE speakers who had used English as a foreign language on a regular basis in their contexts. Their demographic information is depicted in Table 3.2.

N13 was a 5-minute speech sample that I video-recorded from a Thai English television news program in Thailand. In the data, a middle-aged female, Thai news reporter interviewed the new male British ambassador in Bangkok. The segment was aired on a Thai television channel in December 28, 2011. In this sample, the ThaiE speaker had a PhD in Sociology and Women's Studies from the London School of Economics in England and had used English as a foreign language in Thailand.

N14 represents a 3-minute speech data of an English television interview between two female ThaiE speakers. The first speaker was a news anchor who interviewed the second speaker, her television guest, who was the president of The Tourism Council of Thailand (TCT). The interview was about the security policy for tourists visiting Thailand. In this excerpt, both participants were native Thai speakers of English who had used English as a foreign language in their professional contexts for a certain time. While the news anchor had multiple graduate degrees from many countries (i.e. masters' degrees in Media Studies from the U.S.A., Sociology from Japan, and Media and Communications from the U.K, and a PhD in Sociology from Japan), the president of the TCT had a bachelor's degree from Thailand. Both speakers were fluent in speaking English. The interview was broadcast on a Thai English television channel on July 9,

2012 and could be accessed from the following web link:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9O2z15cp7hs.

N15 was a 3-minute speech sample from a television news report in Thailand. The speaker was an educated, young female, native Thai journalist of English. In this sample, she interviewed a female, Thai secondary school teacher who supervised her students in a project-based learning program in preparation to become a member of a group of world citizens of the ASEAN community in the year 2015. The data was televised in January 19, 2012 and accessible from this link:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=endscreen&v=_fYqCeLWmIQ&NR=1.

N16 represents a 25-minute speech data from a talk radio program called "Changkui in English". The radio host was a middle-aged male, Thai EFL speaker. He was educated with two masters' degrees in Engineering from Australia and Business Administration from Thailand. The data was in the form of an internet podcast (number 6), entitled "How many I's are there in Thai" and was broadcast in August 27, 2008. In this podcast, the Thai radio host interviewed his radio guest, a native German speaker who knew Thai, regarding the guest's knowledge of the Thai first person pronouns "I". The radio host was fluent in speaking English and had used English as a foreign language in his broadcasting context since his website was founded in 2006.

Table 3.2

Demographic Information of the Participants from the Media and Research Articles

	Sex	Age	Education	Use Eng as...	Years of Using Eng
Data from the Media:					
N13 (n=1)	1 female	middle-aged	PhD	EFL	n/a
N14 (n = 2)	2 females	middle-aged	1 PhD; 1 BA	EFL	n/a
N15 (n=1)	1 female	n/a	Bachelor	EFL	n/a
N16 (n =1)	1 male	40	Masters	EFL	n/a
Data from the Research Articles:					
N17 (n=5)	n/a	n/a	Bachelors	EFL	n/a
N18 (n=7)	6 females; 1 male	mid-career	Bachelors	EFL	n/a
N19 (n=1)	1 female	middle-aged	Bachelor	EFL	n/a
N20 (n=40)	20 females; 20 males	22-40	Bachelors	EFL	n/a

Note. N = a number of participants; n/a = not applicable.

3.2.4 Speech Samples from the Research Articles. The third set of the ThaiE speech data represents N17 to N20. The speech data from this set included speech samples from four research articles by Deveney (2005), Hayes (2008, 2009), and Wanaruk (2008). The participants from these studies were educated ThaiE speakers who had used English as their foreign language. They were school teachers and graduate students, interviewed in English by the researchers of the research studies. Their demographic information was summarized in Table 3.2.

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N17 included the speech samples from a group of native Thai teachers of an international school in Thailand (Deveney, 2005, pp. 163-165). In the study of *An investigation into aspects of Thai culture and its impact on Thai students in an international school in Thailand*, Denevey (2005) interviewed five native Thai teachers in English, asking them about their attitudes towards their Thai students' learning behaviors in the international classrooms. The participants in this study were considered ThaiE speakers for my study. Although Deveney (2005) did not reveal the information of these teachers regarding their sex, ages, and duration they had used English, the fact that they were school teachers teaching in schools in Thailand suggested that they were educated. To be school teachers in Thailand, they must complete a minimum of a bachelor's degree or they would not be employed as teaching professionals in schools in Thailand.

N18 represented the speech samples from seven mid career Thai teachers of English in Hayes (2008)'s *Becoming a teacher of English in Thailand*. In this study, Hayes (2008) interviewed seven participants in English (six females; one male), regarding their educational experiences, as learners and teachers within their social contexts, in becoming English language teachers in Thailand (p. 478). All participants were educated and had used English as their foreign language. Even though Hayes (2008) did not state how long his participants had used English in their contexts, their

demographic information provided in his study qualified them ThaiE speakers and their interview data was used in cross examination in this study.

N19 constituted a speech sample from Hayes (2009)'s *Learning language, learning teaching: Episodes from the life of a teacher of English in Thailand.* In this study, Hayes (2009) interviewed a middle-aged, female, Thai teacher of English from Northeastern Thailand. The interview was in English and focused on the participant's personal experience of learning English, learning to teach English, and her struggles to teach in her contexts (Hayes, 2009, p. 87). The participant was a native Thai teacher of English who learned English at an early age with volunteer teachers from Britain and America during the American-Vietnam War era. In addition, she had taught English in a public school for many years. Later, she became a teacher of English in a Teacher's College in Northeastern Thailand. The two-hour interview was recorded and transcribed by Hayes (2009), so the speech data from his participant represented another sample of ThaiE speech by a ThaiE speaker for my study. Although Hayes (2009) did not disclose his participant's educational level, her being a teacher in a Teacher's College suggested that she had to have completed at least a graduate degree. In addition, Hayes (2009) described that his participant had taught English for over 20 years in Thailand. This information could be interpreted as the participant had used English as a foreign language in her context for a long time.

N20 characterized the speech data from 40 graduate EFL learners (20 females; 20 males) in Thailand in Wannaruk (2008)'s study of *Pragmatic transfer in Thai EFL refusals*. The participants in this study were graduate students from various academic majors; most had never traveled to any English-speaking countries; and a few had studied in the U.S.A. for less than a year for their research work (Wannaruk, 2008, p. 320). Based on the information provided in Wannaruk (2008)'s study, her participants were considered ThaiE speakers for my study. Given that they were graduate EFL students whose ages were ranging from 22 to 40 years old, the information suggested that at least they had bachelors' degrees, had used English as their foreign language, and were exposed to English to a certain degree.

3.3 The Procedure

I examined three sources of English speech data for this study: the data collected firsthand from questionnaires and interviews with the participants in the U.S.A. and Thailand; the data from the media in Thailand; and the data from the research articles. Each data source involved different procedures.

3.3.1 Data from the Questionnaires and Interviews Involved:

- The IRB application,

- Recruitment of the participants,

- Scheduling of the location and setting for the questionnaires and interviews with the participants, and

- Transcribing and analyzing the data.

Before I recruited the participants, all IRB procedures were followed (see *Appendix A* for the IRB Approval Letter). The participants in the U.S.A. were recruited by me via emails, phone requests, and references from the current participants. Their appointments were spread out from the beginning of December, 2011 to the end of January, 2012. The locations to collect their data took place in the places that the participants were comfortable with and preferred, such as in a participant's office, the food court of a local mall, a university park, and a participant's residence.

For the participants in Thailand, my personal friends and contacts in Thailand assisted me in finding interested individuals who were identified as ThaiE speakers for my study. After pre-screening the potential candidates, I made several international phone calls and emails in both Thai and English to personally contact them over the months of November and December, 2011. I made further personal requests in Thai to schedule the meetings with the confirmed participants during the time I would travel to Thailand (between December 21 and December 31, 2011). Due to the long holidays, examination weeks and commencements in many Thai universities, a flood covering large parts of Bangkok and its suburbs, and my limited time being in Thailand, the

appointments and locations to meet with the participants were often rescheduled. In most cases, I traveled to meet with them at their convenience and according to their availability in their schedules and locations. The questionnaires and interviews were conducted in public places, such as in the lobbies of hotels, restaurants, and the participants' offices.

While the participants in the U.S.A. and Thailand spent five or ten minutes completing the questionnaires, the actual interviews, which were originally scheduled for 60 minutes, lasted between 1 and 1.5 hours per participant. The interview data was digitally recorded in English, using a Sony stereo digital voice recorder (model ICD-SX712D). It appeared that the longer the interview went, the more the participants felt comfortable with me interviewing them in English. Consequently, the more they relaxed and wanted to talk, thus resulting in longer interviews than scheduled. At the end of the interviews, the participants received a small bag of gifts as an appreciation for their participation (unknown and unsolicited by all participants). The gift bags contained boxes of chocolate candies, a personalized thank you note, and a small cash compensation ($20 per participant in the U.S.A.; 1,000 Baht or approximately $32 per participant in Thailand) in an enclosed envelope. The difference in the cash compensation was to offset their personal expenses for commuting to the meeting locations and for taking time out of their busy schedules to meet with me during the holiday season. After the speech data from all participants in the U.S.A. and Thailand

were collected, I transcribed their speech using the simple transcription conventions by Schiffrin (1994). Their speech data were used in the analysis.

3.3.2 Data from the Media in Thailand. The speech samples from the media were publicly available in the form of English interview excerpts, English news reports, and English talk radio podcasts in the public Thai television and radio programs and websites. For this study, I had viewed and listened to several TV and radio programs for many months and had chosen four English speech samples that best fit the criteria for the analysis. These samples were spoken by highly educated ThaiE speakers that I considered for my study. Their speech samples were transcribed by me, using the simple transcription conventions (Schiffrin, 1994), and were used in cross-examining the interview data from the participants in the U.S.A. and Thailand.

3.3.3 Data from the Research Articles. The interview excerpts of educated ThaiE speakers were already available in the research articles by Deveney (2005), Hayes (2008, 2009), and Wannaruk (2008). In this regard, I did not have to transcribe any speech of the participants. The format of these interview excerpts were in the form of simple conversational exchanges, not in phonetic transcription. For this reason, I only looked at the transcript excerpts of the ThaiE speakers from these research articles, and

their speech samples were used in cross-examining the speech data from the participants in the U.S.A. and Thailand and from the media in Thailand.

In the next chapter, I will present the results of this study.

Chapter 4

THE MORPHO-SYNTAX OF THAI ENGLISH

Previously in Chapter 2, I gave an overview of the comparative typology of World Englishes and Standard English. In this chapter, I will present the typology of ThaiE, based on the outline of Chapter 2. Specifically, Chapter 4 describes the morpho-syntax of ThaiE that are similar to the features found in World Englishes and Thai. The phonology and the sociolinguistics of ThaiE will be highlighted in Chapters 5 and 6 respectively.

The morpho-syntactic features of ThaiE in this chapter were drawn from all three data sources. To recapitulate, Source 1 constituted the fieldwork interviews with 12 highly educated ThaiE speakers in Southwestern U.S.A., Central Thailand, and Northeastern Thailand. Source 2 comprised the four media files, and Source 3 were derived from the four research articles. The findings of this study are revealed in two sections. Section 4.1 presents the features of ThaiE that are similar to World Englishes. Section 4.2 exhibits the features of ThaiE that resembles the native language of the speakers in this study.

The Morpho-Syntactic Features of ThaiE

Before we start, it is important to mention that, based on the data, there are three morpho-syntactic features that coexist in World Englishes and Thai. They involve the uses of:

- articles in the NPs,

- number (for English) and agreement (for Thai) in the VPs, and

- topicalization in the sentences.

For the article use, World English NPs tend to be collocated either with or without the articles, while Thai does not have the articles in its language (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006; Smyth, 2002). Therefore, it was possible to see the ThaiE NPs with or without the articles in the data.

In the case of number, World English users tend to use the invariant forms of the verbs to indicate number, such as singular or plural, in the VPs (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Because Thai does not have agreement (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006), number in the ThaiE VPs may not be marked.

Lastly is topicalization, to which Hickey (2004) and Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) often refer as left dislocation and front-focusing structures (in English sentences). The English left dislocation and front-focusing constructions are parallel structures of the Thai topic-comment structures. With regard to these matters, the topics (old information,

or focused NPs) are sentence-initial; the comments follow the topics and often appear as the explanation of the topics in the sentences (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Rizzi, 1997, Smyth, 2002).

From all three sources of the data, the results showed that ThaiE in this study shared certain morpho-syntactic features that were similar to those found in World Englishes and Thai. For illustration, Section 4.1 presents the features of ThaiE that are similar to World Englishes. Section 4.2 exhibits the features of ThaiE that resembles Thai, the native language of the speakers in this study. The conclusion will be that ThaiE has the structural characteristics of its own. Therefore, it is structurally considered a variety of English, like other World Englishes.

4.1 The ThaiE Morpho-Syntactic Features That Are Similar to the World English Features.

To provide a description of the ThaiE linguistic profile, I reviewed the World English morpho-syntactic properties in Chapter 2 and employed them as a checklist in assessing whether the ThaiE morpho-syntactic features in this study were similar or different from those of World Englishes. According to the data of this study, the morpho-syntactic features of ThaiE are present in two forms. One is in the form of the constituents and the other is in the sentences.

In the constituents, the uses of NPs, VPs, and PPs are shown. Whereas in the sentences, the description displays the uses of topicalization, auxiliary-inversion, and tag questions of the ThaiE speakers found in this study. Table 4.1 shows the morpho-syntactic features of ThaiE from the raw data that are also found in World Englishes, and the sentence examples are illustrated below.

Table 4.1
The Morpho-Syntactic Features of ThaiE from the Raw Data, as Typical for WE

Sources	Source 1		Source 2		Source 3	
	yes/no	%	yes/no	%	yes/no	%
I. In Constituents						
1. NPs						
1.1 Articles	yes	100	yes	100	yes	50
1.2 Genitive use	yes	41.66	no	0	no	0
1.3 Number	yes	100	yes	100	yes	75
1.4 Gender	no	0	no	0	no	0
1.5 Pronouns	yes	50	yes	25	yes	50
2. VPs						
2.1 Tense	yes	91.66	yes	50	yes	75
2.2 Aspect	yes	66.66	no	0	no	0
2.3 Modality	no	0	no	0	no	0
2.4 Number	yes	83.33	yes	100	yes	25
2.5Progressive use with stative verbs	no	0	no	0	no	0
2.6 Copular BE	yes	83.33	yes	75	yes	25
2.7 Unstressed DO	no	0	no	0	no	0
3. PPs	yes	100	yes	100	yes	25
II. In Sentences						
1. Topicalization						
1.1 Left dislocation	yes	91.66	yes	25	yes	50
1.2 Front-focusing	yes	25	yes	25	yes	25
1.3 Clefting	yes	8.33	no	0	no	0
1.4 Sentence-final emphasizers	yes	33.33	yes	50	no	0

| 2. Auxiliary-inversion | yes | 33.33 | yes | 25 | yes | 25 |
| 3. Question tags | no | 0 | no | 0 | no | 0 |

Note. Yes marks the WE features found in the ThaiE data, while no displays the WE features absent from the ThaiE data. In addition, the % sub-columns, found below a numbered source, refer to the percentage of persons from the numbered source who used a particular item/feature from the "sources" colomun.

According to the raw data, the results show that the ThaiE speakers in this study employed a number of the morpho-syntactic features that are similar to both World Englishes and Standard English. In Table 4.1, the features that mark *yes* represent the characteristics that ThaiE shares with World Englishes; the features marked with *no* display the features where ThaiE resembles Standard English. Specifically, ThaiE in this study is similar to Standard English in terms of uses of these five features:

- Gender in the NPs,

- Modality in the VPs,

- Disallowance of the use of progressive –'s with the stative verbs,

- Disallowance of the use of unstressed DO in the VPs, and

- Question tags.

Alternatively, other features (shown as *yes* in Table 4.1) refer to the ThaiE features that are similar to World Englishes.

Examples of the ThaiE morpho-syntactic structures are described below. Section 4.1.1 illustrates the ThaiE constituents, and Section 4.1.2 shows the ThaiE sentences.

4.1.1 In constituents.

The data showed that the NPs, VPs, and PPs in ThaiE were similar to the NPs, VPs, and PPs in World Englishes.

4.1.1.1 NPs. Like World Englishes, three features were either present, absent, or included both in the ThaiE NPs. They involved the uses of the articles, number, and pronouns. These three features were the most commonly found in the speech of the ThaiE users from the data. The genitive –'s use appeared to be lacking in some ThaiE speakers from Source 1, while speakers from Sources 2 and 3 did not show any deviant use of the genitive from their NPs. Gender was the only feature in the ThaiE NPs that showed similarity to the gender use in Standard English.

A. *Use of articles.* Four types of the article uses were discovered from the data:

- No articles,

- Use of the definite article "the" instead of the indefinite articles "a/an",

- Use of the indefinite articles "a/an" instead of the definite article "the", and

- Use of the indefinite articles "a/an" with collective nouns.

While the first three types of the article uses were mostly seen in the ThaiE NPs, the fourth type was rare.

(i) No articles (Φ). Many ThaiE speakers in this study tended to omit the articles from the NPs. Examples are shown in (71) and (72).

(71)   N01:   I've always been in *Φ science area*. I guess you know in Thailand.

Usually if you get, if you got good grades and automatically you, get into Φ science program.

(72)   N05:   Yes. Well to keep you Φ *big picture* of my of, my research. Ok, ah I think we have to relate the research to er, what is it, typology.

First in (71), N01 described her background as someone who had always found her academic ground in the science program. In the example, the ThaiE NP (in italics) should have had the article, but N01 omitted the article from her ThaiE NP. Such use could have been influenced by N01's L1, which is a language with no articles (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006; Smyth, 2002), or it is a feature of ThaiE. For Standard English users, N01s' NP would have been articulated with the article, as in "*the* science area".

Second in (72), N05 attempted to assist me in understanding her typological research from the so-called big picture. N05's ThaiE NP should have been employed with the article; hence "the big picture".

(ii) Use of the definite "the" instead of the indefinite "a/an". Interestingly, many ThaiE speakers in this study employed the definite article "the" with the NPs that were considered new information for the listeners. Such behavior may again be influenced by the Thai language, where the notion of definiteness and indefiniteness is absent (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006; Smyth, 2002). In Standard English, new information is used with the indefinite articles "a/an". However, the ThaiE speakers in this study tended to treat new information (for listeners) as specific, or familiar, knowledge (for speakers); therefore, the use of the definite article "the" with the new information NPs. Examples are shown in (73), (74), and (75).

(73) N08: Thai. She's Thai teacher.

R: Uh-um.

N08: And then she was, er she used to be *the lecturer* of the faculty of

Education, Silapakorn University.

(74) N09: And then I got *the* you know *scholarship* to do my doctoral degree in

the United States.

(75) N13: Thai people quite literally. How do you find social media useful as *the*

diplomat?

First in (73), N08 mentioned her first English teacher. When asked whether her teacher was a Thai or NES, N08 answered the question, and then elaborated on the credentials of her teacher. Although the latter was new information, N08 presented it as specific knowledge, but for her as a speaker, not for me as a listener. For this reason, "the" was used before the head noun "lecturer"; thus yielding "*the* lecturer" as seen in the example. However for Standard English users, the indefinite article "a" would have been employed in the NP, because the "lecturer" was considered new information to the listeners, and therefore "*a* lecturer".

Second in (74), N09 also treated new information as his specific knowledge although it was old information to the listener. In this example, N09 described his informational background. With regard to his academic training, N09 was awarded a scholarship to pursue a doctoral degree (in Pharmacy) in the U.S.A. after he had worked for his university for a few years. Again, the "scholarship" was considered new information in the context, but N09 treated it as his familiar knowledge, and therefore the use of "the" before "scholarship" in the example. Standard English users on the other hand would have said "*a* scholarship", because "scholarship" would be treated as new, or unfamiliar, information to the listeners.

Third in (75), N13 interviewed a newly appointed U.K. ambassador to Thailand for her television show. On one of the questions, the ambassador was asked about his take on the social media in Thailand. Instead of using the indefinite article "a" with the

NP "diplomat", N13 treated the NP as specific knowledge and considered this newly appointed British ambassador as the only one of his kind; hence "as *the* diplomat", while Standard English users would have said "a diplomat". However, in this example, it was possible that N13 was uncertain about the use of definiteness in the English NPs. Instead of using the ThaiE NP generically, as "a diplomat", she chose to use it specifically in her speech.

    (iii) Use of the indefinite "a/an" instead of the definite "the". Contrary to (ii), some ThaiE speakers in this study tended to treat old information as new information. When that occurred, they were likely to use only the indefinite articles "a/an" with the NPs. An example is shown in (76).

(76)   N12:   Uh-ha. Er I am an English teacher over here and um I have been teaching 2 years and then I went to the States and spent 1 year PURsuing a doctoral degree over there. But accidentally I have to come back and continue teaching for ah 2 years, and then luckily I got- I got the scholarship from the government, the Thai government, to pursue *a same degree*.

    In (76), N12 talked about his continuing education overseas. He explained that he was offered two back- to-back academic scholarships from the Thai government to pursue a doctoral degree in Applied Linguistics. First it was in the U.S.A.; then later in

the U.K. Since his study in the U.S.A. was interrupted, he returned to Thailand to resume

teaching before he was offered another scholarship to pursue the same doctoral degree in

the U.K. However, N12 treated the NP "same degree" as new information even though

this information was previously mentioned in the context. As a listener, I was aware that

N12 went to the U.S.A. to pursue a degree in Applied Linguistics before, so this

information was considered old information. Interestingly, N12 treated this old

information as new information, which could have been for the benefit of the listener (i.e.

me). Therefore, he used the indefinite article "a" before the NP "same degree". Standard

English users would have treated the same NP as old information, and thus "*the* same

degree".

(iv) Use of the indefinite articles "a/an" with collective nouns. This type of

article use was rare in the data. However, one example was found in (77).

(77)   N16:   Uh in facts um… yes, come to think about it, I don't know why we don't

use it on our daily basis. But WE as *a common people*, on the written

form, you can use Kaphajao (meaning "I" in Thai) freely. It's- it's, but

it's pretty fre- formal.

In (77), N16 used the indefinite article "a" with the collective noun "common

people", thus "*a* common people". There was no explanation for such a phenomenon,

except that this could either be a case of bad habit, or unconscious articulation of certain English collocations, i.e. "as a" by some speakers. Because this was the only occurrence found in the data, the results could not be generalized to all ThaiE speakers, regarding this type of the article use. Standard English users would mention this NP without any articles, i.e. "as (Φ) common people".

B. *Genitive use.* Depending on the ThaiE speakers, some used the genitive '-s in the NPs; some did not. However from the data, only the speakers from Source 1 showed the omission of genitive '-s in the NPs (41.66%) while no evidence was found in speech of the speakers from Sources 2 and 3 (0%).

Specifically, the genitive '-s appeared to be missing from some ThaiE speakers (i.e. N04, N06, N07, N11, and N12), especially when they mentioned their academic degrees. Instead of saying "a bachelor*'s* degree", or "a master*'s* degree", they said, "a bachelor degree" and "a master degree" respectively. The omission of the genitive '-s by these ThaiE speakers had nothing to do with the notion of *animacy* versus *inanimacy*, like those found in World Englishes (Hickey, 2004, p. 607). The absence of '-s between the words may have resulted from deletion of the –s sound between words by some ThaiE speakers, while some speakers (i.e. N01, N02, N03, N05, N08, N09, and N10) pronounced the '-s clearly, as in "a bachelor*'s* degree" and "a master*'s* degree".

C. Number. Number in the ThaiE NPs are illustrated in two manners:

- No number in the plural ThaiE NPs, and

- Pluralization of the ThaiE NPs, particularly in abstract nouns.

(i) No number. As in other World Englishes, the number feature may be dropped from the ThaiE NPs. Interestingly, the ThaiE speakers from all three sources tended to exhibit such behaviors. The lack of number in the ThaiE NPs could be influenced by the speakers' L1, where Thai nouns are not inflected for number (Baker, 2008; Bisang, 2006; Smyth, 2002) and, in turn, the final –s/-es sounds in the plural English nouns tend to be deleted from speaking. That means if the number feature is absent from the NPs, the speakers are unlikely to pronounce the plural suffixes –s/-es in the NPs. Such phenomena were evident in ThaiE of this study, and the examples are shown in (78) and (79).

(78) N15 (P = Participant)

P2: Uh, our school (undecipherable) in the road map and to get our students make into the other ASEAN communities is one of our (undecipherable) in the road map. So we-we realize that it's very important for the students to learn and to know about our-their birth /words/, and to get ready for the 2015. Why? Because they have to uh be *the global citizen*.

(79)   N17

    A: Yes, in *Thai school* they respect *the teacher* more – here the teachers are their friends.

    H: Very much – children in Thai school have more respect for *their teacher*. They must stop in the corridor when a teacher goes by. If the teacher is carrying something they ask if they can help. Here, they just run past.

In (78), P2 in N15 was a Thai secondary school teacher of English who gave an interview with a Thai reporter of English, regarding her school curriculum. In response to the Thai government policies, aiming at producing more young Thai speakers of English, students in P2's school were trained to be linguistically ready for global English communication. P2 explained the benefits of the learning-based approach that it equipped their students with the real-life skills that would assist them in becoming active English speaking members, especially of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) by the year 2015. In the example, P2 did not use the number feature in the NP "the global citizen". Although she meant to say "the global citizen*s*", her ThaiE speech was understood.

Another example was shown in a transcript excerpt of N17. In (79), Deveney (2005) interviewed some Thai teachers in Thailand, regarding the aspects of Thai culture and its impact on Thai students in an international school in Thailand. On one of the

questions, Deveney (2005) asked if these Thai teachers thought student behavior in Thai schools was different from student behavior in the international school that they were teaching at the moment. The answers from A and H, the Thai teaching staff, showed the omission of number in the ThaiE NPs (in italics). However in Standard English, number would have been added to these NPs, and thus yielding the generic reading such as "Thai school*s*", "the teacher*s*", "Thai school*s*", "their teacher*s*", and "*a* teacher" respectively. Again, similar to (75), A and H in (79) might be uncertain about the use of definiteness in the English NPs. Therefore, they chose to settle with the specific verbalization of the generic NPs.

(ii) *Pluralization of the abstract nouns.* From the data, the only evidence was found in N19, as in (80).

(80)   N19:   The first year we have to record every trainee's voice and send to the central supervisory unit. Ajarn […], an expert at the DGE, you know he will check if each trainee pronounce words correctly or not, if they have any problems about *pronunciations* or something like this.

In (80), N19 pluralized the abstract noun "pronunciation", as being the plural "pronunciation*s*", when she described her Teacher's College's protocol on the assessment of their English teacher trainees' English pronunciation. In addition, the word "Ajarn" in

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the example was a Thai honorific for teachers and professors in Thailand, and the DGE stood for the Department of General Education.

D. Gender. Gender use in the ThaiE NPs was similar to that used in Standard English. Namely, the ThaiE antecedent NPs (in bold) and their anaphoric pronouns (in italics) were matched in gender. If the antecedents mentioned the females, their anaphoric pronouns also referred to them as the females, and vice versa. There was no gender mixed up between the antecedents and the anaphoric pronouns in ThaiE. Therefore, it was concluded that gender in the ThaiE NPs of this study was consistent with the gender use in Standard English, as illustrated in (81).

(81) N19: Yes so I don't explain. Because **a friend of mine**, when *she* teach

grammar, *she* explain a lot…spend the whole period explaining and have

the students copy on the board, so it's I think it's a waste of time.

E. Pronouns. Although the ThaiE data in this study did not demonstrate the use of pluralized pronouns, i.e. "y'all" or "yous(e)", like in Indian South African English (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 57), two types of pronoun usages were discovered from the data:

- The inconsistent use of pronouns and

- Omission of pronouns.

(i) Inconsistent use of pronouns. Many ThaiE speakers in this study used the pronouns inconsistently in their English speech. If the antecedent NPs (in bold) were mentioned as singular, their anaphoric pronouns (in italics) may be referred to as plural, or vice versa. The inconsistent use of the ThaiE pronouns was likely to be related to the number use in the ThaiE NPs and deletion of the final sounds, in which deletion was the effect after the absence of number in the NPs. Two examples are shown in (82) and (83).

(82) N03: If they drive a taxi, they need they need to know how to get their

passenger, right? If they don't know how to speak English at all, it would

be difficult for them to to handle the difficulty when the **the passenger**

tells them where *they* want to go.

(83) N12: Oh yes, we have and we have **the Taiwanese teachers** who ah I think

hers- I think… English might be the second language for *her* because *she*

is very fluent.

In (82), N03 employed the anaphoric pronoun "they" to refer to the antecedent "the taxi passenger", which is similar to Standard English where the avoidance of *s/he* occurs in some native English speakers (E.V. Gelderen, personal communication, April

23, 2013). As mentioned, the inconsistent use of the ThaiE pronouns was relevant to the use of number in the ThaiE NPs and the deletion of the final sounds. Although inconsistent in terms of number, it was understood that the singular NP "the passenger" in N03's speech was meant to be plural and took the generic interpretation, and the pronoun "they" was referred to the plural passengers in the context.

The second example was shown in (83). The antecedent NP was "the Taiwanese teachers", and the anaphoric pronouns were "hers-", "her", and "she" respectively. In the example, "the Taiwanese teachers" were mentioned in the plural form while the pronouns "hers-", "her", and "she" in N12's speech were singular. Again, although the anaphoric pronouns were inconsistent with their antecedents in terms of number, I understood who N12 was referring to, a female Taiwanese teacher of English, as singular.

(ii) Omission of pronouns. In the transcript excerpt from N17, Deveney (2005) asked some Thai teachers at the international school in Thailand, regarding their opinions on the Thai school children's behaviors in the classrooms. Her scenario was that "many of our Thai students do not participate in lessons; they sit quietly and do not raise their hands to answer questions. Is this behavior part of being 'Thai' or is it just shyness?" (Deveney, 2005, p. 164). M, one of the Thai teachers, answered in (84). In her response, M omitted the pronoun "they" from her ThaiE speech (as illustrated by the zero subject), and the omitted "they" referred to the Thai students.

(84)   N17

      M: It is part of the Thai way – students have to listen to the teacher so (zero

              subject) are not brave enough to speak in class.

4.1.1.2 VPs. Like other World Englishes, many features in the VPs were either present or absent from ThaiE. Particularly, tense, number, and the copular BE were the three features most noticeable in all the data. Namely, the tense was inconsistent; number was either present, absent, or both; and the copular BE was sometimes missing. In addition, the aspect feature depicted the use of certain words (i.e. "already") to indicate the past habitual aspect, like Singapore English (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). However, the aspect feature was only evident in some ThaiE speakers of Source 1. The description of these features in the ThaiE VPs is present below.

     A. Tense. The inconsistent use of tense tends to be common among many ThaiE speakers in this study. Since Thai (L1 of these speakers) has no tense, the tense inconsistency exhibited in the ThaiE VPs may be influenced by the speakers' L1. Examples are shown in (85), (86), and (87).

(85)   R: So did you come to [   ] for the first time, or did you go somewhere else?

      N02:   Umm, it's the first time, but actually I stopped by in California and *stay*

              there for… 2 weeks with my friends, and my friends came here with me,

              she *help* me set up all the things.

(86)   N18:   I found it more interesting than any other subject because the other

subjects were in Thai, everything's in Thai but this one *is* a foreign

language so I was particularly interested in that.

(87)   N19:   The first time that I came here my teacher, my old teacher, *show* me

how to teach English and I *realize* that they taught the old way—just

only show them [students] how to pronounce, how to read and then

have them do by themselves, just teacher centered.

In (85), N02 responded to my question, regarding her first trip to the U.S.A. In the example, the past events were stated in the past verbal forms, i.e. "stopped" and "came". However, N02 did not inflect some verbs (in italics) to indicate the past events in her speech. For this reason, those verbs appeared in their root forms although they were meant to be inflected for the past events, as "stayed" and "helped" respectively; thus the tense inconsistency in N02's speech.

The second example was in (86). N18 provided Hayes (2008) with the reason why he had become an English teacher in Thailand. Although N18's initial interest took place in the past, his tense use was inconsistent throughout his speech. In the example, the copular BE (i.e. "is") should have been inflected for the past event, as "was".

The last example was in (87). N19 described how she had become an English teacher in Thailand. Although the events were supposed to represent the past story, N19 did not inflect all verbs in her speech to indicate the past tense. As a result, the uninflected verbs appeared in the present forms (in italics); hence another case of the inconsistent use of the tense feature in the ThaiE VPs.

B. Aspect. Similar to Singapore English, ThaiE speakers from the data used "already" to indicate the past habitual aspect. While "already" in Singapore English may occur before the main verbs, as in "He *already* go home" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008), "already" in ThaiE seems to occur after the main verbs. Examples are shown in (88) and (89).

(88) (a) N04: Oh…. Every time… before I prepare to take the TOEFL.

    (b) R: Uh-uh.

    (c) N04: Like ah, I prepare to take the TOEFL like um… next month.

    (d) R: Um-um.

→ (e) N04: Probably I start *already* a month ahead.

(89) N12: I pass 5 years old. That was- that was in terms of second language ac- ah in terms of second language acquisition, I can mimic the

accent, catch up the accent from the adult teacher.

     R: Right.

→   N12:   But I pass that moment *already* (laugh).

     R: (laugh) The critical period, huh?

     N12:   That's why- absoLUTEly! That word- that word, that's why.

Firstly in (88), N04 described her preparation to take a Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Although the story was recounted in the past habitual aspect, N04 still used all verbs in the present forms. In N04's speech, the use of "already" in (e) indicated that the action of "starting", or studying for the exam, took place repeatedly in the past. However, Standard English users would inflect the verbs as "prepared" in (a) and (c), and "started" in (e) respectively.

Secondly in (89), N12 talked about his acquisition of an English accent. In this regard, he admitted that it was difficult for him to acquire a near native accent. The reason was being that he had already surpassed the critical period at which he believed native accent, or native-like accent, was acquired. Therefore, as an adult learner of the L2 (English), N12 did not believe that he would be able to attain the native-like English accent at this mature age, and the use of "already" indicated the past habitual aspect in N12's speech.

C. Modality.   No deviant use of modality was found in the ThaiE data. It appeared that the ThaiE speakers in this study employed modality in the VPs just like the users of Standard English. Examples are "OK if people are in tourism, they need to know how to communicate with foreigners, who *may* or *may* not speak English as their first language..." in N03, and "And I think I-I *would* recommend ah grammar books like Azar." in N05's speech.

D. Number.   Number tended to be missing from the ThaiE VPs which in turn led to deletion of the final sounds in speaking. Examples are illustrated in (90) and (91).

(90)   N01:   But if I speak to, somebody for example at grocery stores, or somebody who just um , whom *don't* have experience with foreigners, then I's try to make conversation short or, maybe I would see first, how much um, they can understand my English.

 (91)   N04:   I told her ALL the time. I say [   ], why don't, why don't we start speaking English?

R: Uh-uh.

N04:   And she *start* a little bit.

R: Uh-uh.

N04:   And just *speak* like 5 minutes, and that's it.

In (90), N01 described her self-assessment of engaging people in English speaking. In the example, N01 used the verb "do" (in italics) generically as the invariant form of "do". The invariant "do" neither agreed with its singular subject "someone" nor inflected for number, and therefore, N01's speech was spelled out as "someone…*don't* have" without both agreement and number. Standard English users on the other hand would have showcased agreement and number in these VPs, as "someone *does*n't have"

Similarly in (91), the verbs "start" and "speak" (in italics) in N04 were spelled out without number and agreement with their subject "she". Interestingly, N04 had a tendency to treat many invariant verbal forms, i.e. "start" and "speak" in the example, as if they were the same, both in the present and past events.

E. Use of progressive with stative verbs. The use of –ing with stative verbs was not found in ThaiE. From the data, it appeared that these ThaiE speakers did not employ any progressive with stative verbs, e.g. "I'm *loving* it", like in Indian English (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Therefore, ThaiE in this study was similar to Standard English in this matter.

F. Copular BE. The copular BE tended to be absent from the ThaiE VPs. The omission of the copular BE was indicated by (Φ). The example is shown in (92).

(92) N04: Oh, English (Φ) probably very- very-very late. You know it (Φ) just like

ah in… Burirum province, it (Φ) a little bit, you know, in that remote area.

G. Use of unstressed DO. Interestingly, the ThaiE speakers from all sources of the data did not employ the unstressed DO in the periphrastic constructions to indicate the present, or past tense, like speakers of some varieties of World Englishes (see Chapter 2). Consequently, it is induced that ThaiE in this study is similar to Standard English in this fashion.

1.1.3 PPs. Three types of the PP uses were depicted in ThaiE of this study:

- No prepositions in the phrases,

- Use of unconventional prepositions in the phrases, and

- Addition of superfluous prepositions to the phrases that did not need any prepositions.

While the first and seond types were most common, the last type was relatively rare.

A. No prepositions (Φ). Three examples are illustrated in (93), (94), and (95).

(93) N02: When I speak to someone a lot.

R: Um-um.

N02: And, and I adapt (Φ) their style. I, I know exactly their style so I can tell

where they from.

(94)   N07:   And then I ah back to Bangkok *to study (Φ) the college.*

(95)   lέεw   phîi   klàp   pai   thîi   kruŋ.thêep   **pai**   **rian**

      and then   I   return go   at   Bangkok   go   study

      má.hǎa.lai

      university

      'and then I returned to Bangkok to study in college'

Firstly in (93), the verb "adapt" was usually followed by the preposition "to". But in the example, N02 omitted the P "to" from the V "adapt"; thus, the P was missing in her speech. However, for Standard English users, the P would have been present; hence, yielding "adapt *to* their styles".

Secondly in (94), N07 dropped the P "in" from the PP "to study in college" from his speech. Interestingly, N07's speech example appeared to be transliteration of the Thai VP in (95) (in bold) into the English PP in (94) (in italics). In (95), the Thai P "pai" was realized in the ThaiE PP as "to" in "*to* study college" (in italics) in (94). However, when N07 transliterated the Thai VP complement "rian má.hǎa.lai" into the English

phrase "study *in* college", the English P "in" in the English phrase was dropped; therefore, "study (Φ) the college" in N07's speech.

Thirdly in (96), N11 dropped the P "from" (in the PP "from the States") from her speech. Although this example did not sound like the transliteration of Thai to English, N11's lack of the preposition in the PP "from the States" could be due to her low proficiency of English in general. Because in the Thai language, the preposition "from" had to be present in the Thai PP "*from* the States" like in English, which is shown in bold in (97). Therefore, N11's use of the PP in (96) may not be the same case as N07 in the previous example.

(96)   N11:   Even though I know my major was in English, but I don't know. It-it was
             kind of weird you know to me, to speak English, just to your friends, and
             staff. But after- after I *came back (Φ) the state*, I think its better (laugh).

(97)   lăŋ   [ ]   klàp   maa   **jàak**   **ʔà.mee.rí.kaa**   **láew**
       after   N11's name   return come   from   America   already
       'after I came back from the States'

B. Use of unconventional prepositions.   Unlike Standard English users, ThaiE users in this study tended to employ unconventional prepositions in the English PPs. Three examples are shown in (98), (99), and (100).

(98) N16:   Interes-TING and um just to *give you the credit of, of our lis-te-NER*

that uh, uh [   ] is the one who came up with those ten Is (laugh).

GNS: Well, I have to say thank you very much for the information.. I think that

helps me a lot, so thank you very much.

(99)   N06:   Like I choose [   ] University, uh-ha. I, I have to pass IELTS and pass the

ah interview from the interviewers, and after that I can *add in the system*.

(100) R: Not a foreign language. They use it=

N09:   =They use it *in a daily basis*.

In (98), N16 was ending his talk radio program. While expressing gratitude to his

German native speaker (GNS) talk radio co-host, N16 used the preposition "of" (instead

of "to") in the phrase "to give credit *to* someone". Therefore while some ThaiE speakers,

such as N16, said "to give the credit *of* someone", Standard English users would say "to

give credit *to* someone".

In (99), N06 described how she was admitted to a doctoral program in an

Australian university. After she passed the International English Language Testing

System (IELTS) test and finished an admission interview with the chosen university, she

was admitted into the program. In the example, N06 used "add *in*", instead of "add *to*", when she described the admission process.

Thirdly in (100), N09 used the preposition "in" in the phrase "*on* a daily basis".

C. Add unnecessary prepositions. Although adding extra prepositions to the phrases was relatively uncommon, as opposed to the first two uses of the ThaiE PPs, four speakers from Source 1 (i.e. N04, N06, N11, and N12) exhibited such use. Examples are shown in (101) and (102).

(101) R: Um-um. S- so, how can you tell if that person has ah you know good or bad proficiency?

   N04: Um.

   R: In terms of speaking. How can you tell?

   N04: On, I think the… English proficiency even though play *the major of role* that sometime…it's based on their… attitude of the person.

(102) N06: You can, you can um *contact to the em- ah Australian Embassy* and ask for the scholarship.

First in (101), N04 explained how she assessed the English speaking proficiency of others. To this regard, N04 took many factors into consideration, although the

language proficiency of the speakers was considered a big part of it. Interestingly, N04 inserted the preposition "of" in the NP "the major role"; hence resulting in the superfluous preposition inside her ThaiE NP "the major *of* role". The insertion of additional Ps in N04's speech was not influenced by her background languages (i.e. Khmer, Central Thai, and Southern Thai). Instead, it could be caused by bad habit of pronouncing the NP "the major role" with the unnecessary preposition, or that N04 was tired when the interview was being conducted.

Second in (102), N06 added the preposition "to" to the verb "contact" in the sentence "you can contact the Australian embassy" when she elaborated on the information, regarding financial aid, for the prospective students wanting to pursue education in Australia. In the example, "contact" means "to communicate with someone", and it does not need any preposition. Standard English users would have uttered "to contact someone", or in this case, N06 was meant to say "to contact the Australian embassy". However in the example, N06 inserted the preposition "to" to the sentence; thus "contact *to* the em-ah Australian Embassy".

4.1.2 In sentences.

Topicalization (i.e. particularly uses of left-dislocation and front-focusing structures) was the most used feature in the ThaiE sentences from all the data. Auxiliary-inversion was found in some ThaiE speakers, especially in those with low English

proficiency. For these speakers, auxiliary-inversion was allowed in indirect questions and embedded sentences, like some World English users. Lastly, the use of invariant question tags was not found in the data. It appeared that the ThaiE speakers in this study employed the question tags like in Standard English.

4.1.2.1 Topicalization.

(i) Left dislocation. Many ThaiE speakers from Sources 1, 2, and 3 used left dislocation, as a primary topicalization device, in their English speech. As mentioned in Chapter 2, left dislocation was usually found in the topic-comment construction. The topic part was a focused NP which was located in the left of the sentence, and the comment served as an explanation of the topic and was located in the right, after the topic, in a full sentence (Hickey, 2004; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Examples are shown in (103) and (104).

(103)   N02:   Yes, but right now. I did not have a chance to speak Mandarin anymore because, **my grand mom, I mean grandfather and grandmother**, *they pass away.* And normally **my, parents**, *they prefer to speak Thai.*

(104)   N18:   **Being a teacher**, *it means that* not only do you teach the students, you have to guide them, you have to do, what do you call – er advise them.

First in (103), N02 mentioned the family members with whom she spoke using her background languages (i.e. Mandarin and Thai). In the first part of the answer, N02 mentioned the grandparents as the first topic (in bold); the sentence that followed (in italics) was the comment; and the entire structure signaled the first use of left dislocation in N02's speech. Similarly on the second left dislocation structure, the topic was her parents (in bold); the comment was the following sentence (in italics); and the entire sentence indicated the second left dislocation structure in N02's speech.

Second in (104), N18 provided a definition of being a teacher. The topic was the NP "Being a teacher" (in bold). The comment was "it means that…" (in italics). The entire sentence was considered the left dislocation structure employed by N18.

(ii) Front-focusing structures. Front-focusing structures were the second most used topicalization device among the ThaiE speakers in this study. Two types of strategies were described in Chapter 2. One was by moving the VP-object to the front of the sentence (in bold) to receive emphasis within the context (Hickey, 2004). Another strategy was accomplished by using a cleft sentence, which also appeared in Irish English (Hickey, 2004).

For the first strategy, the VP-object was moved out of its original position in order to be located sentence-initially. Two examples, in (105) and (106), illustrate this strategy.

(105) N16: Umm because **Khaw and Tua-eng** (meaning "you" and "I" respectively),

I usually use among female.

(106) I: So read and translate into Thai?

N19: Yeah, and **a lot of worksheets**—have them do and after that tell them

the correct answers.

First in (105), N16 described the use of the intimate Thai pronouns "Khaw and Tua-eng" (meaning "you" and "I" respectively) to his German native speaker talk radio co-host. Both pronouns are usually employed by Thai females who are very close to one another, such as close friends. In the example, the VP-object "Khaw and Tua-eng" were originally the object of the V "use". As a VP-object, it was moved out of the VP [used ~~Khaw and Tua-eng~~ among female] to be located higher in the sentence IP [I usually use *t* among female]. When that happened, the VP-object "Khaw and Tua-eng" was spelled out as the front-focusing structure. As a result of the internal merge in the syntax, the moved VP-object became the topic of the topic-comment construction. The comment was the leftover sentence "I usually use among female". And, the entire sentence was considered topicalization by the use of front-focusing structure.

Similarly in (106), N19 described the teacher-centered teaching method of English in a Thai high school. N19 expressed strong dislike for this teaching approach,

because it focused only on rote learning and grammar instruction. Students did not learn to communicate and use the English language in a meaningful way. For this reason, the teacher-centered teaching approach was believed to do more harm than good in N19's opinion. Not only were students given a lot of homework, but they also had to work out the English grammar themselves. In addition, their English teachers were not helpful either. They merely gave students the answers to the homework.

In the example, the VP-object (in bold) was moved out of its original position in the VP [have them do a lot of worksheets]. After the derivation had completed, the VP-object "a lot of worksheets" appeared at the beginning of the sentence; thus receiving the emphasis in the context and considered the topic of the topic-comment construction.

(iii) Clefting. Clefting refers to the use of "it's…" at the beginning of a sentence (Hickey, 2004). Interestingly, clefting was only found in one ThaiE speaker (i.e. N07). The example is shown in (107).

(107)   N07:   Because I- I-I use to remember. I still remember that *it's one day keep*

                    typing for 40 pages, and then suddenly it's gone.

In (107), N07 described a mishap when writing his master's thesis in Thailand. Due to a glitch in a computer, N07's manuscript had disappeared before he could save the data that he had worked on that day. In response to the event, he described the feeling of

being paralyzed and in total shock. In the example, N07 topicalized the traumatic event by using the cleft sentence "it's one day" to emphasize the intensity of the event that went wrong that day.

(iv) Use of the sentence-final emphasizers. In World Englishes, examples of the sentence final-adverbs are "but, now", and "so" (Hickey, 2004; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). For example, "He was a great runner, *but*" in Irish English, where "but" means "though" in Standard English (Hickey, 2004). However in this study, some ThaiE speakers (i.e. N02, N04, N14, and N16) employed the sentence-final adverb "so" as another topicalization device in their speech. As pointed out in Chapter 2, the difference between this topicalization device and the other three devices aforementioned was the location of the emphasis in the sentences. While left dislocation, front-focusing structures, and clefting placed the emphasis on the fronted NPs and the cleft constructions; the sentence-final emphasizers focused on the entire sentences.

Unlike Irish English, the use of the sentence final-adverb "so" in ThaiE of this study appeared to have pragmatic functions as well. According to the data, the use of "so" by these ThaiE speakers tended to signal the end of the speakers' thoughts, or that the ThaiE speakers no longer wanted to discuss the particular topics anymore, because it might lead to dead-end conversation. Therefore, the use of "so" sentence-finally in ThaiE was likely to represent the periods in the ThaiE sentences. Unlike Irish English,

the ThaiE "so" did not mean "though" or "however". Four examples are shown in (108), (109), (110), and (111).

(108)   N04:   Well... I have all the 4 books.

               R: Uh-uh.

→   N04:   Of Twilight *so.*

               R: Oh.

→   N04:   Oh, I think so. That's a very nice place I want to go, *so.*

               R: Uh-uh. So in that Twilight series, do they talk a lot about Italy?

             N04:   Oh, a lot! Have, have, you know.

               R: Really?

→   N04:   Yeah. Ya, on the, you know… the family vampires, can destroy a

                      lot of stuff, *so.*

               R: Um-um.

→   N04:   They're, stay in Italy, *so.*

               R: Oh ok. Ok.

First in (108), N04 used the sentence final-adverb "so" (in italics) four times in four utterances. Initially, I interpreted N04's use of "so" as a conjunction, expecting her to complete her thoughts in full sentences, as a sequence of matrix clauses, so, and

dependent clauses. However, after the initial assessment of how the sentence final-adverb "so" was used, two conclusions were made. One was that N04 tended not to finish her thoughts in complete sentences; therefore, the adverb "so" was left hanging at the end of the incomplete sentences. Another was the use of "so" in this manner appeared to signal to the listeners that the speakers' sentences had ended; any unfinished thoughts should be inferred by the listeners without the speakers explicitly verbalizing them in the complete sentences. Interestingly, all ThaiE speakers who employed the sentence final-adverb "so" seemed to exhibit similar behavior like N04.

(109) R: So, who do you speak Mandarin with?

N02: Ah, just mom and dad, or maybe, grandmother, grandfather, but they are already passed away *so*.

R: Oh, I'm sorry.

Second in (109), N02 used the sentence final-adverb "so" (in italics) to emphasize the fact that her grandparents had passed away. In addition, the use of "so" indicated that N02 did not want to invite, or discuss, anything further on the subject of her grandparents. For this reason, I offered my apology for making her feel uncomfortable and then changed the topic.

(110) N14:

P1: Do you think that um that will you know maybe boost the

confidence of-of tourist in Thailand.

P2:   Yeah. Umm, it will help though. But anyway, if that's a plan and

→   then no implement, they will not achieve *so*. So I mean, this is at

        least a good start that we have such a things, but depend on, as I

        said, four- four sector.

Third was an interview excerpt of N14 in (110). P1 (a Thai news anchor of

English) interviewed P2 (president of the Thai Tourism Authority) on a television show.

They discussed tourism in Thailand, commenting that the Thai government should have

come up with an immediate plan to ensure better safety and security for foreign visitors

in Thailand. In the example, P2 used the sentence final-adverb "so" (in italics) to

intensify the fact that no plan would be successful if no one took the initiative to

implement it. They needed to incorporate all four sectors (i.e. the government, the

private sector, the provincial authorities, and the general public) to make the security plan

effective.

(111)   N16:   I, I…. I, sometimes you would hear that., but so… But then it's not very

               common and you won't say that to the more senior people, *so*.

The final example was from N16, a Thai talk radio host of English. In (111), N16

discussed the use of the Thai first person pronoun with his German native speaker co-host on a radio program. N16 suggested to his foreign co-host not to use the English loan pronoun "I" with any older Thai people in Thailand. The practice was uncommon in N16's opinion. In the example, not only was the "so" used in emphasizing N16's strong conviction on the culturally inappropriate use of the English pronoun "I" in the Thai context, but the "so" also signaled hisco-host of N16's incomplete thought, e.g. "so *don't use it*".

4.1.2.2 Auxiliary-inversion. Like other World Englishes (see Chapter 2), some ThaiE speakers in this study allowed auxiliary-inversion in their indirect questions (e.g. I wonder *where does he work*) and subordinate clauses (e.g. They know *who has Vijay invited tonight*), while there was no auxiliary-inversion in direct questions (e.g. *When you are* coming home?).

In regard to the auxiliary-inversion use, it should be noted the results varied from speakers to speakers. For the ThaiE speakers who exhibited the World English auxiliary-inversion trait, their English proficiency seemed to be lower than the ThaiE speakers who did not display these usages. For the speakers that shared the World English auxiliary-inversion usages, two patterns of their auxiliary-inversion were found in the ThaiE data. Namely, auxiliary-inversion was

- used in the indirect questions and subordinate clauses, but

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- not used in the direct questions.

(i) Auxiliary-inversion was used in indirect questions and subordinate clauses.
Many ThaiE speakers from all three data sources tended to invert the subjects and auxiliaries of the indirect questions and subordinate clauses in their speech. Examples are shown in (112) and (113).

(112) R: Do you think accent is significant?

N02:   Umm in the first time? I have no idea about *how important is it*.

(113) I: So you were writing letters in English for Thai girls to send to America?

N19:   To America yes […] and everyone wants to see *who's the writer*. Oh,

only the student…and some of them pay me extra money for my study.

In (112), N02 attempted to answer a question, regarding the importance of accent in English speaking. N02's response expressed the ignorance of accent before she came to America. While verbalizing her answer to the direct question, N02 did not move the subject "it" out of the VP [it BE how important]; thus resulting in no auxiliary-inversion in her indirect question. Put another way, the subject "it" and the auxiliary verb "is" (i.e. the inflected form of BE) in N02's indirect question were not inverted. While for

Standard English users, the subject and the auxiliary would have been reversed; thus resulting in the sentence "I have no idea *how important it was*".

Similarly in (113), N19 described her pride in earning supplemental income at a young age. During the Vietnam War era, N19 provided English writing services (i.e. letters) to Thai girls, having American boyfriends, and assisted them in mailing the letters to America. Due to her outstanding services, many clients wanted to know who she was, and were surprised to discover how young she was. When describing the "who she was" part, N19 inverted the subject and the auxiliary verb in her indirect question, thus resulting in the auxiliary-inversion in her sentence. In other words, N19 allowed the inversion of the subject "the writer" and the auxiliary verb "is" in the subordinate clause, where the verb was moved up, from V to I. The result yielded the inversion of the subject and the auxiliary in the subordinate clause, as "to see *who's the writer*" in N19's speech. However for Standard English users, there would not be any movement of the verb. The subject and the verb would have stayed in-situ, hence "to see *who the writer is*".

(ii) There was no auxiliary-inversion in direct questions. Contrary to (i), a few ThaiE speakers in this study did not use auxiliary-inversion in their direct questions. Examples are shown in (114) and (115). The results may have been influenced by the

speakers' L1 (i.e. Thai for both speakers), where there is no auxiliary-inversion in making

Thai questions, both direct and indirect, in general.

(114) N07: It's just keep shut down the computer and went to sit in front of the faculty

of the building and then feel (sigh)….oh, my god! 40 pages is gone! *What*

I'm going to do? I couldn't rewrite it (laugh).

(115) N16: Ok, welCOME to [   ] on, I don't know, I have lost count. *H-how- how*

many episode we have? But it's still a sinGLE digits, and… we have a co-

host, a foreigncy (foreign?) co-host (laugh). And this is our old friend,

Khun [   ].

In (114), N07 described the distress and mental anguish after losing his master's

thesis work as a result of the computer glitch. While reliving the moment, he had no idea

how he could rewrite the thesis in time for graduation. Then he ended the comment with

a helpless laugh. In the example, N07 did not invert the subject "I" and the auxiliary verb

"am" in his direct question. Therefore, the direct question resulted in "What *I'm* going to

do?" For Standard English users, the subject and the auxiliary verb would have been

inverted, hence "What *am I* going to do?" in the same direct question.

Another example was from N16, the talk radio host. In (115), N16 started his

program by talking to himself and was meant to ask "how many shows have we had so

far?" However, like N07, N16 did not invert the subject "episodes" and the auxiliary verb "have" in his direct question. Therefore, the direct question resulted in the no auxiliary-inversion: "how many episode we have?" (in italics). In the example, N16 used the Thai word "khun" to introduce his German native speaker co-host to the program. "Khun" had many meanings in Thai i.e. as a polite Thai pronoun, meaning "you" for both singular and plural second persons; as a neutral honorific, like "Mr., Mrs., Ms." in English.

   4.1.2.3 Use of question tags. The data showed that the ThaiE speakers in this study seemed to use the question tags like the Standard English users. However, the Thai question tags (i.e."chai mai" and "rə") were detected briefly when two speakers code-switched, or appeared to make the rhetorical questions for a few seconds, during the interviews. Although the Thai question tags rarely occurred in the data, it should be mentioned in this study.

   "Chai mai" was composed of two Thai words, yes (for "chai") and a yes/no marker (for "mai"). When used together, "chai mai" became a formal question tag in Thai on the one hand. On the other hand, "rə" was an informal Thai question tag. In the data, two ThaiE speakers employed the Thai question tags in their English speech when discussing the Thai first person pronouns and the Thai context. Because the focus of this study was not on code-switching, I interpreted the use of a few Thai words in the English

speech by some ThaiE speakers as evidence of Thai words that entered the English

lexicon. Examples of the Thai question tags in ThaiE are shown in (116) and (117).

(116)　　　　(a)　　N16:　Ok. And the next one, that's the hard one….

　　　　　　(b)　　GNS: Yeah.

　　　　　　　　　　　　Z

　→　　　　(c)　　N16:　Kaphajao, *chai mai?*

　　　　　　(d)　　GNS: Huh?　　　　　　Kaphajao, yes.

　　　　　　(e)　　N16:　Kaphajao is a very, very forMAL way of saying I.

　　　　　　(f)　　GNS: Ok.

(117)　　　　R:　　Ah when I graduated from [ ] University, I got a job offer at the

　　　　　　　　　university too.

　　　　　　N05:　At [ ]?

　　　　　　R:　　Yes.

　→　　　　N05:　In, in [ ] *rə?*

　　　　　　R:　　Yes, yes, but- but=

　　　　　　N05:　=Oh, we missed, huh?

　　　Firstly in (116), N16 started talking about the new Thai pronoun "kaphajao".

Because the extremely formal "kaphajao" was hardly used by most Thais, N16 was

uncertain if he addressed the pronoun correctly. For clarification, he asked his German native speaker co-host in (c) if that was the word that the co-host wanted him to explain; thus meaning "Kaphajao, *isn't it?*" In addition, because the pronoun "kaphajao" had many syllables to pronounce, it was possible that N16 might be caught in figuring out the way to explain the pronoun from L1 (i.e. Thai) to L2 (i.e. English), and therefore, the spell-out of the L1 question tag (in italics) in the example.

Secondly in (117), N05 reversed her role, from being an interviewee to an interviewer, and asked me about my background. I mentioned that I was offered a teaching position at her university in Bangkok when she was head of the Western Languages Department. However, I turned it down and took a position elsewhere. In this example, the context was Thai and there were many long Thai place names (i.e. illustrated in [ ]) addressed in the exchange. For some reason, N05 used the informal Thai question tag "rə" (in italics) in asking me if it was her campus that I turned down for employment. Then, she expressed disappointment that she and I had missed an opportunity to meet each other.

Consequently, the data from all three data sources show that ThaiE is similar to both World Englishes and Standard English. Table 4.2 summarizes the features of the ThaiE constituents that are similar to World Englishes; Table 4.3 illustrates the features of the ThaiE sentences that resemble World Englishes. The features that are not mentioned in both tables are the features that are similar to Standard English.

Table 4.2

A Summary of the Morpho-Syntactic Features in the ThaiE Constituents That Are Similar to World Englishes

Ranking	Source 1	Source 2	Source 3
1	Articles in NPs Number in NPs PPs	Articles in NPs Number in NPs PPs Number in VPs	Number in NPs Tense in VPs
2	Tense in VPs	Copular BE in VPs	Articles in NPs Pronouns in NPs
3	Number in VPs Copular BE in VPs	Tense in VPs	Number in VPs Copular BE in VPs PPs

According to Table 4.2, five main results were revealed with respect to the ThaiE constituents:

- Number (i.e. to indicate singular or plural) was found to be the most absent features in the ThaiE NPs. The evidence was seen in all three sources of the data, as shown in Section 4.1.1.1C. Interestingly, the features article in the NPs, number in the VPs, and the PP uses ranked first in Sources 1 and 2, while these features were found in second, first, and third in Source 3.

- The tense inconsistency in the ThaiE VPs were the second most features employed in Source 1, while tense was ranked third in Source 2 and first in Source 3. Examples were demonstrated in Section 4.1.1.2A.

- Number in the VPs was the third most features shared by the ThaiE speakers from two sources (i.e. Sources 1, 3), while it was ranked first in Source 2. To this

regard, many ThaiE speakers were unlikely to inflect the verbs for singular or

plural. Like many World English users, the ThaiE speakers tended to use the

invariant forms of the verbs in the ThaiE VPs, as illustrated in Section 4.1.1.2D.

- ThaiE shared a great deal of similarity to World Englishes in that some features

  tended to be absent (i.e. articles in NPs in Section 4.1.1.1A, copular BE in

  Section 4.1.1.2F), inconsistent (i.e. tense in VPs in Section 4.1.1.2A, pronouns in

  NPs in Section 4.1.1.1E), or demonstrated unique usages (i.e. PPs in Section

  4.1.1.3) in the constituents.

- The four features of ThaiE that were not shared with World Englishes were the

  uses of gender in the NPs, modality in the VPs, genitive use in stative verbs, and

  the unstressed Do in the VPs. To this regard, the uses of these four ThaiE features

  were similar to Standard English.

Table 4.3
A Summary of the Morpho-Syntactic Features in the ThaiE Sentences That Are Similar to
World Englishes

Ranking	Source 1	Source 2	Source 3
1	Left dislocation	Sentence-final emphasizers	Left dislocation
2	Sentence-final emphasizers Auxiliary-Inversion	Left dislocation Front-focusing Auxiliary-inversion	Front-focusing Auxiliary-inversion

From Table 4.3, two results were found in terms of the ThaiE sentences:

- Topicalization (in Section 4.1.2.1) was the most popular device used by the ThaiE speakers in this study. Interestingly, while left dislocation appeared to be the most common structure among speakers from Sources 1 and 3, front-focusing structures came second. Front-focusing structures were popular in the ThaiE speakers from Sources 2 and 3. In addition, the use of sentence-final adverbs (i.e. "so") was found to be the most used topicalization device in Sources 1 and 2. With this regard, the sentence final-adverb "so" in ThaiE served two main functions: (i) as a syntactic emphasizer of the entire sentences, and (ii) as a pragmatic marker, signaling to the listeners that the speakers' sentences had ended.

- Auxiliary-inversion (in Section 4.1.2.2) was the second most used features among the ThaiE speakers in this study. That meant many ThaiE speakers tended not to invert the subjects and the auxiliaries in the direct questions, while auxiliary-inversion was allowed in the indirect questions and subordinate clauses, like World Englishes. However, the auxiliary-inversion varied from speakers to speakers, which could be related to their English proficiency.

4.2 The morpho-syntactic features of ThaiE that resemble Thai.

Regarding the syntactic difference between Thai and English in Chapter 2, it was expected that some Thai morpho-syntactic features may, to some extent, be present in the speech of the ThaiE speakers in this study. As Hickey (2004) mentioned, the background languages of the World English speakers, who were especially bi- and multi-lingual, may contribute to the output of the L1 features in their English. However, such phenomena varied from speakers to speakers, due to a degree of intra-speaker and stylistic variation (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 19). As expected, the results from the three data sources showed that ThaiE exhibited a certain degree of the Thai morpho-syntactic features, which some of these Thai features are WE characteristics too. Table 4.4 shows the features of Thai from the raw data that were present in the English speech by the ThaiE speakers of this study.

Table 4.4
The Features of Thai Exhibited in ThaiE from the Raw Data

Description	Source 1		Source 2		Source 3	
	yes/no	%	yes/no	%	yes/no	%
1. Topic-comment	yes	91.66	yes	25	yes	50
2. Topicalization	yes	91.66	yes	50	yes	50
3. Topic-drop	yes	83.33	yes	50	yes	75
4. Topic-chain constructions	yes	50	no	0	yes	25
5. No case/no agreement	yes	83.33	yes	100	yes	25
6. No articles	yes	100	yes	75	no	0
7. Classifier phrases	no	0	no	0	no	0
8. Serial verb constructions	yes	16.66	yes	25	no	0

Note. Yes means the ThaiE data has the Thai features in it; no means the data does not have any Thai features in it. In addition, the % sub-columns, found below a numbered source, refer to the percentage of persons from the numbered source who used a particular feature from the "description" colomun.

 Table 4.4 reveals five results, as follows:

•   Topicalization, topic-drop, and no case/no agreement are the four most common

    Thai features found in English speech of the ThaiE speakers from all three data

    sources. Interestingly, the ThaiE speakers in this study employed left dislocation

    and front-focusing structures, as the most common topicalization devices, in their

    English speech. In turn, both topicalization devices are related to the topic-

    comment constructions, where the Thai topics are the fronted English NPs, and

    the comments are the immediate English sentences which in some cases

    demonstrate the dropping of the topics. The examples will be shown in Sections

    4.2.1 and 4.2.3. The no case/no agreement features of Thai are found in the ThaiE

    speakers from all three sources of the data, and the examples will be illustrated in

    Section 4.2.5.

•   The Thai topic-chain constructions are detected in the ThaiE speakers from

    Sources 1 and 3. The examples will be demonstrated in Section 4.2.4.

- The no article features are evident in the ThaiE speakers from Sources 1 and 2. The no article features are relevant to the absence of the articles in the ThaiE NPs, as illustrated in Section 4.2.6.

- Interestingly, the Thai serial verb constructions are evident in a few ThaiE speakers of Sources 1 and 2, as shown in Section 4.2.8. In this case, the ThaiE speakers' English proficiency appeared to be relatively low, compared to the speakers who did not use the Thai serial verb constructions in their English speech.

- The Thai classifier phrases are the only Thai feature not found in this ThaiE data. Therefore, it was believed that the Thai classifier phrases were not allowed in the ThaiE speech samples of this particular study. However, it should also be noted that the findings may be inconclusive at this time, due to the small amount of ThaiE speech samples being examined and the few number of participants in the study. It is possible that some ThaiE speakers may say "cup of tea", if the interview context is expounded to their social interactions. For this reason, I did not find evidence of the Thai classifier phrases in the ThaiE data of the present study.

In connection with these results, the sentence examples will be shown below:

4.2.1 Topic-comment. As explained in Chapter 2, the topic-comment constructions are commonly seen in a topic-comment language, such as Thai. In this regard, the Thai topic-comment structures are inextricably linked to the two topicalization devices found in English: left dislocation (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008) and front-focusing structures (Hickey, 2004).

Like the English topic, the Thai topic is usually a fronted NP that occurs sentence-initially, functions as an emphasis, tell us what the sentence is about, signals old information, and can be repeated (Rizzi, 1997; Smyth, 2002). On the other hand, the Thai comment is parallel with the English focus where new information is elaborated on, after the topic. Two examples are shown, in (118) and (119), to demonstrate the use of the topic-comment constructions in ThaiE.

(118) N19:   At that time I was 16, she say no. [When] you get older you can

go, but **teenagers** *I don't want you to go* because when you come

back maybe you change your appearance like an American. She

didn't like [that], she want me to be a typical Thai girl.

(119) N20:

EFL20:   Sorry. **Now** *I don't have enough time*. I will next time.

Firstly in (118), N19 explained why her mother prohibited her from traveling abroad as an exchange student. The transcript excerpt derived from Hayes (2009)'s "Learning language, learning teaching: Episodes from the life of a teacher of English in Thailand". The ThaiE topic was "teenagers" (in bold) and the ThaiE comment was "I don't want you to go" (in italics).

Another example was from N20. An EFL participant in Wannarak (2008)'s study of "Pragmatic transfer in Thai EFL refusals" responded to a request for an interview from a younger person. In (119), the ThaiE topic was "now" (in bold), and the ThaiE comment was "I don't have enough time" (in italics).

4.2.2 Topicalization. Similar to topicalization in other World Englishes, the ThaiE speakers in this study made use of topicalization quite frequently. See Section 4.1.2A for the examples of topicalization devices used by these ThaiE speakers in the study (i.e. left dislocation, front-focusing structures, clefting, and the sentence final-adverb).

4.2.3 Topic-drop. Topic-drop is an omission of the morpho-syntactic subjects in a sentence, which is allowed in Thai. Interestingly, many ThaiE speakers in this study dropped the morpho-syntactic subjects (i.e. mostly "I") in their English speech, like

speakers of colloquial Singapore English (Sato & Kim, 2012). Topic-drop is indicated by the "zero subject", and the examples are shown in (120) and (121).

(120) N02: So I can purchase some, maybe Asian food easier than I thought, in the first time. I thought that (zero subject) have to bring all the thing yeah.

(121) N16: Even including Attama, so we still have like 7 missing which (zero topic) have no clue.

Firstly in (120), N02 learned that Asian food was available in America. She did not have to ship it from Thailand in order to maintain her diet of Thai cuisine while living in America.

Secondly in (121), N16 discussed the use of the Thai first person pronouns Is on a talk radio program. While on the show, N16 forgot the other seven Thai pronouns, so he remained mute on the subject. The word "attama" in the (121) was one of the Thai first person pronouns on the list, but it was used specifically by the Thai Buddhist monks. In the example, the missing pronoun is "I", which is the first personal pronoun of N16. Because the subject pronoun "I" is dropped from the sentence, zero topic is spelled out in N16's speech.

4.2.4 Topic-chain constructions. The topic-chain constructions refers to the liberal omission of the pronominal argument (Sato & Kim, 2012). When the structures are used, we will see that the empty topics (i.e. presented by [Φ]) co-indexed with their original topics (in bold). Interestingly, some ThaiE speakers in this study employed the Thai topic-chain constructions in their English speech. Examples are illustrated in (122), which are previously mentioned in (84) but shown again here, and (123).

(122) N17

  M: It is part of the Thai way – **students** have to listen to the teacher so [Φ]

     are not brave enough to speak in class.

(123) N18: **Dad** only proud of the boys in the family, [Φ] pay more attention on the

     boys, better than the girls.

In (122), N17 M described the learning behaviors of Thai students in an international school's classrooms. The omitted pronominal argument was "they", which co-indexed with the original topic "students" in the context.

In (123), N18 described the gender preference by her father. The sons were more valued than the daughters. In the example, the empty topic was "he", which co-indexed with its original subject "dad".

4.2.5 No case/no agreement. Thai is a word order language, very analytic, and SVO (E.V. Gelderen, personal communication, November 10, 2012). It is for this reason that Thai is a language without case and agreement while English has both case and agreement (Baker, 2008; van Gelderen, 2012; Smyth, 2002). From the data, the no case/no agreement of Thai appeared to reflect on the absence of number in the ThaiE VPs. Namely, the ThaiE speakers in this study tended not to inflect the ThaiE Vs with number, which indicated singular or plural in the present tense. Examples of the no case/no agreement use of ThaiE were illustrated in Section 4.1.1.2D, which was under the use of number in the ThaiE VPs.

4.2.6 No articles. Thai is a language without articles (Bisang, 2006). As expected, some ThaiE speakers in this study make use of no articles in the English NPs that require the articles. Examples of the no article features in ThaiE were shown Section 4.1.1.1A (i).

4.2.7 Classifier phrases. To express number in the Thai NPs, Thai speakers use the numeral classifier phrases as a device in their Thai speech (Bisang, 2006). Interestingly though, none of the ThaiE speakers in this study employed the Thai classifier phrases to indicate number in their English speech.

My findings may be due to several reasons. First, the interview data did not include every aspect of the participants' life, so the speech data of this study were limited to the participant's specific talks, which were about their teaching and using English in their professional contexts only. Second, it was due to the small pool of speakers in this study. If the study had involved an extensive data collection of speech samples from a wide range of ThaiE speakers from different social contexts and for a long period of time, there might have been more conclusive evidence of the ThaiE speakers, using the Thai classifier phrases in their ThaiE speech.

Unfortunately, for this study, I only examined the synchronic data of ThaiE from a small pool of speakers, and I found no evidence of the speakers, using the Thai classifier phrases in their ThaiE speech at the moment. For these reasons, I was convinced that the Thai classifier phrases were not allowed in ThaiE. However, the findings may be inconclusive at this time. More research, with a larger pool of speakers and with different research designs, is needed to confirm the results, whether the use of Thai classifier phrases is generally evident in ThaiE.

4.2.8 Serial verb constructions. The Thai serial verb constructions refer to the use of multiple verbs in one sentence, and these verbs share the same discourse topic. While the verbs are explicitly addressed, the shared thematic subject may be absent from

the sentence. For this reason, the Thai serial verb constructions (in bold) tended to co-occur with the topic-chain constructions (in italics) and topic-drop (i.e. presented by [Φ]).

However, there is a difference between the serial verb constructions and the topic-chain constructions. On the one hand, the serial verb constructions usually involve motion verbs, such as *come* and *go*, and the event structure is often understood as one single event, which is accomplished by the use of multiple verbs within one sentence. On the other hand, the topic-chain constructions involve the use of many verbs as well, but each verb represents its independent event. Interestingly, some ThaiE speakers in this study employed the serial verb constructions in their English speech. An example is shown in (124).

(124)   N05:   Yes. *Some students*, even in the USA **came**, *[Φ]* do not **learn** English at
                all.

In (124), N05 offered her opinion, regarding the culture of some Thai students in America. N05 employed not only the serial verb construction (in bold), but also the topic-chain construction (in italic) and topic-drop (in [Φ]) in her sentence. For Standard English users, the example would be considered a run-on sentence.

Consequently, the raw data from all three sources showed that ThaiE were similar to Thai to some extent. Table 4.5 summarizes the features of Thai that are allowed in ThaiE.

Table 4.5
A Summary of the Thai Features Found in ThaiE

Ranking	Source 1	Source 2	Source 3
1	No articles	No case/no agreement	Topic-drop
2	Topic-comment Topicalization	No articles	Topic-comment Topicalization
3	Topic-drop No case/no agreement	Topicalization Topic-drop	No case/no agreement

The results from Table 4.5 show four aspects of the Thai features in ThaiE:

- Topicalization, topic-drop, and the no case/no agreement are the features that were found to be common in ThaiE from all three sources. While topicalization and topic-drop may co-occur in many cases, the Thai no case/no agreement features are displayed in the absence of number in the ThaiE VPs.

- The Thai features that rank first in ThaiE are the no articles from Source 1; the no case/no agreement from Source 2; and the topic-drop from Source 3.

- Other Thai features that appear in ThaiE are the topic-comment structures, which often co-occur with topicalization (i.e. in the left dislocation and front-focusing structures in particular, where the fronted NP is the topic and the following sentence is the comment), the topic-chain constructions, and the serial constructions.

- The only Thai feature that is not used in ThaiE of this study is the pattern of use of the Thai classifier phrases. No evidence was found in the data of this study at the moment.

In conclusion, this chapter presents the morpho-syntax of ThaiE in relation to World Englishes and Thai. Overall, the study shows that the morpho-syntactic features of ThaiE are similar to both World Englishes and Thai. The findings are summarized below.

1. ThaiE shares the following features with World Englishes:
   - Absence of the articles in the NPs,
   - Absence of the Copular BE in the NPs
   - Inconsistent use of tense in the VPs,
   - Inconsistent use of pronouns in the NPs,
   - Unconventional use of prepositions in the PPs,
   - Use of topicalization, especially in the forms of left-dislocation and front-focusing structures, and by using the sentence-final adverb "so" as a syntactic emphasizer of the entire sentences and as a pragmatic marker, signaling to the listeners that the speaker's sentences have ended,
   - Disallowance of auxiliary-inversion in direct questions, and

- Allowance of auxiliary-inversion in indirect questions and subordinate clauses.

2. ThaiE resembles Thai in terms of uses of the following features:

- Topic-comment,
- Topicalization,
- Topic-drop,
- Topic-chain constructions,
- No case/no agreement,
- No articles, and
- Serial verb constructions.

The only Thai feature not found in ThaiE of this study is the use of Thai classifier phrases.

Based on my findings, it is reasonable to say that ThaiE represents a combination of both World Englishes and Thai. However, due to a degree of intra-speaker and stylistic variation (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008) and speakers' English proficiency (Hickey, 2004), some features of World Englishes and Thai may be more or less pervasive in the speech of the ThaiE speakers of this study. To generalize the findings, more research with a larger pool of speakers and different research designs is still needed.

In the next chapter, I will present the phonological features of ThaiE, based on the data of this study.

Chapter 5

THE PHONOLOGY OF THAI ENGLISH

In this chapter, I will describe the phonology of ThaiE, based on the data from Sources 1 and 2. The data from the third source were excluded from the chapter, because the transcript excerpts were textual. Simply put, no audio files accompanied the data in Source 3; hence no phonological data were available for examination.

Chapter 5 comprises four sections. Section 5.1 illustrates alteration of the vowel sounds by the ThaiE speakers of this study. Section 5.2 presents the sound substitution which occurred in the consonants, and the focus of this section will be on four consonantal groups: stops, fricatives, affricates, and liquids. Section 5.3 explains two phonological processes that result in the substitution of the consonantal sounds in ThaiE: devoicing of the final consonants and reduction of the consonantal clusters. Section 5.4 pertains to issues of stress, tone, and intonation of ThaiE in the data.

The Phonological Features of ThaiE

With regards to the phonological features, I looked at the ThaiE data from Sources 1 and 2. The data from the first source were obtained from the interviews that I conducted during my fieldwork in Southwestern U.S.A, Central Thailand, and Northeastern Thailand. The data from the second source comprised the video and audio files from the media in Thailand. The data from the third source (i.e. the research

articles) was excluded from this section, because the transcript excerpts from the research articles were textual only. There was no phonetic transcription that was available in those studies.

In both sources of the data, I first examined the phonological features of the ThaiE speech myself several times. Then, I compared the noticeable deviations of the participants' vowel and consonant pronunciations with the audio files and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) transcription of those words in an online free English dictionary, known as The Free Dictionary (http://www.thefreedictionary.com). In the Free Dictionary website, words are transcribed in IPA, and pronunciations of the words are sounded out in both American English and British English.

To confirm my results, I had a male native speaker of American English, who had been a trained linguist and a Ph.D. student in the Linguistics program of a U.S. Midwestern university, listen to the interview data from Source 1. To be specific, I asked my consultant to listen to the middle segments of the interview data, from minutes 20 to 40, where the participants were comfortable enough to speak in English during the interviews, and the focus was on the interviewees' speech.

With regard to such interviews, Milroy (1987) mentioned that "it was hard to categorical about the appropriate length of an interview" (p. 39). An interview may be from one to two hours, or it could be as short as 20 to 30 minutes (Milroy, 1987, p. 39). The goal for me was to elicit the speaker's pattern of language use over a long period of

time because I was a stranger to them. However, "when interviewed by a stranger, a speaker will settle down to a pattern approximating to his or her everyday interactional style after about the first hour" of the two-hour interviews (Milroy, 1987, p. 39). Since my participants were interviewed approximately one hour each, my consultant was asked to listen to the sample data only in the middle sections of the interviews, hence minutes 20 to 40 of each interview, given that the patterns of the participants' language use were already settled down.

After listening to the sample data, my consultant pointed out the deviant pronunciations in the sample data from Standard American English. I compared the notes, and the results were shown. As for the data from Source 2, which were relatively shorter than the data from Source 1 (i.e. one 5-minute speech sample, two 3-minute speech samples, and one 25-minute speech sample), I examined the data a number of times myself and compared the distinct pronunciations of noticeable vowel and consonant sounds of the speakers with The Free Dictionary.

Four major aspects of the ThaiE phonological features will be covered in this chapter:

- The use of vowels,
- The use of consonants,
- The phonological processes, and

- Stress, tone, and intonation.

Table 5.1 shows the results of the ThaiE phonological features from the raw data. The

description and examples of the ThaiE phonological features are illustrated, as follows:

Table 5.1
The Phonological Features of ThaiE from the Raw Data

Description	Source 1		Source 2	
	yes/no	%	yes/no	%
I. Vowels: sound alteration	yes	33.33	no	0
II. Consonants				
1. Stops	yes	25	no	0
2. Fricatives	yes	58.33	yes	25
3. Affricates	yes	8.33	no	0
4. Nasals	no	0	no	0
5. Liquids	yes	41.66	yes	25
III. Phonological processes				
1. Devoicing of obstruents	yes	41.66	yes	50
2. Reduction of consonant clusters				
2.1 Deletoion	yes	91.66	yes	100
2.2 Epenthesis	yes	8.33	no	0
IV. Stress, tone, and intonation				
1. Stress	yes	83.33	yes	75
2. Tone	n/a	n/a	no	0
3. Intonation	n/a	n/a	no	0

Note. Yes means the WE features are found in the ThaiE data. No shows that the WE features are absent from the ThaiE data, and n/a stands for not applicable. In addition, the % sub-columns, found below a numbered source, refer to the percentage of persons from the numbered source who used a particular item/feature from the "description" colomun.

5.1 Vowels

According to the data, four participants from Source 1 altered the vowel sounds in certain words. Three types of vowel alteration were noticeable:

5.1.1 Changes from the diphthongs (in italics) to the monophthongs (in bold).

(125) a.　　ɪə　→　i　　　　in "area", from [ˈɛərɪə] to [ˈɛə**i**]　　　　(N10)

　　　b.　　əʊ　→　ʊʊ　　　in "Cambodia", from [kæmˈbəʊdɪə] to [kæmˈb**ʊʊ** dɪə]

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　(N04)

　　　c.　　aɪ　→　ə　　　　in "Chinese", from [tʃaɪˈniːz] to [tʃəˈniːz]　　(N12)

(125) shows the pronunciation of the vowel sounds by some ThaiE speakers, which were noticeable and changed from diphthongs to monophthongs. From the example, N10 in (125a) monophthongized the diphthong [ɪə] in the word *area* to be [i]. Instead of pronouncing *area* as [ˈɛərɪə], N10 enunciated it as [ˈɛə**i**], changing the [ɪə] to [i]. Similarly, in (125b), N04 changed the English diphthong [əʊ] in *Cambodia* [kæmˈbəʊdɪə] to be a Thai long monophthong [ʊʊ], and therefore the pronunciation of [kæmˈbəʊdɪə] was heard as [kæmˈb**ʊʊ** dɪə], with the Thai [ʊʊ], in her ThaiE speech. Lastly, in (125c), N12 replaced the diphthong [aɪ] in *Chinese* [tʃaɪˈniːz] with the schwa [ə]; thus resulting in the pronunciation of [tʃəˈniːz], instead of [tʃaɪˈniːz].

5.1.2 Raising the vowels to the higher placement.

(126) ɛ → e　　　　from the past form of "read" [rɛd] to the present form [r**e**d]　(N08)

This phenomenon was evident only in N08's speech. In (126), N08 switched the pronunciation of *read*, from the past form "[rɛd]" to be the present form "[red]", on and off during the interview. Such occurrences could be due to a combination of her thinking too fast in English and a slip of the tongue. While she was thinking of *read* [red] in the present form, she hastily pronounced it with the past form of *read* [rɛd]. Therefore, I heard [rɛd], instead of [red], and vice versa, where the two words were supposed to be opposite in usages during the interview. Despite the sporadic pronunciations of *read*, it should be noted that N08's English speaking proficiency was excellent to me. However, the interview was conducted at the end of her long-hour working day. It was possible that N08 might not be in the best state of her linguistic performance at that particular time where pronunciation of the present and past forms of *read* was switched. To hear N08's sample of the sound, click the icon on the file to listen to:

Sample of N08 sound file.wma

5.1.3 Lowering the vowels to the lower placement.

(127) e → ɛ   from the present form of "read" [red] to the past form [rɛd]   (N08)

In (127), again, N08 pronounced the simple present verb *read* [red] as its past

form, changing from [red] to [rɛd], while she was telling me about the types of books she

liked to read. Her favorite reads ranged from fictions such as The Lord of the Rings, and

Harry Potter, to nonfictions such as the books written by Barack Obama, and Hilary

Clinton.

On the other hand, no vowel alteration was found in the ThaiE speakers from

Source 2. A limited amount of the speech data from the video and audio files could have

been one of the factors contributed to no evidence of the vowel alteration in Source 2.

However, vowel alteration was evident in Source 1, due to the relatively richer amount of

data collected from the larger number of participants available.

5.2 Consonants

Sound substitution occurred in four groups of the consonants: stops, fricatives,

affricates, and liquids.

5.2.1 Stops.

(128) a.   t → Thai "td"   in "Washing*t*on"   (N11)

       b.   t → w   in "institu*t*e"   (N11)

       c.   nd → ŋ   in "depe*nd*"   (N08)

The stops were enunciated with three different sounds. For example, the English

voiceless [t] was changed to the Thai voiceless unaspirated [t], which sounded like the

"td" sound for many English listeners, as in (128a). Another tendency was the English [t]

was changed to the glide [w], as in (128b), and the stop [d] in the final consonant clusters

was changed to the nasal [ŋ] as in (128c).

5.2.2 Fricatives.

(129) a. z → s in "bu*s*" (N10), "Chine*se*" (N12), and "nerv*es*" (N12)

  ʃ → s in "Engli*sh*" (N08)

  vz → f in "themsel*ves*" (N16)

  b. z → t in "memori*ze*" (N04)

  v → b in "ha*ve*" (N09)

  ɵ → t in "*th*ree" (N08), "for*th*" (N04), and "*th*ird" (N04)

  ɵ → d in "Nor*th*east" (N12), and "*th*ough" (N09)

  ʃ → d in "Briti*sh*" (N04)

  c. v → w in "equi*v*alent" (N12), "e*v*ery" (N09), "inter*v*iew" (N12),

        "moti*v*ation" (N11), "*v*ery" (N09), and "*v*ocabulary" (N08)

Three types of the sound substitution were recognized from the data: changes from voiced fricatives to voiceless fricatives, as in (129a); changes from fricatives to stops, as in (129b); and changes from fricatives to glides, as in (129c). Interestingly, N16's pronunciation of "themsel*ves*" in (129a) was also a case of deletion of the final consonants, where the final [z] in "themsel*ves*" was dropped first, and then the leftover voiced [-v-] was substituted with the voiceless [f]; thus, resulting in the changes from fricativization to defricativation. However, it should be mentioned that the sound substitution of fricatives, from voiced to voiceless fricatives, could be due to hypercorrection in some Thai speakers of English (E.V. Gelderen, personal communication, November 10, 2012).

5.2.3 Affricates.

(130) ʧ → d   in "tea*ch*"   (N11)

Only one example, in (130), was found where the voiceless affricate [ʧ] was changed to the voiced stop [d] word-finally.

5.2.4 Liquids.

(131) a.   r → l   in "co*rr*ect" (N09), "cu*rr*iculum" (N09), "Manda*r*in"
                             (N07), and "*r*eally" (N09)

b.   l → n   in "specia*l*ty" (N12)

c.   l → ɫ   in "examp*l*e" (N15)

        Three types of liquids were altered. First was changing from the rhotic [r] to the lateral [l], as in (131a). Second was from changing the lateral [l] to the nasal [n], as in (131b). Third was the use of a dark [ɫ], instead of a light [l], word-finally, as in (131c).

5.3 Phonological Processes

        Two phonological processes were mentioned in Chapter 2: devoicing of the final consonants and reduction of the consonant clusters. Devoicing of the final consonants usually occurs when words end with the voiced obstruents, thus resulting in devoicing of the final sounds of the words, from voiced to voiceless. Reduction of the consonant clusters is how the sounds in the consonant clusters are reduced, and it is done either by deletion of the final consonants in the consonant clusters or by epenthesis (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 128).

        5.3.1 Devoicing of the final consonants.

	Devoicing	**From**
(132) NPs:	[nurvb*s*]	[nurv*z*] in "He might have some problem about ah nerves"

                                                          (N12)

	Devoicing	**From**
(133) VPs:	[dɪˈpɛn*t*]	[dɪˈpɛn*d*] in "depend" (N04)
	[ˈmɛməˌraɪ*t*]	[ˈmɛməˌraɪ*z*] in "just memorize it"
		(N04)

	Devoicing	**From**
(134) Function words:	[æn*t*]	[æn*d*] in "and" (N04)

	Devoicing	**From**
(135) Pronoun:	[ðəmˈsɛl*f*]	[ðəmˈsɛl*vz*] in "themselves" (N16)

In the data, many participants from Source 1 had devoiced the final sounds of certain words, as in the NPs in (132), the VPs that had number in them in (133), and the function words in (134). Interestingly, N16 was the only participant from Source 2 who had devoiced the double voiced fricatives to be a single voiced fricative, as shown in the pronoun in (135).

5.3.2 Reduction of the consonant clusters. Another phonological process is reduction of the consonant clusters. In Chapter 2, World English speakers utilized two alternative strategies to ease their English pronunciation. The first strategy was

accomplished by deletion of the final consonants in the clusters, as in "pas" which was

from "past" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 128). The other strategy was by epenthesis, or

inserting of the vowels into the consonant clusters, in order to break the syllables apart, as

in [ta-rap] for "trap" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 128). The examples are shown in (136)

and (137).

		Deletion	**From**	
(136)	a.	almot	almo*st*	(N04)
		compare to	compare*d* to	(N12)
		suppose to	suppose*d* to	(N11)
		friend	friend*s*	(N11)
		specialist	specialist*s*	(N12)
		sometime	sometime*s*	(N02, N04, N09, N11, N12)
		It's call	It's call*ed*	(N07)
		I have just change	I have just change*d*	(N08)
		That why	That*'s* why	(N06)
	b.	Thai phrase	Thai phrase*s*	(N13)
		tourist	tourist*s*	(N14)
		senten	senten*ce*	(N15)
		So we have prepare	So we have prepare*d*	(N16)

Epenthesis   **From**

(137)   t*a*-wis   twist   (N12)

From my data, eleven participants from Source 1 made use of deletion of the final

consonants in the clusters to ease their pronunciation, as in (136a), while all speakers

from Source 2 had deleted the final consonants in some words, as in (136b). Only one

participant from Source 1 used epenthesis in his pronunciation, as illustrated in (137). No

participants from Source 2 were found to use epenthesis in this study. The findings could

be related to the limited data from Source 2, while the data from Source 1 was relatively

richer and longer.

5.4 Stress, Tone, and Intonation

5.4.1 Stress. As mentioned in Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008), World English

speakers were likely to use syllable-timing in their enunciation of the English words (p.

129). Further, syllable-timing tended to be inextricably linked to the stress shifts that

were different from the pronunciation of the same words by stress-timed native English

speakers (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 129). The ThaiE speech data in this study showed

no exception.

First was syllable-timing. Although syllable-timing was not employed in all words spoken by the ThaiE speakers of this study, some English words showed noticeable stretches within the syllables, and no stress assignment was given to any of the syllables. Examples are shown in (138).

	ThaiE	**From**	
(138)	con-ti-nue	continue	(N11)
	edu-ca-tion	education	(N05)
	pho-ne-tics	phonetics	(N05)
	po-li-cy	policy	(N12)
	pro-por-tion	proportion	(N12)
	sit-down	Sit down	(N05)

All examples in (138) were from the speakers of Source 1. It was interesting to note that a combination of syllable-timing and a lack of stress assignment were not found in the speakers of Source 2. The limited data from Source 2 may have contributed to the findings.

Second was stress shifts. When stress shifts occurred, three ranges of direction were detected in the speech of the ThaiE speakers of this study: shift to the right, shift to the left, and a combination of peculiar stress shifts and syllable-timing.

5.4.1.1 Shift to the right. Two stress patterns were noticed, based on the types of

the lexical categories. The first was on the English Ns and Vs. Many ThaiE speakers tended to assign the primary stress on the final syllables of the words, as seen in (139). The second was on the ADJs, in which the stress was likely to be assigned to the root forms of the words before affixes were added to them, as shown in (140).

		ThaiE	**From**	
(139)	Ns:	acti′vity	ac′tivity	(N15)
		arti′choke	′artichoke	(N11)
		cur′rency	′currency	(N15)
		Eng′lish	′English	(N11)
		fanta′sy	′fantasy	(N08)
		fo′reigner	′foreigner	(N10, N11)
		gen′der	′gender	(N16)
		insti′tute	′institute	(N11)
		Ita′ly	I′taly	(N04)
		mil′lion	′million	(N14)
		para′graph	′paragraph	(N11)

	ThaiE	**From**	
Vs:	lis′ten	′listen	(N16)
	remem′ber	re′member	(N16)

	wel′come	′welcome	(N16)

		ThaiE	**From**	
(140)	ADJs:	a′cademic	′academic	(N06, N15)
		chal′lenging	′challenging	(N08)
		for′mal	′formal	(N16)
		intelli′gent	in′telligent	(N07)
		pro′per	′proper	(N16)
		simi′lar	′similar	(N16)

5.4.1.2 Shift to the left. The data showed that many ThaiE speakers in this study tended to put the primary stress on the first syllables of the English Ns and uninflected Vs. In addition, they were likely to maintain the primary stress on the –ly adverbs that derived from the adjectives and treated those –ly adverbs as if they were still the original adjectives, as present in (141).

		ThaiE	**From**	
(141)	Ns:	′appearance	ap′pearance	(N03)
		′Chinese	Chi′nese	(N10)
		e′ducation	edu′cation	(N08)
		′Korean	Ko′rean	(N10)

	ThaiE	**From**	
V:	′adjust	ad′just	(N06)

	ThaiE	**From**	
ADV:	ne′cessarily	neces′sarily	(N10)

5.4.1.3 A combination of peculiar stress shift and syllable-timing. With regards to this, there appears to be issues related to intra-speaker and stylistic variation (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 19). Some speakers in this study (i.e. N11 and N16) tended to employ both syllable-timing and stress shifts in most of their English speech, thus exhibiting an obvious Thai accent, while some speakers (i.e. N09) rarely did it. From the data, N09 and N11from Source 1, and N16 from Source 2, demonstrated most of the stress shifts and syllable-timing combined. The examples are shown in (142).

		ThaiE	**From**	
(142)	Ns:	au-tho-ri-′ty	au′thority	(N16)
		com-′ment	′comment	(N11)
		cre-′at-i-vity	crea′tivity	(N09)
		fa-mi-′ly	′family	(N16)
		se-′ries	′series	(N16)

tou-ri-ʹsm	ʹtourism	(N16)
ve-get-a-ble	ʹvegetable	(N11)

	ThaiE	**From**	
ADJs:	a-ca-de-mic	ʹacademic	(N11)
	com-fort-a-ʹble	ʹcomfortable	(N11)
	con-fu-ʹsing	conʹfusing	(N16)
	equip-va-ʹlent	eʹquipvalent	(N16)
	si-mi-ʹlar	ʹsimilar	(N11)
	so-ʹcial	ʹsocial	(N16)

	ThaiE	**From**	
Vs:	ʹap-ply	apʹply	(N11)
	gig-ʹgle	ʹgiggle	(N16)
	ʹob-serve	obʹserve	(N11)
	rea-ʹlize	ʹrealize	(N11)

	ThaiE	**From**	
ADVs:	on-ʹly	ʹonly	(N16)
	or-gi-nal-ʹly	oʹriginally	(N11)

o-ʹver   ʹover   (N16)

5.4.2 Tone. Since the native language of these speakers is tonal Thai, it is reasonable to expect that the English speech by these participants may exhibit the Thai tones to some extent. However, this study did not focus on tone, and I did not detect any Thai tones in the participants' speech; therefore, the issue of tone was not addressed here. I will leave it aside for future research that has added focus concentrated on studying the tone of ThaiE speakers in particular.

5.4.3 Intonation. Like tone, the study was not focused on issues of intonation. It would need better equipment and research designs to study intonation in details. However in passing, I would like to address two points of general observation after examining the data. To my ears, which are very subjective, many ThaiE speakers in this study had a tendency to use the rising intonation contour in the English declaratives and information questions. On the other hand, the monotone seemed to be employed by some ThaiE speakers when making the English yes/no questions. To arrive at the objective results and to confirm my personal observation, I will leave it up to future research. However, I will mention my observation in passing only.

5.4.3.1 Tendency to use the rising intonation in ThaiE declaratives and wh-questions.

Unlike the Standard English speakers, many ThaiE speakers in this study used the rising intonation (in bold) in their ThaiE declaratives and wh-questions. Three examples are shown in (143), (144), and (145), in which GNS stands for a German Native speaker, who was a co-host of N16 in a talk radio program.

(143)　　　(a)　N16:　That's all right as well. But Gu and Mung, you don't, you

　　　　　(b)　　　　don't, for example, you not going to say that when you're

　　　　　(c)　　　　in family.

　　　　　(d)　GNS:　No.

　　　　　(e)　N16:　(laugh)

　　　　　(f)　GNS:　(laugh) I'll be very careful with that.

　　　　　(g)　N16:　Yeah, but would you, do you...use that word at all?

→　　　　(h)　GNS:　… (laugh)

　　　　　(i)　N16:　**You try to?**

　　　　　(j)　GNS:　… (giggle)

Firstly, in (143), N16 and a German native speaker radio co-host were discussing the use of the commonly vulgar Thai first and second personal pronouns, *gu* (meaning 'I' in English) and *mung* (meaning 'you' in English), on a talk radio program. N16 advised his German native speaker co-host not to use the pronouns because of the degree of extreme impoliteness. When asked if the German co-host had ever emulated the

pronouns, the laughing response from the co-host in (h) left N16 with disbelief. Not sure if he heard it correctly, N16 asked the co-host again for confirmation in (i), using a declarative with the rising intonation (in bold).

(144) N11:   So it is like 'do you GO?' or "GO?' something like that.

       R: Yeah.

       N11:   Or even sometimes 'khun CHUE' ah 'khun CHUE arai', we don't have to-
              but I don't know why I, all my student, **what is your NAME?**

       Next, in (144), N 11 recounted a story when she met her Thai students of English for the first time. Her students asked for her name. While doing so, their wh-question was articulated with the rising intonation (in bold).

(145) N16:   Right. Yeah. It's more- it's more a written language than …

       GNS: Ok=

       N16:   =than common dialog … I think.

                                        Z

       GNS: Huh? Oh, that's good to know.

       N16:   But d- do you- do you use it. **What do you use it [   ] on your daily
              baSIS?**

Lastly and similar to (144), N16 in (145) employed the rising intonation in his wh-question (in bold). In the example, N16 and his German co-host was discussing the Thai female first personal pronoun *chan*. Technically, *chan* is used by women and mostly seen in written language. But in practice, it was common to see Thai men utilize this pronoun as well, especially in casual conversation with intimate friends. However, after verbalizing it, N16 was uncertain if his explanation was understood. To check the co-host's comprehension, N16 asked the co-host a few follow-up questions, and the wh-question was incorporated with the rising intonation (in bold).

5.4.3.2 Tendency to use the monotone in ThaiE yes/no questions. While the rising intonation was often employed in the ThaiE declaratives and wh-questions, many ThaiE speakers in this study used monotone (in italics) in their yes/no questions. An example is shown in (146). Again, GNS represents the German native speaker, who was a co-host of N16 in a talk radio program.

 (146) GNS: Dichan. Yeah, that's fine.

               Z

      N16:   Dichan.   *Di- is there still a magazine call Dichan.*

      GNS: Uh-huh.

      N16: I think there is. Uh dichan is also I for female. It's as, it's-it's really just

             on par with phom. You use it on any occaSION. Dichan.

GNS: Ok.

In (146), N16 and the German co-host discussed the female first personal pronoun *dichan*. During the show, N16 was struck by the fact that a Thai magazine that coincidentally shared the same name as the pronoun. Having appeared as a rhetorical question, N16 articulated his ThaiE yes/no question (in italics) by using the monotone.

The phonological features of ThaiE is summarized in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2.
A Summary of the ThaiE Phonological Features That Are Similar to World Englishes

Ranking	Source 1	Source 2
1	Deletion	Deletion
2	Stress	Stress
3	Sound substitution in fricatives	Devoicing of obstruents

It is worthy to note that the results from Table 5.2 showed two important aspects of the ThaiE phonological features.

- Deletion and stress were the most noticeable features among the ThaiE speakers in this study. While deletion of the final consonants was ranked first, issues of stress assignment in words were second. The evidence was shown in Sections 5.3.2 and 5.4.1.

- The sound substitution of the fricative consonants seemed to be the third features mostly found among the ThaiE speakers from Source 1; whereas, devoicing of the

obstruents were found third among the ThaiE speakers from Source 2. In regard

to their third ranking features, it was intriguing to see that the sound substitution

in fricatives occurred in all positions (i.e. word-finally, -initially, and -medially),

as shown in Section 5.2.2, while the devoicing of the obstruents occurred mostly

in the word-final positions, as illustrated in Section 5.3.1.

In conclusion, this chapter describes the phonological features of ThaiE, based on the

data from Sources 1 and 2. The results showed that the ThaiE phonology tended to

display a combination of how both World English and Thai speakers may pronounce

certain vowels, consonants, and prosodic aspects that may sound slightly different from

Standard English speakers. To be specific, ThaiE in this study exhibits the following

aspects in its phonology, which, to some extent, are similar to both World Englishes and

Thai, instantiated in Chapter 2:

- Like World Englishes, some ThaiE vowel sounds are the results of vowel
  alteration, i.e. changes from the diphthongs to the monophthongs (ɪə → i, əʊ →
  ʊʊ, aɪ → ə), raising the vowels to the higher placement (ɛ → e), and lowering the
  vowels to the lower placement (e → ɛ).
- Like World Englishes, some ThaiE consonants involve the sound substitution in
  stops, fricatives, affricates, and liquids.

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- In stops, the English [t] tended to be pronounced either as the Thai voiceless unaspirated [t], which sounded like the "td" sound for many English listeners, or as the glide [w] (t → Thai "td", or w). Or, some ThaiE speakers tended to pronounce the stop [d] in the final consonant clusters as the nasal [ŋ] (nd → ŋ).

- In fricatives, voiced fricatives tended to be changed to voiceless fricatives (z → s, ʃ → s, vz → f), fricatives were changed to stops (z → f, v → b, ɵ → t, ɵ → d, ʃ → d), or fricatives were changed to the glide (v → w).

- In affricates, the voiceless affricate tended to change to the voiced stop word-finally (ʧ → d).

- In liquids, the rhotic tended to change to the lateral (r → l); the lateral tended to change to the nasal (l → n). Or, there was the tendency to use the dark [ɫ], instead of the light [l], word-finally.

- Like World Englishes, pronunciation of some ThaiE words was sometimes the products of two phonological process: devoicing of the final consonants, and reduction of the consonant clusters. Many participants in this study tended to devoice the final sounds of the consonants in the ThaiE NPs, VPs, and function words, while reduction of the consonant clusters tended to occur in the forms of

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deletion of the final consonants in the consonant clusters and of epenthesis. All were done for ease of pronunciation.

- Like World Englishes and Thai, the prosodic aspects of ThaiE, i.e. stress, tone, and intonation, tended to be noticeable to some listeners, especially when syllable-timing and peculiar stress shifts were incorporated into the ThaiE speech by some speakers. But it was not always the case.

However, keep in mind that these aspects are not representative of all ThaiE speakers. Due to a degree of intra-speaker, stylistic variation, and speakers' English proficiency, some ThaiE speakers in this study may possess many pronunciation deviations of English from native English speakers, while some ThaiE speakers show just a few aspects of them. Therefore, the results from my study may not be conclusive at this time. More research, primarily aiming at examining the phonology of ThaiE in details, is needed.

In the next chapter, the sociolinguistics of ThaiE will be present.

Chapter 6

THE SOCIOLINGUISITCS OF THAI ENGLISH

Chapter 6 is about the sociolinguistic situation of ThaiE. The chapter has two

purposes. One is to reveal the perception of ThaiE, by 12 very educated ThaiE speakers

in the study. The other is to understand the participants' attitudes towards the English

speaking skill of Thais in Thailand. To arrive at the outcomes, the findings were drawn

from Source 1, which comprised the interviews with 12 highly educated ThaiE speakers

during my fieldwork in Southwestern U.S.A., Central Thailand, and Northeastern

Thailand. Answers to the key interview questions will be present in four sections, as they

are relevant to the study.

Section 6.1 responds to whether the participants believed ThaiE was a variety of

English in the world today. Section 6.2 reveals the participants' opinions towards the

importance of English in Thailand, particularly the English speaking skill of Thais.

Section 6.3 describes the characteristics of the way many Thais were speaking English,

based on the participants' interview data. Section 6.4 explains the personal assessment of

the participants on the manner Thais were speaking English, in their opinion, whether

they thought it was a good or bad thing.

The Sociolinguistics of ThaiE

In the 1 - 1.5 hour interviews with individual participants from Source 1, I asked the participants many questions, regarding their opinions and attitudes towards the general use of English in Thailand. Specifically, my main questions were directed towards their opinions such as whether they thought ThaiE was a variety of English in the world today, if they could describe to me how Thais spoke English, based on their personal observation, and if they considered the way many Thais speaking English in such a manner was a good or bad thing. Consequently, in this chapter, I will present only the important answers to the following interview questions:

- Did the participants believe there was a ThaiE variety in the world today?

- How important was English in Thailand, particularly the English speaking skill of Thais?

- How did the participants identify the way many Thais were speaking English?

- Did the participants think the manner that Thais were speaking English was a good or bad thing?

6.1 Did the Participants Believe There Was a ThaiE Variety in the World Today?

When asked if the participants in this study believed ThaiE existed as a variety of English in the world today, I was given mixed answers. The majority of the participants

(n = 6) did not believe that there was a ThaiE variety at the present time. Some (n = 5)

thought that ThaiE existed, and one participant did not provide any exact answer to this

question. Table 6 shows the answers from the participants to this important question.

Table 6
Do You Think There Is ThaiE As a Variety of English in the World?

Participants (total n = 12)	Yes (n = 5)	No (n = 6)	Not Sure/No Answer (n = 1)
I. From Southwestern U.S.A.			
N 01		X	
N 02		X	
N 03		X	
N 04	X		
II. From Central Thailand			
N 05		X	
N 06	X		
N 07		X	
N 08	X		
III. From Northeastern Thailand			
N 09	X		
N 10		X	
N 11			X
N 12	X		

Despite the split answers, all participants thought that the way many Thais were

speaking English was just a matter of accent. To this regard, a degree of Thai accent

varied from speakers to speakers.

To consider their English as a variety of English, the majority of the participants (n = 6) did not think so. These participants provided three major reasons why English spoken by many Thais was not considered a variety of English in the world today:

- The grammar and structures of English spoken by Thais still displayed the grammar and structures of Standard English. Therefore, ThaiE was not a variety of English (i.e. in N01).

- When "English spoken by Thai people" was used, these participants only related it to Thai accent and nothing else. Therefore, ThaiE was not a variety of English, but rather an issue of Thai accent that was noticeable in their English speaking (i.e. in N02, N03, N07, and N10).

- For some participants, the notion of an English variety spoken by many Thais was associated with broken or Pidgin English, especially among the Thai EFL learners. Therefore, ThaiE was not a variety of English (i.e. in N05).

On the contrary, the minority of participants (n=5) believed that ThaiE was currently present as a variety of English. The participants provided two major reasons why they believed that ThaiE was a variety of English in the world today:

- The Thai accent set their English speaking apart from other speakers of English in the world. In this manner, the participants who said yes viewed the Thai accent

in English speaking as positive, charming, and unique (i.e. in N04, N06, N08, N09, N12).

- ThaiE was culture and context-specific. That explained why there was a certain way of using English by the Thai. According to the participants, ThaiE was recognized by the speaking styles of English that resembled Thai speaking of the native Thai, and the context of use was mostly related to Thai culture and the Thai language (i.e. in N09 and N12).

Yet, to fully understand why the participants of this study provided such mixed answers, I will present their responses in three respective manners. Section 6.1.1 shows the negative responses from the participants who did not believe that ThaiE was a variety of English in the world. Section 6.1.2 illuminates the positive responses from the participants who believed that ThaiE was a variety in the world. And, Section 6.1.3 presents the uncertain responses from the only participant (N11) in the study who was reluctant to give me an answer as to whether she thought ThaiE as a variety of English in the world.

6.1.1 Responses from the participants who did not think ThaiE was a variety of English.

First, in regards to the grammar and structures of ThaiE, N01 believed that the English variety used by Thais was similar to Standard English. The grammar and structures in their English use still demonstrated the English grammar and structures, not of the Thai Language, as in (149).

(149) R: In your opinion, do you think there is a variety of English that is called Thai English variety?

    N01: Oh… I don't think there is a variety.

    R: Uh-uh. Yeah.

    .

    .

    .

→ N01: Um, they… type in English and it's still um English grammar and structure.

Second, when discussed "English used by many Thais", N02, N03, N07, and N10 thought it was merely a matter of Thai accent that differentiated them from other speakers of English. These participants did not consider their English as a variety of English.

For example, N02 in (150) did not believe that ThaiE existed as a variety of English, based on the argument that Thailand was not as powerful as other countries (i.e.

China) and not as influential. A legitimate English variety of its own was therefore unlikely.

(150)　　　N02:　In, in this part, but I'm not quite sure about the possibility.

　　　　　　R:　　Yeah.

　　　　　　N02:　Because, one thing that I think about is, our country is quite small, and we are not that important.

　　　　　　R:　　You think?

　　　　　　N02:　Compare, I mean, com- compare to China.

　　　　　　R:　　Um-um.

　　　　　　N02:　Or maybe different county.

　　　　　　R:　　Um-um.

　　　　　　N02:　And because we still have some conflict and so many thing happen.

　　　　　　R:　　Um-um.

　→　　　N02:　So, so I don't think that, it is easy to come up with this issue.

　　　　Third in (151), N03 also thought that ThaiE was merely an issue of Thai accent, not ThaiE as a variety of English.

(151)　N03:　Uh a at this point uh I would say no. **It's just our accent** but we because uh Thai is uh already uh a language that is uh influenced by foreign

languages.

In reference to (152), N07 perceived ThaiE as a matter of tone. In this regard, she was referring to the English speaking style of many Thais. Therefore, ThaiE was not a variety of English at the moment.

(152)   N07:   I don't really think that is would be Thai English.

                R: Yes.

                N07:   But if someone said it's Thai English.

                R: Um-um.

→   N07:   Because I think it's a tone.

.

.

.

                N07:   Yes, that's right, so I don't think that is called Thai English.

Fourth, N10 offered a firm negative answer, as in (153).

(153) N10:   Um…..no.

       R: You don't think so.

       N10:   **No**.

       R: Ok.

N10: **I don't think so.**

Fifth, N05 believed that English used by the Thai, in particular the Thai in Thailand, was similar to broken or Pidgin English, as shown in (154). Even though N05 viewed ThaiE as marginalized, she expressed that most NESs were kind enough to try to understand English speaking by most Thais.

(154) N05: The term reminds me of the broken English used by Thai people. If, but, I don't know. **Probably not a Thai variety**, but it's like Pidgin English, just like in Papua New Guinea or something like that.

R: Yes.

N05: And yeah, I- I would say, probably not a Thai variety, **but Pidgin English**.

6.1.2 Responses from the participants who thought ThaiE was a variety of English.

Contrary to the majority, the minority of the participants (n=5) considered English spoken by Thais as a variety of English in the world today. Their perception and attitudes of ThaiE were based on the noticeable Thai accent that many Thais had when speaking English and the specific culture and context when ThaiE was utilized. To them, such a unique accent had not only set them apart from other speakers of English in the

world, but was also viewed as one of the positive and charming traits of ThaiE, which in turn were indicative of their unique identity as speakers of World Englishes. Examples of the participants' positive answers are shown below.

First, the affirmative responses were obvious from N04 and N06, as in (155) and (156) respectively.

(155) N04: It's a lot. Some people might argue, no we don't have variety Thai. We don't have variety Thai, I'm, I'm sure, have variety.

R: Ok so the answer is yes.

N04: **Yes.**

(156) N06: **Yes**. This is a variety.

Second, two participants strongly believed that ThaiE was a variety of English in the world. To this regard, they considered Thai accent as the striking and positive feature that set ThaiE apart from other Englishes in the world. Therefore, ThaiE was a variety of English in the world, based on the English speaking style of the Thai, as N08 explained in (157) and N09 in (158) respectively.

(157) N08: Certainly there is.

R: Really?

N08: For example, I think, the pronunciation

R: Uh-um

N08:   The pronunciation. But writing, the grammar is not that Thai English.

R: Yes.

N08:   But **I think, pronunciation**

R: Oh, ok

N08:   **Indicates that it's Thai English**.

(158) R: In your opinion, do you think there is Thai English as a variety?

N09:   Yes.

R: Yes.

N09:   I think you know umm… Thai English is…

R: Ok how do you define it? What is Thai English to your understanding, if someone asks you that?

N09:   You know when I go somewhere, **people are Thai English, I can recognize them**.

R: Uh-um.

N09:   **With- with the tone you know**.

R: Oh from-from… ah what is it? The speech.

N09:   The speech.

Third, N12 also thought there was ThaiE as a variety of English in the world. As N12 described it in (159), ThaiE was relevant to Thai culture and the Thai context. His interpretation of ThaiE as a variety was culture and context-specific, and it involved only English speaking by the Thai.

(159) R: So in your opinion, do you think there is Thai English as a variety?

N12:   Ah, I think- I think it's, I think it depends on the subject because all countries have their own cultures.

R: Right.

N12:   And cultures bring the specific groups of items, so in Thai culture we have the specific groups of words called the items. Something like Lai Rod Nam (meaning "the classical Thai prints" in Thai), ah Rak Pid Thong (untranslatable in Thai), Pid Thong Lang Pra (meaning "do a thankless job" in Thai) or something like that.

R: Yes, yes, yes.

→   N12:   We have a lot of words that ah in our own culture, we have to use some English words to serve you know our word items that we have. So that leads to our own English sometimes.

6.1.3 Uncertain responses.

Interestingly, N11 was the only participant who did not provide me with any answer if ThaiE, in her opinion, was considered an English variety. When asked the question for the first time, it appeared that N11 thought I was asking for examples of what she believed to be the ThaiE words. In line with this, N11 tried to think of Thai loanwords, i.e. food and vegetable names that might enter the English lexicon, as shown in (160)

(160) N11:   Thai English as a variety?

R: Uh-um.

N11:   'Cos- 'cos you know some- some words in Thailand, you cannot directly translate it.

R: Uh-um.

N11:   Uh-uh.

R: Such as?

N11:   Such as, maybe, well, like some…you know some of the food name or even some name (laugh)

R: Yeah.

→   N11:   So that's why we have to well use it. Yeah, I mean, most of the time you know when I-when I ask the student to write about, you know, yeah their hometown or their culture. Sometime they don't have the word to explain what is, umm, I can't really think of one. But um…maybe oh well just,

you know some-some of the ve-ge-ta-ble or something that did, we didn't

have…the English words for that, so I-I just ask them. I mean, I just tell

them, ok, you just explain it. It's the ve-ge-ta-ble you put it in here, in

also some- some of the. Yeah, so it's- it's ok 'cos you know when- when I

went to United States, I don't even know what is the- though. Ah what is

it? Arai kha kaw riak (meaning "what is it?" in Thai), umm… Arai la

(meaning "what?" in Thai), ah! Since ah, I'm blank! (laugh)

R: (laugh) Was it a Thai word?

N11:   No, it's a… artiCHOKE!

Because N11 did not give me any solid answer to the question, I asked her again

during the interview if she thought there was ThaiE as a variety of English in the world

today. Her answer seemed to indicate that she did not understand what was being asked.

Therefore I gave up asking and assumed that N11 did not correctly interpret the question,

or she did not want to answer it, as shown in (161). Then I changed the topic and

proceeded to a new question. In (161), *Kha* in the last line means "yes" in Thai.

(161) R: I don't think- I didn't think you answered my question. Is there a Thai

          English variety? Yes or no?

      N11: You- you mean in the Thai classroom?

      R: Or in your context.

N11:   Oh, in your context? Ahmmm, I mean it- it depend on the topic.

R: Uh-uh.

N11:   I'm teaching. Uh-um.

R: Yes, yes.

N11:   Most of the textbook we, we use it kha (meaning "yes" in Thai) are
       American Eng- or British English, but we can kinda, how can I say, adapt
       it into the Thai conTENT (context?) too if- it just depend on ahh how I
       want my students to learn. You know we can connect. We- we can you
       know American culture with the Thai culture.

R: Oh.

N11:   So I- I like to try to cooperate (incorporate?) this=

R: =culture into the other.

N11:   *Kha*, culture.

Although there was no consensus about treating ThaiE as a variety of English in
the world today, all participants in this study mentioned that they could tell how Thais
were speaking English, given that they only heard the speech of the individuals in public
areas, i.e. in the international conferences. This led to the answers for the third question
posed: if the participants could describe to me the way Thais were speaking English in
general, based on their observation. However, before we get to that, it is important to

know the perception of English, particularly the English speaking skill of Thais in Thailand, by these participants. Therefore, in the next section, I will present the attitudes of the participants towards the importance of English in Thailand, particularly the English speaking skill of Thais. Their attitudes towards English would shed light on how they assessed the way many Thais were speaking English in general, which are relevant to this study.

6.2 How Important Was English in Thailand, Particularly the English Speaking Skill of Thais?

All participants in this study thought that English was important in Thailand. Many reasons were provided, i.e.

- For the economic growth of Thailand,

- The labor mobility within the Southeast Asian region,

- In response to the Thai government policies on English communication in the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC),

- Career advancement of the participants in academia, and

- Tourism of Thailand.

In terms of the economic growth and the labor mobility within the Southeast Asian region, N12 explained in (162) that there was the urgent need from the Thai

government to have the Thai populace become active global members of the AEC by the year 2015. To accomplish that goal, English would be employed as an international language for the people in the region to communicate, and Thailand would have to step up its English communication skills to compete economically with other international communities, in particular within the ASEAN region, as N12 described in (162).

(162) R: So in your opinion, is English important in Thailand?

N12:   Oh absoLUTEly. And in Thailand and some other Indonesian (Southeast Asian?) countries, we are approaching the stage we call the Indonesian (ASEAN?) Economic Community or Prachakhom ASEAN.

R: Uh-uh.

N12:   Yeah and in 2015, all labors in some specific jobs can switch. They can work in some other countries too.

R: Really?

N12:   So the competition for the jobs will be more tense.

R: Oh wow.

N12:   **That's why English will become more important than this.**

Like N12, N10 elaborated on the need for more Thais to speak English in the country. As shown in (163), N10 realized that the Thai government policies could contribute to this demand.

(163)　N10:　Ah…number of Thais speaking English is getting more and more, getting

larger. **I'm not sure if it is because of the policy of the government.**

　　　R:　What is the policy right now?

　　　N10:　They encourages- they have encouraged students to speak English because

of tourist (tourism?). It sure all (offers?) more chance to get a job and a

sort of business as well, because um many countries um invest in

Thailand. I don't know how to explain it. It's a business term (laugh),

invest- invest in Thailand by making, running business here, yeah? And

they need people who can speak English. So people, I mean students who

can speak English, students and even security (guards?), they have more

chance to get a job in- in those companies, if they can speak English.

In addition to the Thai government policies, N10 further commented from the

perspectives of personal career advancement and the benefits of Thailand tourism in

general, if more Thais could communicate effectively in English, as in (164).

(164)　　　R:　Next question is in-in your opinion, how important is English?

　→　　N10:　Yeah it's quite important, getting more important in my opinion.

Um we use English for the publication. We read English in the

textbooks. And we have got a lot of foREIGNers coming to

Thailand, and most of them can speak English.

R: Right.

N10:   So it's sort of compulsory to study English to communicate with

people from all around the world.

Although all participants in this study acknowledged the importance of English, they did not believe that all Thais in Thailand should be able to speak English at the present. The reason being that Thai, the national and official language of Thailand, had already covered the base of communication within the country. Therefore, the idea of adopting English as a daily means of communication, along with Thai, seemed superfluous to many Thais at the moment. Ideally, the participants of this study had expressed that they wished all Thais nationwide should possess this ability, but the notion was impossible in practice. For the participants, Thai culture and the negative attitudes towards English speaking, between Thais themselves, seemed to be the major causes that hindered many Thais from speaking English with one another on a regular basis.

For example in (165), when N06 was asked why most Thais could not speak English effectively. N06 stated that the Thai were shy to do so. In addition, the average Thai preferred speaking Thai with one another, if they knew that another person was Thai, which seemed to be an issue of cultural identity and pride. However, most Thais were competent in English reading and writing in N06's opinion, but not for speaking.

(165) R: Why most Thai people cannot speak English?

N06: Yes. **Because they're so shy.**

R: You think so?

N06: Yes.

R: **They prefer the Thai language.**

N06: Yes, because you know, like if the ah the high school students=

R: =Uh-um=

N06: =They learn English every day.

R: Uh-uh.

N06: They can read. They can do ah do the examination.

R: Yes.

N06: But cannot speak. They're very shy.

R: Yes.

N06: Same as me.

R: They're very book smart.

N06: Yes, yes. **That is our Thai cultural (culture?) for English.**

While N06 offered the comment, based on the cultural perspective, N09 and N12 described the negative attitudes of Thais towards English speaking in public places, based from their own personal outlook. Upon his recent trip to Northern Thailand, N09 in (166) received hostile treatment from a Thai stranger at the airport when he spoke

English with his two little children who were Thai but brought up speaking English at home as their first language.

(166)   N09:   But you know last week um, you know the way I've tried to do is to make my kids comfortable with that.

            R: Uh-um.

            N09:   I just don't want my kids just to speak English, because they are Thai.

            R: Yes.

            N09:   So mainly they need to speak Thai, but um there is some story that I'd like to tell you. At the airport last week, we went to Chiangrai.

            R: Yeah.

            N09:   You know I just speak English to my kids. And there was one guy ah you know he was with ah his kid, ah… infant.

            R: Yes.

→   N09:   And he's very defensive when he talk on the phone, when he see me and the kids speak in English. You know he's more like sarcastic ah you know in the phone. Oh, they thought that if you are Thai people, you need to speak Thai. Don't be so um… you know like something like show off, speaking English.

            R: Uh-um.

N09:   So I think for us, some people just took it the wrong way. I just

       want the kids to survive in the- the… the prospective environment.

Similarly in (167), N12 explained how difficult it was to speak in English on a regular basis even with his English teacher coworkers at the workplace. According to N12, his coworkers expressed negative attitudes towards the use of English speaking between Thais in general. Harsh criticism was often given to individuals who did so, similar to the incident with the man at the airport who displayed a harsh gaze and acted agitated toward N09 in the previous example. In N12's description however, his Thai coworkers admitted to feeling strange, uncomfortable, and pretentious, in which N12 described such feelings as being *kra dae*, the Thai word for "pretentious" in the following excerpt. Such negative attitudes from his coworkers appeared to hamper the use of English communication in his workplace. Hence, N12 was convinced that the negative attitudes of Thais towards English speaking with one another discouraged many Thais to want to speak English with one another in public places.

(167) R: Um do you still speak English with your coworkers, you students on a

             regular basis here?

       N12: Um just for, just with some foreigners, foreign staff.

       R: Uh-um.

       N12: But for Thai colleagues, I have to be frank with you that we have to speak

in Thai.

R: Why?

N12: **Because some Thai people consider it's strange if we speak with them b- by using English.** Why? Ah we are Thai, but I have heard that some colleagues from some other university would like to keep (maintain?) the language by using English all the time. But over here, we have French staff and we have some other Thai people too, so we have to speak in Thai all the time.

R: So how did you feel? Did you feel like ah=

N12: =Ah at the first time, I felt like it was a bit awkward. Because I- I would like to keep my language, um I would like to maintain the accuracy and the fluency. And I thought my colleagues might be the first group of people who could help me with this. And I think they would think the same thing, but in the deeper level of the mind, **I think they are comfortable in Thai because of the word [ka.dae]** (meaning 'pretentious' in English) **or something like that.**

R: Yes (laugh)

N12: Yeah, because I have heard some colleagues were saying this word. Er she went to the conference and she found some people who are Thai speak English all the time. She-she RESpond (criticized?) that this is [kra.dae] in

Thai, so I just thought that, wow, she=

R: =So what type of conference did you colleague go to?

N12: International.

R: It's an international conference, you know it's the conference=

N12: =I know it is subject to that person, but that person did not do it smoothly.

R: Oh I see.

Overall, the examples in this section showed that it was presently unrealistic for all Thais to adopt English speaking as another means of daily communication, particularly in Thailand at the present time. Next, I will describe the way that many Thais were speaking English, based on the personal observation and assessment of the participants in the study. Keep in mind that their answers were subjective and may not be representative of the way all Thais were really speaking English, because a degree of individuals speaking English differed, which was based on their English proficiency (Hickey, 2004), intra-speaker and stylistic variation (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). However, the participants' answers shed light on many interesting aspects that we may detect when communicating with some ThaiE speakers at some point in time. Therefore, it is applicable to be aware of it.

6.3 How Did the Participants Identify the Way Many Thais Were Speaking English?

I asked the participants of this study to describe to me how they differentiated a Thai speaker of English from other speakers of English in the crowd, such as in the international conferences. According to the participants, they could detect the ThaiE speakers in the crowd, which were different from Chinese, Indian, or Japanese speakers of English, from degrees of Thai accent and the pronunciation in their English speech.

Their assessment seemed to be subjective and personal. In terms of speaking, the unique accent in general and pronunciation of the English words in particular were the key features in identifying the Thai speakers of English by the participants. On the one hand, the accent that the participants referred to here was Thai accent in which the English speech by some Thais may exhibit certain aspects of the Thai language, in terms of syllable-timing and the use of peculiar stress shifts in some English words. On the other hand, the pronunciation related to how the English words were uttered in natural speech, e.g. some words may demonstrate the substitution of some vowel and consonant sounds, devoicing of some obstruents, and reduction of some consonant clusters.

The participants added that these criteria may not hold true for all ThaiE speakers. Some may not have a Thai accent in their English speaking, or hardly at all, while some may demonstrate a heavy Thai accent. The participants' assessment varied from speakers to speakers. However, the Thai accent and the unique pronunciation of the English words in natural speech were the two factors that these participants used in identifying Thai speakers of English in general.

Despite the general criteria, a few participants in the study provided a specific description of the way many Thais spoke English. For example in (168), N09 pointed out three criteria of his own that he used in identifying how Thais were speaking English. First was from the accent of the ThaiE speakers, which tended to be monotonous in most cases, and the stress shifts in words that sounded more like they were speaking the Thai language. In regards to the stress assignment, N09 further explained that many Thais tended to put the primary stress on the final syllables of the words, i.e. *Toyo'ta*, instead of *To'yota* like what NESs would pronounce. Second was from the frequent use of simplistic words and the context of use was mostly Thai. And third was from the English structures themselves, which tended to be a translated version of the Thai sentences into English.

(168)   N09:   You know when I go somewhere, people are Thai English, I can
                      recognize them.

               R: Uh-um

               N09:   With- with the tone you know

               R: Oh from-from… ah what is it? The speech.

               N09:   The speech.

               R: Yes.

   →   N09:   Because you know it's like they have monotonous (speech?), and

also with the- the- the accent, they also have different accent like you know, 'toYota'- 'to-yo-TA'

R: Yeah ok.

→   N09:   They you know with some common words that they also speak like Thai even though you know the- the whole context is in English. So it- it just remind me of Thai people speaking English.

R: Right.

N09:   So ah maybe this is the wrong way. But at least you know you- you could understand them, because you are Thai. But if you were you know American, you would probably not understand them.

R: Right, right.

→   N09:   And also it is very- very easy to recognize because you know, most of those are um translating from Thai to English, so you kinda pick up the context. Ok, this is pretty much like you know Thai people speaking English.

Similarly in (169), N12 observed that many ThaiE speakers possessed three characteristics in their English speaking: Thai accent, devoicing of the final sounds in some words, and the use of stress and intonation that sounded monotonous and similar to the Thai intonation contours.

With this regard, Thai accent was the prominent characteristic that N12 described in identifying ThaiE speakers. To him, Thai accent seemed to be relevant to the use of syllable-timing and peculiar stress shifts in pronunciation of the English speech by Thai speakers. In addition, he elaborated that most Thais tended to devoice the final sounds of words. For example, in "look", the final [k] may not be heard loud enough, and for this reason, it caused confusion for the listeners. In terms of stress, N12 explained that when most Thais spoke English, they seemed to speak with monotone and no stress assignment appeared to be added to any syllables of the words. Lastly was the intonation contour. As N 12 explained, most Thais tended to speak English using the rising intonation sentence-finally, which was similar to how Thai sentences were articulated in natural speech. With all of these characteristics, N12 realized that such speaking patterns could cause either misunderstanding or annoyance to the listeners who were unfamiliar with the Thai language, as shown in (169)

(169) R: How can you tell that someone so and so is a Thai English speaker?

N12:   **Oh! The accent first**.

R: Yah. The accent first.

N12:   Yes.

R: Can you explain that just a little bit? How is Thai accent different from other accents?

N12:   Er, absolutely. **The first thing is the end of the voice.** Thai people might

ignore the ending voice, something like the word 'looK'

R: Uh-huh.

N12: We… many times forget to pronounce the K.

R: (laugh)

N12: The ending voice, or something like the voices.

R: Uh-um

N12: We like to say 'woice' (for "voice" in English). Ah! I forget! I have to say
['woisəs]. We- we like to correct yourself.

R: Uh-huh.

N12: Or this have the voice that we can, I think this will be the er outstanding
(laugh)

R: (laugh)

N12: I think it's so clear that is Thai.

R: Uh-uh.

N12: **And another is like their ac- n-no their ah the way that they stress the
words**.

R: Uh-uh.

N12: Because I am Thai, you know I am a Thai speaker. I cannot know that, I
cannot know… when to stress the words with ah… every time, so
sometimes it's ah, **Thai people speak like this, in the monotone**.

R: Uh-um.

N12:   They don't even stress the words.

R: (laugh)

N12:   So I think, wow, this is Thai people.

R: Right.

N12:   This is Thai people.

R: So why do you think they speak in such a manner?

N12:   Oh because in Thai language, we- we don't stress the words. Something like the words ah someone is 'kin khaw' (meaning "(I) eat rice" in Thai). We say 'kin khaw'. We don't say KINkhaw, like this. That's why this kind of skill is transformed and imbedded in their English even though they speak English.

This section shed light on the criteria that the participants of this study described in differentiating a Thai speaker of English from other speakers of English in the crowd, such as in the international conferences. For the next section, I will present the participants' further assessment and whether they thought the manner that Thais were speaking English, as they described in this section, was a good or bad thing.

6.4 Did the Participants Think the Manner That Thais Were Speaking English Was a Good or Bad Thing?

When asked if the way Thais spoke English was a good or bad thing, most participants did not consider it as being good or bad. Instead, they thought it was acceptable as long as their listeners understood their messages. However, to N03 in particular, such speaking traits were thought to be personal pride as it showcased her Thai identity, as illustrated in (170). To purge Thai accent from her English speaking would be like denying her own identity in N03's opinion.

(170) N03:   And we can do the first uh the first consonant and the vowel but we can't
                do the final consonant. I I I know that I have uh a Thai accent because I
                feel sometimes, I leave the final consonant somewhere.

        R: So do you like your accent?

        N03:   Yeah I think it's better because, some people when they hear me talk, that
                uh I speak clearly.

        R: M-uh.

        N03:   That is good because the the purpose of our conversation our interaction
                with uh people who don't speak the same language is that we can
                communicate with them. So if they can understand me and they know that
                I have an accent, it's good. I appreciate my accent. **That's part of my
                identity**.

In a similar vein, N10 described the way Thais spoke English as something that was charming, unique, and being true to themselves, as in (171)

(171) R: So um do you think that is a good thing or bad thing?

N10:   I don't think it's a bad thing.

R: Uh-uh. Why?

N10:   Er it's influence by Thai language, so there's no way to correct it if we learn how to speak English when we are old.

R: Uh-uh.

N10:   It's different from the kids studying English and Thai at the same time.

R: Uh-um.

N10:   Um it would be better if we speak English without Thai accent. But if they can't, I accept that.

R: Uh-uh. Um, ok.

N10:   I accept that.

R: Right, right. Ok.

N10:   **It's charming** (laugh).

In conclusion, this chapter sheds light on the perception and attitudes of the interviewed participants (from Source 1) towards ThaiE, the importance of the English

speaking skill of Thais in Thailand, the characteristics of how Thais are speaking English, and their personal assessment on the way Thais are speaking English. Four findings were discovered in relation to the sociolinguistics of ThaiE:

- The majority of the participants (n=6) did not believe that there was a ThaiE variety of English in the word today. The minority (n=5) believed that ThaiE existed as a variety, and one participant (i.e. N11) did not provide any answer to the question. Despite the spilt answers on the existence of ThaiE in the world, all participants acknowledged that ThaiE was related to the Thai accent that many Thai speakers of English exhibited in their English natural speech. Yet, the level of Thainess in their English speech may be different, based on the speakers' English proficiency (Hickey, 2004) and intra-speaker and stylistic variation (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

- All participants acknowledged the importance of English in Thailand, particularly the English speaking skill of Thais. As Thailand has moved towards becoming an AEC member in ASEAN by the year 2015, the participants saw the need and benefits for more Thais to become effective speakers and communicators of English with other global citizens of the international communities in the future. Despite the immediate urgent need, the participants were aware that many Thais

were still less competent with their English speaking skill than what exists at the current international level. The reasons were due to the resistance to change and negative attitudes of English communication amongst the Thai themselves.

- The participants identified two features generally used in identifying ThaiE speakers from other speakers of English: (i) Thai accent and (ii) unique pronunciation in some English words. The Thai accent referred to a large degree of syllable-timing and stress assignment in some English words that some Thai speakers of English may exhibit in their English speech. The unique pronunciation alluded to how some English words may be pronounced, as the results of the sound substitution in certain vowels and consonants, devoicing of some obstruents, and reduction of some consonant clusters. According to the participants, such characteristics of Thainess in the English speech seemed easy to single out some ThaiE speakers from other speakers of English in the crowd, given that they were familiar with the Thai language and Thai culture.

- Due to a degree of intra-speaker, stylistic variation, and English proficiency, the participants acknowledged the vast difference in how Thais were speaking English. Interestingly, they were acceptant and empathetic to different accents of English spoken by Thais in general. Therefore, they did not view the manner that

Thais were speaking English as being a bad thing. Instead, many participants

considered such unique accent of the Thai as being positive and charming.

Particularly, one participant (i.e. N03) viewed her Thai accent in English speaking

as her proud Thai identity. None of the interview participants in this study

thought the manner that Thais were speaking English, which may sound slightly

different from native speakers and other nonnative speakers of English, was

marginal and negative.

In the chapter, the research questions will be answered and discussed.

Chapter 7

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I will answer five research questions of the study. The research

questions were previously introduced in Chapter 1, but I will go over them again for

reference purposes:

1. Is Thai English (ThaiE) a variety in its own right?

1.1 If yes, what historical and sociolinguistic influences conspire to produce

ThaiE in this context?

1.2 How did the Thai educational system influence the development of ThaiE

as a variety in this context, as opposed to other countries in Asia?

2. What are the typological features of Thai that may appear in English?

3. What are the linguistic features of ThaiE, based on the collected data? And

what are the attitudes of highly educated Thai speakers of English towards ThaiE?

4. How could we explain such a language phenomenon in this context?

5. What future does ThaiE hold in relation to other English varieties in the world?

Each section of the chapter will encompass these questions.

This chapter comprises five sections. Section 7.1 discusses whether ThaiE is a

variety of English in its own right. The discussion in this section focuses on the historical

and sociolinguistic influences, and the educational system that probably contribute to the

emergence of ThaiE in Asia. Section 7.2 summarizes the features of Thai present in the

data, thus possibly giving rise to ThaiE. Section 7.3 shows what appears to be the linguistic features of ThaiE, based on the data of this study. Section 7.4 explains how the emergence of ThaiE may be understood as a language phenomenon in the present context of Asia Englishes. Section 7.5 discusses the future of ThaiE, where it is positioned, whether it is a fad that may die out, and if it has any possibility of developing into a full-fledged variety of English in the future.

7.1 Is Thai English (ThaiE) a Variety in Its Own Right?

Before the start of this study, I believed that ThaiE was a variety of English in its own right. Given the fact that a few prior research studies have noted, even though in passing, that ThaiE may have the potential to develop more towards this area if more Thais used English in the future (Glass, 2009; Lim & Gisborne, 2011; Watkholarm, 2005). In the present day, more Thais are using English in their daily communication in Thailand than ever before. After extensive research on the studies that mentioned ThaiE and my personal observations on the way many educated Thai acquaintances of mine were using English, I was convinced that ThaiE existed in the present day but with some existing uncertainty. To substantiate my hypothesis and test my doubts, I set out to conduct this study. However, the results from my research exposed some unexpected and striking results which I had not anticipated, particularly from the interviews with the fieldwork participants, while the data from the participants' own speech, the media, and

the research articles showed that some of the ThaiE features were structurally similar to the features of World Englishes.

Therefore, the answer to the first research question is both yes and no. It is yes in terms of the structures of ThaiE, which is the primary focus of the study. In this regard, this study shows that ThaiE has the structural characteristics of its own (see Chapters 4 and 5). The no answer is due to the perception of ThaiE by the fieldwork interview participants (see Chapter 6). The reason is being that the majority of the interview participants (n = 6), from the Southwestern U.S.A., Central Thailand, and Northeastern Thailand, did not believe that ThaiE was warranted its own right as a variety of English in the world yet (see Chapter 6). The minority of the participants (n=5) believed ThaiE was a variety of English in its own right, and one participant (N11) was uncertain if there was really ThaiE, as variety to, begin with.

In response to the negative results, the participants' answers could have been influenced by many possible reasons. i.e.

- Their academic backgrounds,

- The unfamiliar notion of ThaiE as a variety of English in the world, and

- The level of their social interaction with everyday persons.

First are the academic backgrounds of the participants. It is possible that their academic backgrounds may have influenced their answers to a certain degree. Of the

participants who did not believe that ThaiE existed, the majority of them were in a hard

science, such as N01 (Biochemistry), N02 (Math), N07 (Marketing), and N09

(Pharmacy). They were apprehensive about their answers and unfamiliar with the subject

matter, therefore, ThaiE was not looked upon as a variety of the language in their

opinion. Of the participants who believed ThaiE existed, the majority of them were in

language teaching and learning, and liberal arts, i.e. N04 (TESOL), N08 (Arts), and N12

(Applied Linguistics). Given that their interests may have included various English

varieties, they may have heard of, or been exposed to, ThaiE before. For this reason, they

seemed more willing to recognize ThaiE as a variety in this study.

Second is the notion of ThaiE itself. For the participants who were skeptical

about ThaiE, the term may have been new, or unfamiliar, to them. It is possible that they

may have never heard of it before. If this term had never been part of their normal

conversation, it might have been difficult to process the notion or idea, let alone accept

the existence of ThaiE as a variety of English in the world at the present time. For this

reason, they believed that ThaiE was not a variety in its own right.

Another possibility is that these same participants may have favored the notion of

correctness (Kachru, 2009; Quirk, 1998) only when using English. Correctness is

associated with the use of prescriptive English, and the correct use of English is

considered "good, superior, and better" (Schneider, 2011, p. 16). On the other hand, the

notion of ThaiE sounds descriptive. To a certain extent, correctness may have been

another reason influencing them to deny the existence of ThaiE at the present time. Because of correctness, the majority of the participants may have perceived ThaiE as the incorrect use of English; hence ThaiE sounded bad, inferior, and unacceptable.

In the meantime, the participants who were open to the existence of ThaiE may have been familiar with the term *ThaiE* to some extent. The majority of these participants were in language teaching and learning, and liberal arts. They may have heard of similar terms such as Singapore English and Indian English before, so, to them, ThaiE could have been included in the same category of descriptive English in the world today. Also, it is possible that these participants may have had more exposure to speakers of English from diverse backgrounds, both in their professional and personal lives. They seemed more acceptant with ThaiE; thus leading them to recognize ThaiE as a variety of English in the world.

For example, N06, a medical researcher and professor of a biochemical institute, was a direct point of contact for international medical students in her research institute. She routinely took care of international medical students' academic and personal needs on and off the job, and she spoke English at home with her Thai husband, who grew up in the U.S.A.., on a regular basis.

N09, department head of the pharmaceutical science faculty of a Thai Northeastern university, had regular contact with international visiting scholars and professors at his university. In addition, he had taught, supervised diverse international

students in his faculty, and conversed with his two Thai children at home using the English language as the primary means of communication.

N12, an applied linguistics professor of a Thai Northeastern university, possessed a diverse educational background and had lived in different regions of the country (i.e. Central and Northeastern Thailand) and other parts of the world (i.e. the U.S.A.., the U.K). His interests were in teaching, learning, and testing of English as a second language. For participants with this type of experiences and diverse backgrounds, they may have heard of ThaiE, or similar terms like Singapore English and Indian English, during their lifetimes. Due to these experiences, they may have been more accepting of the possible existence of ThaiE and might have seen my study as an opportunity to further disseminate the notion of ThaiE.

Third is the level of the participants' social interaction with other social circles within their own culture or the lack thereof. In this study, the participants who I interviewed during my fieldwork were highly educated Thai speakers of English. Many came from well-to-do families, and their social circles were centered on their spouses, significant others, friends, coworkers, and university students, all highly educated just like the participants themselves. Their normal routine and daily activities, outside of work, usually evolved around the people within their isolated social circles. Therefore, the participants in this study represent highly educated ThaiE speakers from a specific high socio-economic class of the Thai society, not the lower uneducated everyday

persons from a lower socio-economic class such as hawkers and peddlers, street vendors, taxi-drivers, fish merchants in the markets, or house maids and servants, who may use English differently from what they are accustomed to. For this reason, the participants' daily social interaction with various other existing social circles within their society may, to some extent, have influenced their decisions to not recognize the existence of ThaiE in this study.

As for N11, the only participant who did not give me a definitive answer, whether she thought ThaiE existed or not, her response could have been due to the unfamiliarity with the term *ThaiE*. Like some participants who did not believe ThaiE existed, the notion of ThaiE could have cast some doubt on N11's part, thus resulting in her unwillingness to give me an answer. Another possibility is that N11 may not have honestly believed that ThaiE existed, so she held back her opinion; hence resulting in a non-response. Yet, it is also possible that she simply did not know the answer; therefore, she decided not to say anything much on ThaiE at the time the interview was conducted.

Whether or not the participants believed ThaiE existed at the time the interviews were conducted, all 12 participants of this study were aware of the unique accent and slightly peculiar pronunciation of the English words that some Thai speakers of English may exhibit in their English speech. Interestingly, the participants view the characteristics of the way many Thais were speaking English as positive and charming, not the negative and marginalized linguistic traits to say the least.

Among the participants, N03's opinion struck me as being the most interesting. When asked why she thought the way she was speaking English with her particular Thai accent was positive, she stated that it was related to her Thai identity and that she was proud of her speech peculiarity. To purge the unique Thai accent from her English speech would be akin to denying her very existence as a speaker of World Englishes of which she held herself accountable.

In conclusion, the answer to the first research question is both yes and no. Like other World Englishes, ThaiE is structurally a variety of English. However, the perception of ThaiE has not been widely recognized by its highly educated Thai speakers of English in this study. Since this study shows that ThaiE has the structural characteristics of its own, what the speakers think is another matter.

7.1.1 If yes, what historical and sociolinguistic influences conspire to produce ThaiE in this context?

If ThaiE was more recognized in the future, I would say the historical and socioliguistic influences that conspired to produce ThaiE in this context could be looked at from the following aspects.

- Historical influence
- Sociolinguistic influence

7.1.1.1 Historical influence. Unlike New Englishes or extraterritorial varieties (Hickey, 2004), ThaiE does not have any historical, or colonial, ties with both the U.K. and the U.S.A. (see Chapters 1 and 2). The reasons are being that Thailand (formerly known as *Siam*) has never been colonized by any Western Powers (Horey, 1991). The earliest contacts that Thailand had with the Western Powers were due to trades during the reign of King Rama III in the late nineteenth century. English was unexpectedly introduced to Thailand during that time, as a result of the trades and not from colonization by the Western Powers (Baker, 2008 p. 137; Foley, 2005, 2007). If ThaiE is to be recognized as a variety in the future, it definitely does not have any colonial ties to any Western Powers. Therefore, ThaiE does not have any historical influence from both the U.K. and the U.S.A., based on the history of how English was introduced to Thailand.

7.1.1.2 Sociolinguistic influence. ThaiE has arisen as a result of the recent Thai government policies towards English communication in Thailand and the urgent need to have effective English communicators to compete in the economic and international marketplace and in tourism (Forey, 2005). Because of the government's policy and demand, Thais are increasingly aware of the benefits of becoming effective English communicators in Thailand. In turn, the recent paradigm shift by the Thai government towards English learning seems to have had a direct causal effect of English use by Thais, which appears to be in the early stages of evolving to become ThaiE in Thailand. However, due to this recent development, it is difficult to ascertain as to whether ThaiE is

a fad, or perhaps a newly emergent variety of Asian Englishes. If ThaiE continues to evolve and develop into becoming a more mature variety of English in the future, the following sociolinguistic factors may give rise to the emergence of ThaiE.

- The Thai government policies and awareness of English communication,

- The benefits of becoming effective English communicators,

- Intrinsic motivation of the ThaiE speakers themselves.

From the King Rama III period to 1999, English has been considered an EFL in Thailand. It was after 2000 that English has taken on an additional role as an international language (Baker, 2008, 2009; Horey, 1991). The additional role that English has taken on in Thailand has been a result of the Thai government policies towards engaging the Thai citizens in effective English communication with other members of the ASEAN states in Southeast Asia (Prapphal, 2008).

According to ASEAN, the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) will be formed by 2020. This new community will allow free trade, services, investments, and easy mobility for the citizens of the ASEAN members to travel by air within the region, and this occurrence may start as early as 2015 (www.tceb.or/th). To assist the Thai populace in participating in the AEC, the Thai government has raised awareness for the average Thai citizens to use English effectively and internationally, with the urgent and tangible

goal of being able to compete economically with other members of the ASEAN states (Prapphal, 2008, p. 139).

The government's long-term goal is to want Thais and their future generations to become effective English language communicators for life, while the short-term goal is to equip their citizens with English communication skills so that they are capable of communicating internationally and competing economically with other ASEAN members (Baker, 2008; Horey, 1991; Prappal, 2008). As a result of the government policies and the awareness of English communication has been highlighted, many Thais in Thailand have not only seen the benefits of becoming effective English communicators, but they have also been motivated to accomplish the communicative goals for personal and economical self-interests.

The increased awareness and shift towards English communication in Thailand has been positive (Forey, 2005), after the Thai government had increased awareness of using English as an international language and emphasized the need for more Thais to become effective English communicators in the economic and international marketplace and tourism. Examples are highlighted in (172), (173), and (174).

(172) N07: I still think um English speaking for Thai people, um anyone that can
            speak English, for the Thai people, still be um have to say, become
            another class.

(173) N07: Because actually, taxi driver, government pay for them um have to have

English teaching class for the taxi.

(174) N07: Because one thing, if you want ah to open the country to anyone in the

world, at least everyone should know a basic of English.

In (172), N07 gave an example of the positive perception of English communication by Thai taxi drivers and many Thais working in the tourist industry, such as hotel workers in many tourist destinations inside Thailand. If they could speak English well, they would be considered a more privileged class within Thai society. Unfortunately, these people, in N07's opinion, could not communicate well in English, a means of promoting tourism with foreign visitors. This fact alone may discourage many tourists from revisiting and traveling more inside Thailand, which in turn would result in less income that these people and the country would be making in the long run, as N07 stated in (173). Because of this situation, the Thai government has enrolled Thai taxi drivers in communicative English workshops with the goal of assisting them in communicating in English with foreign visitors more effectively, thereby encouraging foreign tourists to want to return to Thailand in the future, as mentioned in (174).

Currently, it seems that more Thais in Thailand have been intrinsically motivated to learn more English due to the current government policies on English communication

in Thailand. The communicative awareness, the personal benefits that the government has emphasized, the immediate economic outcomes of effective English communication, particularly in tourism, seem to be working to motivate Thais to learn English. Such motivation is in response to these sociolinguistic influences, which may in turn contribute to the development of ThaiE, if it will be recognized as a variety of English in its own right in the future.

However, it is important to note that the data from this study is inconclusive. It does not tell us what ThaiE is sociolinguistically, except for the fact that some structures of the ThaiE data are similar to World Englishes and some to Thai. In addition, this study does not provide any specific linguistic forms that are considered concrete "indicators", "markers", and even "stereotypes" of ThaiE (Labov, 1972, pp. 178-180, as cited in Johnstone, Andrus, and Danielson, 2006, pp. 82-83). The only information that this study provides is the attitudes and perceptions of my fieldwork participants, or from the in-group speakers, towards their notion of ThaiE as well as their subjective opinions, regarding the characteristics of what they believed ThaiE speech was like.

To identify what ThaiE really is in relation to enregisterment (Agha, 2003) and indexicality (Silverstein, 2003) of the linguistic forms, a study testing the stages of enregisterment (R. Mailhammer, personal communication, June 11, 2013) and/or later a large-scale and longitudinal study that involves ThaiE speakers from different regions of Thailand, socioeconomic class, age groups, professions, and educational levels are

needed. The results of such studies will show us which set of the ThaiE linguistic forms

is enregistered within the speech of their speakers, the process known as *enregisterment*

(Agha, 2003), and what indexes indicate to the out-group speakers that the specific form-

function registers of ThaiE are not only identified as a speech pattern of ThaiE speakers

but also linked to particular schemata and cultural values of the ThaiE speakers

themselves, or *indexicality* (Silverstein, 2003).

To understand both sociolinguistic notions that will contribute to the valuable

insights and emergence of ThaiE, enregisterment is a process through which "a linguistic

repertoire becomes differentiable within a language as a socially recognized register of

forms" (Agha, 2003, p. 231). What this equates to is that a set of linguistic forms, spoken

by speakers of a speech variety, is used as a marker of the speakers' social identity, i.e.

socioeconomic class, places where they are from, and how these linguistic forms are

enregistered within a dialect with which they are identified. An example is

enregisterment of Received Pronunciation (RP), a prestige register of spoken British

English that has been transformed from being just a regional sociolect in the sixteenth

century to become a supralocal variety of English, or a national standard of the U.K. in

the present day (Agha, 2003, p. 244).

Indexicality is a concept showing the "relationships between the linguistic forms

and social meaning … at various levels of abstraction or 'order of indexicality'"

(Johnstone et al., 2006, p. 81). According to Silverstein (2003), indexical order shows

that "any *n*-th order indexical presupposes that the context in which it is normatively used has a schematization of some particular sort, relative to which we can model the 'appropriateness' of its usage in that context" (p. 193).

Therefore, orders of indexicality indicate hierarchy as to how forms and functions of a particular speech and language are manifested by users of their cultural context. Silverstein (2003) conceptualizes indexicality into three orders, as first-, second-, and third-order indexicality:

> "first-order" correlations between demographic identities and linguistic usages (Labov's 1972, p. 178, "indicators") came to be available for "second-order" sociolinguistic "marking" (Labov, 1972, p. 179) of class and place, and then how certain of these indexical relationships between linguistic forms and social meanings became resources for the "third-order" indexical use of sociolinguistic "stereotypes" (Labov, 1972, p. 180) in more reflexive identity work. (as cited in Johnstone et al., 2006, p.78)

An example, resulting from both enregisterment and indexicality, is shown in Johnstone et al. (2006)'s study on Pittsburghese, an American English dialect of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. In their study, the working-class, male speakers of Pittsburghese are identified with monophthongization of the diphthong /aw/ as /a:/, as in *house*, which is pronounced as [haws] by speakers of Standard American English, but

speakers of Pittsburghese monophthongize the diphthong and pronounce *house* as [ha:s] (Johnstone et al., 2006, p. 81). When the out-group hears the monophthongized /a:/ from speech of some English speakers, the use of this /a:/ feature indicates to the hearers that the speakers are likely to be from Pittsburgh, male, and of the working class. Despite the results, what a usage indexes may not mean the same thing for the in-group using it and the out-group who does not use it. As Johnstone et al. (2006) note in their article, not even users of a form always note that they use it (K.L. Adams, personal communication, June 10, 2013), and therefore, it is possible that the in-group speakers of ThaiE may or may not realize that they use certain features in their speech.

In a similar manner, ThaiE could be identified by the out-group speakers as English speech spoken by Thai speakers of English, who were born and raised in Thailand for a long period of time. In addition, certain linguistic cues of ThaiE in their speech could be linked to particular schemata and cultural values of the ThaiE speakers if future studies can provide the conclusive outcomes of the data. Unfortunately, the data of my study is too small and inclusive to offer in-depth insights as to how enregisterment and indexicality have sociolinguistically conspired to produce ThaiE at the present time. For this reason, more studies are needed for future and more conclusive outcomes.

7.1.2 How did the Thai educational system influence the development of ThaiE as a variety in this context, as opposed to other countries in Asia?

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From the past to the present, English has been treated as an EFL in Thailand and taught only in schools. Starting in the late nineteen century (i.e. King Rama III era), English was treated as an EFL and taught as private instruction to the royal children and the privileged group of the ruling class (Baker, 2008, p. 137; Foley, 2005, 2007). It was approximately a hundred years later, after the King Rama III period, that English was made accessible to the general public.

In principle, the general public had access to the English language instruction in 1960, after the National Education Act was implemented in Thailand (Foley, 2005, 2007; Prapphal, 2008). In practice, it was recently in 1999 after the National Syllabus Reform took effect nationwide, that the general public had actual access to English language instruction. Then, in 2000, Thailand has welcomed another role of English as an international language in Thailand (Baker, 2008, 2009; Horey, 1991).

Despite the additional role, English is still considered an EFL by the general public and taught as part of the compulsory curriculum in Thailand. According to the current National Syllabus, Thai school children are taugiht English language instruction from Grade 1, and the teaching method has been changed, from formal grammar instruction, to the functional-communicative approach (Foley, 2005, 2007; Prapphal, 2008).

Nowadays, Thai school students learn English by incorporating it into their own local cultures and languages, and the cultures and languages of other ASEAN countries

into their English curriculum (Horey, 1991; Foley, 2005, 2007; Prapphal, 2008). The goal of the Thai government is for Thai students to use and communicate effectively in English in the real world, which directly corresponds to tourism, the country's major money making industry business and the major drive to becoming a member of AEC within the ASEAN region. Therefore, if ThaiE is to be recognized as a variety of English in the future, its foundations can be found in the formal educational system in Thailand, where English is taught by native Thai teachers of English in Thai public schools. Furthermore, it would appear that ThaiE would find the opportunity to develop further by the growth of the tourist industry within the country.

Like many Asian Englishes that are emerging in the present day, speakers of ThaiE have thought to be having lower exposure to native speakers of English (Hickey, 2004). It is partly because most English language teachers in Thai public schools are native Thai speakers, who have been neither proficient nor self-reported to be not confident in English communication in the actual English classrooms (Foley, 2005, 2007; Horey, 1991; Prapphal, 2008). For students who were taught by native English speaking teachers, there has been insufficient qualified English speaking teachers in the public classrooms (Foley, 2005, 2007; Horey, 1991; Prapphal, 2008). The exposure that the ThaiE speakers are likely to have interaction with are from tourists, both native and nonnative speakers of English, visiting the country from foreign locations, not from their own English teachers in the public schools.

Unlike other Asian Englishes, i.e. Indian English (Kachru, 1992, 2009; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008), Malaysia English (Gill, 2009), and Singapore English (Ansaldo, 2011; Lim, 2004; Platt, Weber, & Ho, 1984), ThaiE does not have any historical ties to both the U.K. and the U.S.A. ThaiE use has emerged from schools, from the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language, ever since the first time English was introduced into Thailand. Before, the attitudes of the Thai towards English might have been negative (Glass, 2009, p. 533) and the motivation to learn English might have been low (Horey, 1991, p. 157; Prapphal & Oller, 1982). Now, the shift towards English has gradually changed and is viewed as a positive factor in Thailand (Forey, 2005). The primary reasons for this attitudinal change have been attributed to the fact that English has been designated as the principle international language in Thailand and promotion of the tourist industry, a major economic windfall for the country (Horey, 1991), all of which may play a large role in the future development of ThaiE in Thailand.

7.2 What Are the Typological Features of Thai That May Appear in English?

Prior to the data collection, I expected that some features of Thai may appear in English, which may in turn result in the recognition of ThaiE as a variety of English in the world. Unfortunately, the majority of my interview participants believed that there was no ThaiE at the time the study was conducted. Despite the interview outcomes, the data of this study shows that certain Thai features appeared in ThaiE. Out of the eight

features of Thai, introduced in Chapter 2, seven Thai features were discovered in my data (See Chapter 4 for details).

The seven features of Thai that exist in ThaiE are:

- Topic-comment,

- Topicalization,

- Topic-drop,

- Topic-chain constructions,

- No case/no agreement,

- No articles, and

- Serial verb constructions.

The only feature that was absent from the ThaiE data of this study is the use of Thai classifier phrases in ThaiE. The explanation could be due to the fact that the data I examined are small, centric to a specific socio-economic class, and my interview questions may not be in-depth enough to elicit every possible aspect of the interview participants' daily activities and routines, e.g. questions concerning social interactions about tea/coffee times, exchanges at the grocery stores, and so on. If the questions and observations had evolved around such contexts, the use of the Thai classifier phrases might have appeared in the participants' data. For this reason, more research is needed to delve into whether there is evidence of Thai classifier phrases in ThaiE in the future.

7.3 What Are the Linguistic Features of ThaiE, Based on the Collected Data? And What Are the Attitudes of Highly Educated Thai Speakers of English Towards ThaiE?

Interestingly, ThaiE has a mixture of the linguistic features found in not only World Englishes, Standard English, but also in Thai. To say the least, ThaiE appears to make use of many features in both English and Thai, with the inclination towards World Englishes more than Standard English. ThaiE also has Thai features in it, but these Thai features are similar to the World Englishes features. For this reason, it is to say that ThaiE of this study is relatively similar to World Englishes in general, and we can generally look at these features in three respective aspects:

- Morpho-syntax
- Phonology
- Sociolinguistics

7.3.1 The morpho-syntax of ThaiE. ThaiE is not only similar to both World Englishes and Standard English, but it also has some features of Thai in it, which is indicative of its uniqueness of English (see Chapter 4 for details). However, the ThaiE morpho-syntax of this study may be summarized below:

- The grammar and structures of ThaiE are similar to Standard English in the uses of the following aspects:

  (i)   Gender in the NPs,

  (ii)   Modality in the VPs,

  (iii)   Progressive use with stative verbs,

  (iv)   Unstressed DO in the VPs, and

  (v)   The question tags in the sentences.

- ThaiE is similar to World Englishes in uses of these features:

  (i) The articles, genitive –'s, number, and pronouns in the ThaiE NPs,

  (ii) Tense, aspect, number, copular BE in the ThaiE VPs,

  (iii) PPs (i.e. as shown in absence of Ps, use of strange Ps, and use of additional Ps),

  (iv) Topicalization, and

  (v) Auxiliary-inversion in the sentences.

- ThaiE exhibits a degree of the Thai features in terms of the following aspects:

  (i) Topic-comment,

(ii) Topicalization,

(iii) Topic-drop,

(iv) Topic-chain constructions,

(v) No case/no agreement,

(vi) No articles, and

(vii) Serial verb constructions.

7.3.2 The phonology of ThaiE. Some ThaiE speakers have a tendency to pronounce English words slightly differently from other speakers of English. It is due to the Thai accent and unique pronunciation of the English words that some Thai speakers of English may possess in English speaking. Although there is a tendency for some ThaiE speakers to speak English in such a manner, this may not hold true in all Thai speakers of English. Because there is a degree of intra-speaker and stylistic variation (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008), and the speakers' English proficiency (Hickey, 2004) may be different, the listeners may, or may not, detect a specific Thai accent or unique pronunciation of the English words that are different, or deviated, from their own. The judgment is personal and subjective to the listeners of ThaiE speakers (see Chapter 5 for details). In general, there is no conclusive evidence that indicates the exact phonological features ThaiE speakers are including in their English speaking. The results of this study

are only used in describing what is found in the data of the study. They are not meant to be conclusive nor stereotypical, therefore, additional research will be needed to shed more light on the details dealing with this subject.

7.3.3 The socioliguistics of ThaiE and the attitudes of highly educated Thai speakers of English towards ThaiE. Sociolinguistically, ThaiE is unique. Two reasons are offered, based on the interviews with 12 participants during my fieldwork in the U.S.A. and Thailand (see Chapter 6 for details). One is the Thai accent of the ThaiE speakers that sets them apart from other speakers of World Englishes. The Thai accent here refers to the English speech by some Thais that exhibits a large degree of syllable-timing and unique pronunciation of the English words in their English speaking. The other is that ThaiE is culture and context-specific. ThaiE developed from Thai culture, and its context of use is mostly imbedded in the language and people of Thailand.

While the majority of the interview participants do not believe that ThaiE is a variety in its own right, the minority of the participants (n=5) are more open and welcoming to the notion of ThaiE, as another variety of English in the world today. Interestingly, the English grammar and structures, used by the Thai people combined with the participants' perception and attitudes towards the Thai accent and peculiar pronunciation exhibited in some English speech of the Thai speakers, are compelling

evidence for the majority participants and affirmation by the minority participants to consider the English speech by the Thai speakers of English as a ThaiE variety at the present time.

With reference to the minority of the interview participants, ThaiE is believed to be a variety of English in its own right. They embrace the current notion of existing changes in the language as evidence that ThaiE is similar to both Standard English and World Englishes, in terms of grammar and structures and being assimilated by some features of the Thai language. Therefore, the result of the language mixture is ThaiE, which is not only unique but also displays a degree of the Thai accent and peculiar pronunciation in the English speech by some Thai speakers. In this aspect, it is possible to say that ThaiE is identified as a solidarity marker among the Thai speakers of English, because it is considered a unique identity that these speakers share as an active participant in their English speaking.

Since the interview results of this study show that ThaiE is not a variety of English in its own right; however, the linguistic features of ThaiE listed and highlighted in this section are present but lack enough empirical evidence for it to be accepted at the moment (the list is descriptive and inconclusive). Keep in mind that the speakers were varied in their speaking styles and variations. Therefore, the descriptive list of ThaiE here can only be used as awareness of the way some Thai speakers of English may represent themselves in their English speaking, based on the data of this study. To

explore more of ThaiE, longitudinal studies and research that employs different designs and analyses will be needed in the future.

7.4 How Could We Explain Such a Language Phenomenon in This Context?

This study shows that ThaiE, as a variety of World Englishes, has the structural characteristics of its own even though the majority of the speakers do not consider ThaiE a variety of English in its own right at the time the study was conducted. Despite the results, it may be too early to decide if ThaiE will be just a fad in language use that may die out or become a variety of English in its own right in the future. More research is definitely needed to support or counter-argue with the results depicted in this study. However, a language phenomenon in Thailand, which could be called ThaiE, is attributable to two factors. The first factor is a result of the urgent need of the Thai government that aims at having more effective Thai communicators of English in Thailand by 2015. The goals were established for Thailand to compete economically and internationally with other ASEAN countries in the AEC and in tourism within the country. The second factor is due to the spread of English in Thailand from internal and external influences.

First is the recent Thai government policies towards English communication in Thailand. From the results of this study, it is possible that Thailand has experienced an incremental change and perception towards the use of English communication in the

country. As the Thai government has increasingly raised awareness for Thai citizens to use English as an international language in Thailand (Forey, 2005), the shift towards English use, as another means of daily communication, is seen as positive (Foley, 2005). More Thais in Thailand not only see the personal and economic benefits of becoming effective English communicators, but they also realize that English is no longer a luxury, but a necessity in their lives. For this reason, ThaiE, or English used by educated Thais in Thailand, has morphed into a language phenomenon that is occurring in Thailand presently.

Second is because of the spread of English in Thailand. Although English entered Thailand during the King Rama III era (Baker, 2008, p. 137; Foley, 2005, 2007), it has been considered an EFL, a language of others (Glass, 2009, p. 533) and of the privileged groups (Foley, 2005, 2007) in Thailand. It is only recent years, after the Thai government had raised awareness for Thai citizens to become more effective English communicators by the year 2015 (i.e. entry as an AEC member), that English has spread more among Thais in Thailand.

Linked to the increasing widespread use of English in Thailand, ThaiE, which we have yet to know what its future will be, is considered a language phenomenon that is presently occurring with the explosion of English use in Thailand. In Chapter 1, three models of English were mentioned with regards to the spread of English:

- Kachru (1992)' concentric model, which classifies English used in the inner/outer/expanding circle countries based on the English status in those countries,

- Strang's proposal of spoken English (as cited in Schneider, 2011), which classifies English as a ENL/ESL/EFL, and

- Schneider (2011)'s dynamic model of the linguistic phases in New/Extraterritorial Englishes, i.e. foundation, exonormative stabilisation, nativization, endonormative stabilisation, and differentiation.

If ThaiE is defined in terms of these models, it is a present language phenomenon that is occurring in Thailand as the result of the current spread of English in the world, and the spread has been triggered by the Thai government policies towards English communication in Thailand.

If we look at ThaiE as a language phenomenon in Thailand from Kachru (1992)'s concentric model, ThaiE is English used in the expanding circle country (i.e. Thailand) where English is considered an EFL, just like in Strang's proposal too. Speakers of English in the expanding circles learn English from schools, through their formal educational systems, so they have low exposure to native English speakers (Hickey, 2004). ThaiE in Thailand is no exception. Even though the Thai government has imposed an additional mandate of English in Thailand as an international language,

English in Thailand has still been considered an EFL, and many Thais still prefer communicating in their own native language of Thai with one another, as some participants of the study have noted.

If explained from the dynamic model (Schneider, 2011), ThaiE appears to be in continuum between the beginning (foundation) and the second (exonormative stabilisation) phases. Keep in mind that even though Schneider (2007, 2011)'s model was initially intended to be used in describing the spread of English in the Asia-Pacific region, particularly New/Extraterritorial Englishes (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008), his model may not be completely compatible with the language phenomenon that is occurring in Thailand right now.

It is because ThaiE is not one of New/Extraterritorial Englishes whose Englishes have historical ties to the U.K. and/or the U.S.A. Instead, ThaiE is classified as a "very much newer" variety of Asian Englishes that is appearing in the literature of World Englishes (Lim & Gisborne, 2011, p.7). Other researchers have classified ThaiE as one of the Asian English varieties (Lim & Gisborne, 2011; Sarah, Gogoi, & Wiltshire, 2011; Yano, 2009), L2 varieties (Lim & Gisborne, 2011), non-native varieties of English (Hickey, 2004), and Second-Language English (Hickey, 2004, p. 510; Lim & Gisborne, 2011, p. 7).

In the Dynamic Model, English spreads into a new territory of the U.K. and the U.S.A. in five stages (Schneider, 2011, pp. 33-35):

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- The foundation,

- Exonormative stabilisation,

- Nativization,

- Endonormative stablisation, and

- Differentiation.

The foundation phase happens when English was introduced to a new territory (i.e. China in the nineteenth century) via trade (Schneider, 2011, p. 47). The only evidence we will see, as a result of the spread of English into the new territory, is lexical borrowing of the indigenous languages into English, i.e. toponyms. However in the context of Thailand, Thai place names, such as Bangkok (capital city) and Siam (former name of Thailand), existed in English during the time that English first entered Thailand (during King Rama III period). That period could be said to have placed the spread of English in Thailand under the foundation phase of Schneider (2011)'s dynamic model. The reason was English, which was an EFL, was accessible to the privileged group of the ruling class, such as children of the royal family, only (Baker, 2008; Foley, 2005, 2007). The general public was still denied access to English during the foundation phase.

The exonormative stabilisation is the phase that the settler communities depend on the language and political norms of the mother countries, such as the U.K. and the U.S.A. (Schneider, 2011). In this phase, English is acquired in schools but still not

accessible to the general public (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 33-34). The U.K. and the U.S.A. are the norm-setters of how English is used in the new territories. Prescriptive rules are valued as being correct, and bilingualism is noticeable. To some extent, ThaiE has exhibited movement into the exonormative stabilisation phase at the time this study was conducted.

Because many Thai speakers of English, including the majority of participants of this study that I interviewed during my fieldwork in the U.S.A. and Thailand, viewed correct English as English used by educated native English speakers in the U.K. and the U.S.A.; hence correct English is associated with the prescriptive rules of Standard English (Quirk, 1998). ThaiE appears to be descriptive. For this reason, many educated Thai speakers of English, especially in this study, consider this type of English use to be incorrect; thus non-standard English. Since many Thais of this study have used English as ThaiE and bilingualism (between Thai and English to a certain extent by some speakers) has been evident, the language phenomenon that I will call ThaiE may be in the second phase of Schneider (2011)'s model at the moment.

However, the dynamic model is inapplicable to all aspects of ThaiE, particularly in the exonormative stabilisation phase. In the second phase of Schneider (2011)'s model, English is not accessible to the general public. But this study shows that English is accessible to the general public (Prapphal, 2008; Foley, 2005, 2007; Horey, 1991). Thai children start learning English in schools from Grade 1, and the focus has shifted,

from grammar instruction and reading that is teacher-centered, to the student-centered, functional-communicative approach (Foley, 2005, 2007; Prapphal, 2008). Currently, the English language instruction in Thailand has incorporated the local cultures and languages of Thai students and of other ASEAN countries into the curriculum, with the goal that students will become more effective English communicators in the real world (Prapphal, 2008; Foley, 2005, 2007; Horey, 1991).

The third (nativization), fourth (endonormative stabilisation), and fifth (differentiation) stages of the dynamic model are not happening in ThaiE at the present time. It is because nativazation occurs when the indigenous populace nativize some features of their indigenous languages into English, and the English settlers start to accept a new identity, as independent of the language and political norms of the mother countries, in a new location (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Examples are Hong Kong English and Indian English (Hickey, 2004; Lim & Gisborne, 2011; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008), and Malaysian English (Gill, 2009) of today.

ThaiE is not in the process of being nativized at the moment. Even though some Thai features appear in the ThaiE data of this study, the majority of the participants do not recognize such use of English to be ThaiE, or an individual variety of English in its own right. Despite the invalidity of ThaiE, these ThaiE speakers value the Thai identity of the Thai speakers of English that is interjected into their English speaking as positive

and acceptable. Also, many of them still prefer to speak in their native language (Thai) with other Thais, such as at international conferences, as an in-group solidarity device.

Similarly, the endonormative stabilisation phase, which occurs when the new territories are totally independent of the U.K. and the U.S.A. and have adopted their own English language norms and policies, including codification of their new language, to gain equal footing and political status as other English varieties in the world (i.e. Singapore English) (Lim & Gisborne, 2011, p. 6; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 34), is not happening in Thailand at the moment. Unfortunately, ThaiE is still far from being in the fourth phase of the dynamic model. The reason is being that the notion of ThaiE itself has yet to be recognized, or known, to many educated Thai speakers of English in Thailand, including the majority of the ThaiE speakers in this study.

ThaiE has even less association with the differentiation phase, where the English varieties of the young nations, such as Australia and New Zealand, have been legitimized and seen as the group identities, and there are dialectal differences within the nations (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, pp. 34-35). Again, ThaiE is still far from completing its full circle of the linguistic processes at the present time and is still early in its infancy. Since it is still too early to determine which direction ThaiE will take, whether it is just a fad that will quickly die out or if it will develop into a full-fledged variety of English in the future, only time will tell.

However, one thing that cannot be ignored is that there is early evidence of a language phenomenon presently occurring in Thailand. It may be called ThaiE, but its status has not been widely recognized by the highly educated Thai speakers of English in Thailand. ThaiE is presently a language phenomenon, resulting from the Thai government policies towards English communication and the spread of English in Thailand, in this modern era. Whether ThaiE will be a fad of language use or develop into an actual variety of English in the future is undetermined at this time

7. 5 What Future Does ThaiE Hold in Relation to Other English Varieties in the World?

Despite the spread of English in Thailand at the present, it may be too early to tell the direction of ThaiE. Will it be just a fad that may die out eventually? Or, will it be developed into a new variant of English, or later a full-fledge variety?

Unfortunately, the current study has not provided enough evidence to determine the direction of ThaiE. The only evidence that this study shows is that there is definitely a shift in language use, particularly English in Thailand at the moment. Such a shift is in response to the Thai government policies, increasingly raising awareness towards the urgent need of having more English communicators in Thailand by the year 2015. The government goals are twofold. The long-term goal is for Thai citizens to be effective English communicators for life, while the short-goal is for them to compete economically

and internationally with other ASEAN countries in the Southeast Asian region and in tourism for the country. Coincidently, the attitude change of English use and the motivation to become more effective communicators of English in Thailand has been the result of the spread of English in the modern world.

For these reasons, more research is needed to not only claim, or counter-claim, the existence of ThaiE in Thailand, but to also determine the direction of ThaiE in the Asian context. In a small way, this study is just a beginning to kindle the start of more studies into ThaiE in the world. It will be up to future research to elaborate more on the outcome of its presence.

Chapter 8

CONCLUSIONS

8.1 Chapter Summaries

This dissertation study is about Thai English (ThaiE), a variety of World Englishes that is presently occurring in Thailand as the result of the spread of English and the recent Thai government policies towards English communication in Thailand. In the study, I examined the linguistic data of ThaiE, collected from multiple sources, i.e. the fieldwork interviews with highly educated ThaiE speakers in the U.S.A. and Thailand, the media in Thailand, and the research articles on English used by Thai speakers of English.

Chapter 1 is the introduction. It provides synopses of this research: what is it about? why was it studied?, and how did I go about conducting the study? In the introductory chapter, key relevant notions to the study are described, such as the spread of English as a phenomenon of language change, the models of English used in classifying spoken English and the linguistic phases of English in the World Englishes literature, language variation, language change and language contact, and code-switching. The chapter ends with the terminology that I used in my study, i.e. World Englishes, New Englishes, Postcolonial Englishes, Asian Englishes, and Thai English, and the research questions of this study.

Chapter 2 presents the typology of World Englishes versus Standard Englishes, Thai versus English, and English in Thailand. The entire chapter provides the underlying understanding of the linguistic features of English and Thai that may contribute to the development of ThaiE in the data. The chapter ends with an overview of English in Thailand, how English came into Thailand, the roles it has taken with regards to the Thai educational system, and the attitudes of English by Thais and issues facing the spread of English in Thailand.

Chapter 3 is the method chapter. This is a short chapter. It describes the participants of the study, the materials used in collecting the data, and the details of the procedure that I utilized in conducting the research.

Chapter 4 shows the morpho-syntax of ThaiE. The results of this chapter were drawn from all three sources of the data: the fieldwork interviews in the U.S.A. and Thailand (Source 1), the media in Thailand (Source 2), and the research articles on English used by Thai speakers of English (Source 3). This chapter highlights two aspects of ThaiE. One focuses the features of ThaiE that are similar to World Englishes, and the other is on the features of ThaiE that resemble Thai, which is the native language of the ThaiE speakers of this study.

Chapter 5 describes the phonology of ThaiE. The findings derived from the first and second sources of the data. The data from the third source was excluded, because the transcript excerpts were textual and no audio files were available for examination. This

chapter focuses on four aspects of the ThaiE phonology: the alternation of the vowel sounds, the sound substitution in the consonants, the phonological processes used as a result of the consonantal sound substitution on ThaiE, and the issues related to stress, tone, and intonation of ThaiE from the data.

Chapter 6 is about the sociolinguistics of ThaiE. The outcomes were drawn from the interview data from Source 1 where I interviewed 12 highly educated ThaiE speakers during my fieldwork in the U.S.A. and Thailand. The chapter reveals the perception of ThaiE by these participants and their attitudes towards the English speaking skill of Thais in Thailand.

Chapter 7 is the discussion chapter. In this chapter, the research questions are revealed and explained. The questions are: (i) is ThaiE a variety of English in its own right? If yes, what historical and sociolinguistic influences conspire to produce ThaiE in this context? And how did the Thai educational system influence the development of ThaiE as a variety in this context, as opposed to other countries in Asia?, (ii) What are the typological features of Thai that may appear in English?, (iii) What are the linguistic features of ThaiE, based on the collected data?, and what are the attitudes of highly educated Thai speakers of English towards ThaiE?, (iv) How could we explain such a language phenomenon in this context?, (v) what future does ThaiE hold in relation to other English varieties in the world?

8.2 Contribution to the Field

This dissertation is not the first study to observe a phenomenon of language change, particularly the new emergent Asian English varieties in Asia that have arisen as the result of the current spread of English and local government policies on English communication in the world today. Singapore English (Lim, 2004; Lim & Gisborne, 2011; Platt, Weber, & Ho, 1984) has emerged as the result of the spread of English and their government policy towards English communication. This study shows that ThaiE may, to some extent, follow suit with Singapore in making ThaiE more known to the general public in the future to come.

For the label *ThaiE*, Glass (2009), Watkhaolarm (2005), and Lim and Gisborne (2011) were the very first researchers to mention ThaiE in the World Englishes literature, but no studies have actually examined ThaiE in terms of its linguistic typology since. My study may be the first to linguistically look at ThaiE in the context of Thailand, as more Thais in Thailand have used English in their daily communication, and their motivation to become more effective English communicators is an ongoing effort of Thai government policies towards English communication in the country. As a step forward, my study provides just a small glimpse of research into ThaiE to announce its possible emerging existence to the research realm.

Although the label *ThaiE* itself may not be widely recognized, this study may, to some extent, raise awareness of the existence of ThaiE to be known in the modern era.

This in turn may generate more conversation and open up more opportunities for ThaiE to be studied in the future. As a new language phenomenon, caused by the spread of English, the Thai government policies towards English communication in Thailand, and the personal and economic motivation of the Thai speakers of English themselves, ThaiE deserves its recognition, although just a little, in the research realm. It is because ThaiE represents a shift of language use (i.e. English) by the local Thai people in Thailand in the present time, and, as the contribution to the field, it is hoped that this study will create more discussion and research into ThaiE in the near future.

8.3 Suggested Future Research Directions

This study only examines the spoken English data, produced by highly educated Thai speakers of English. The results only shed light on certain aspects of their English speech on ThaiE in the present time. Future research could look at the English speech data from different groups of ThaiE speakers, such as the lower educated Thai speakers of English, like taxi drivers and street vendors in tourist attraction destinations in throughout Thailand, who may speak and use English differently from the participants of my study. To generalize the frequencies of feature usages, as shown in Tables 4.1, 4.4. and 5.1 (i.e. articles, genitive, number, gender, pronouns, tense, aspect, modality, topic-comment, topicalization, topic-chain constructions, serial verb constructions, vowels, consonants, stress, tone, intonation, etc.), much more information would be needed if

ones were to do a study of the constraints that hold for these usages among those who do and those who do not (K.L. Adams, personal communication, June 10, 2013). Unfortunately, a sample of the speech data in this study is insufficient to generalize the typology of ThaiE as a whole. It can only be used as awareness of the way some highly educated Thai speakers of English may speak English so that we become less ignorant about how other speakers of English may speak English differently from us, and acknowledge that they are unique in their own right as speakers of World Englishes.

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APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

Office of Research Integrity and Assurance

To:	Elly Van Gelderen LL
From:	Mark Roosa, Chair Soc Beh IRB
Date:	11/21/2011
Committee Action:	**Exemption Granted**
IRB Action Date:	11/21/2011
IRB Protocol #:	1111007086
Study Title:	Thai English as a Variety

The above-referenced protocol is considered exempt after review by the Institutional Review Board pursuant to Federal regulations, 45 CFR Part 46.101(b)(2) .

This part of the federal regulations requires that the information be recorded by investigators in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects. It is necessary that the information obtained not be such that if disclosed outside the research, it could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability, or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

You should retain a copy of this letter for your records.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES

Instruction: The following questionnaire is given to you, as a participant in my study, before the interview. It aims to elicit your background information. Please complete the information below. Also, please note that your true identity will not be identified in my research study and that you may refrain from answering any question at any moment of the survey.

1. Gender:

      a. Male

      b. Female

2. Age: _____ years old.

3. Where are you from? _____

4. Do your parents speak English with you?

      a. Yes

      b. No

5. What educational level have you finished?

      a. High school

      b. Associate degrees

      c. Bachelor's degree

      d. Master's degree

f. Doctoral degree

6. Specify language(s) and English (i.e. British English, American English, Australian English, etc.) varieties that you speak.

7. Please rate your English proficiency.

    a. Excellent

    b. Good

    c. Okay

    d. Poor

8. How many years have you learned English? Since when/what grade?

9. English is your _____ language?

    a. First language/Mother Tongue

    b. Second language

    c. Foreign language

10. Are you comfortable speaking English?

a. Yes

b. No

c. Depends

11. You speak English on a _____ basis.

    a. Daily

    b. Weekly

    c. Monthly

    d. None of the above

12. Related to Q 11, how often do you speak English on this basis? (If your answer is

    D in Q 11, skip to the last question.)

    a. Always

    b. Often

    c. Sometimes

    d. Rarely

13. Related to Q 11, who do you speak English with?

14. In what context do you speak English?

15. What topics of conversation do you feel comfortable using English?

16. What is your occupation? If you are a student, what year are you in? What is your major?

Thank you.

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

The following questions will be directed to the Thai English participants during the interview sessions. The first question set aims to elicit general background information and speech of the participants; the second question set focuses on their attitudes toward English, English Language Teaching, and Thai English use in Thailand. The interview questions may be unstructured and arbitrarily modified during the actual interviews.

Part 1: General questions with the participants.

a. Tell me about yourself (i.e. your age, occupation, How many language(s) you speak on a regular basis?, Where are you from?, Some things that you want people to know about you as a person from Thailand.).

b. How you do like the city/ studying/teaching/working here? How so? What was your first impression here? If you were to change something in your environment, what would that be? Why?

c. What is your hobby(s)? What do you like to do in your free time? How much time do you spend on doing it? Why is it interesting? How would you convince others/me to participate in it?

d. Do you like to travel? If yes, how often do you travel? Where did you go?/Where do you plan to go and do? Did you have a good time?/What do you expect from the trip? What interested you the most during the trip? How so?

e. Have you ever traveled/lived outside of the country? If yes, where?, What was your memory about it?, How did you adjust to a new life there?, If you were to

advise others who are going to live/study in that country, say for a few years, what advice would you give them when it comes to making the transition to a new change in life?   If no, do you want to (travel to anywhere in the world) and why (not)?   Where would you like to go? Why?

f.   Do you know how to use a computer?   How often do you use it? Which websites do you visit the most? Why? What intrigues you about those websites?

g.   Do you like technology, such as smart phones?   What is your take on it, in general?   Why are electronic gadgets, like iPhones, Andriod Phones, iPads, and tablets, so popular amongst you?

h.   Do you know how to drive?   Do you have a car?   Do you think students should all have cars on campus?   Why (not)?   What is your attitude about driving/walking/riding a motorcycle/ taking a public transportation to school/work here?   What is a normal lifestyle around here like? Do you like it? Is it similar to, or different from other place(s) that you have been to?   How so? Why (not)?

i.   Are you single/dating someone?   If single, why are you still single?   What type of a person are you looking for?   If you are dating, is dating more acceptable in society now?   What is your take on living together while in school? Is this social practice still unacceptable now?   What is your view on it?   What is your attitude on marriage?   How so?

j. What do you see yourself in the next 5 years? What do you think you would be

doing and why?

Part 2: Attitude questions.

a.   How do you rate your English proficiency, in particular your speaking skill?

Excellent, good, okay, or poor? Could you define what you mean by that?

b. How confident are you when you speak English with (i) Thai English

speakers, (ii) nonnative English speakers, and (iii) native English speakers?

Explain your experience(s).

c. How often do you speak English, say, on a daily, weekly, monthly basis?

With whom? In what context or situations?

d. How often do you watch/listen to English language shows on TV/radio/the

internet? What are the shows about?

e. How important is English, in your opinion?

f. What is your general attitude towards the use of English in Thailand?

g. Should all Thais in Thailand speak English as another national/official/second

language? Why (not)? Or, how possible is that? Why (not)?

h. Do you think there is a Thai English variety? Why (not)?

i. How is Thai English different from other English varieties?

j.   Do you change your English language use when traveling to Bangkok?

APPENDIX D

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

Key to transcription conventions From Schiffrin (1994)

.	falling intonation, followed by noticeable pause (at as the end of declarative sentences)
?	rising intonation, followed by noticeable pause (as at the end of interrogative sentences)
,	continuing intonation
…	noticeable pause or break in rhythm without falling intonation
-	self interruption with glottal stop
CAPS	very emphatic stress
→	left arrows highlight key lines
Z	lashing from speakers A to B, without perceptible pause
=	contiguous speech
/words/	in slashes show uncertain transcription