วากยสัมพันธ์และคำศัพท์ในภาษาพิดจิ้นอังกฤษแบบไทยในภูเก็ต

นางสาวณิชา โตวรรณเกษม

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต
สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ (สหสาขาวิชา)
บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
ปีการศึกษา 2553

THE SYNTAX AND LEXICON OF THAI PIDGIN ENGLISH IN PHUKET

Miss Nicha Tovankasame

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts Program in English as an International Language
(Interdisciplinary Program)
Graduate School
Chulalongkorn University
Academic Year 2010
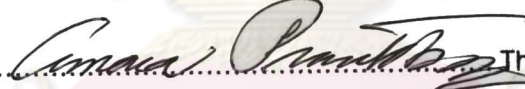
Thesis Title   The Syntax and Lexicon of Thai Pidgin English in Phuket

By   Miss Nicha Tovankasame

Field of Study   English as an International Language Program

Thesis Advisor   Professor Amara Prasithrathsint,Ph.D.

Accepted by the Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree

.... Dean of the Graduate School

(Associate Professor Pornpote Piumsomboon,Ph.D.)

THESIS COMMITTEE

.... Chairman

(Assistant Professor Namtip Pingkarawat,Ph.D.)

.... Thesis Advisor

(Professor Amara Prasithrathsint,Ph.D.)

.... External Examiner

(Associate Professor Boonruang Chunsuvimol,Ph.D.)

ฉิชา โตวรรณเกษม: วากยสัมพันธ์และคำศัพท์ในภาษาพิดจิ้นอังกฤษแบบไทยใน
ภูเก็ต.   (THE SYNTAX AND LEXICON OF THAI PIDGIN ENGLISH IN PHUKET)
อ. ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: ศาสตราจารย์ ดร. อมรา ประสิทธิ์รัฐสินธุ์, 132 หน้า.

งานวิจัยนี้มุ่งศึกษาวากยสัมพันธ์และคำศัพท์ในภาษาพิดจิ้นอังกฤษแบบไทยที่ใช้พูดใน
พื้นที่ตำบลราไวย์ จังหวัดภูเก็ต การเก็บข้อมูลใช้วิธีการบันทึกเสียงการสนทนาในสถานการณ์จริง
ระหว่างผู้พูด (ผู้ให้ข้อมูล) กับคู่สนทนา ผู้พูดหรือผู้ให้ข้อมูลมีทั้งหมด 30 คน แบ่งเป็น 2 กลุ่มคือ
กลุ่มคนขายของและกลุ่มคนที่สมรสกับชาวต่างชาติ งานวิจัยนี้พบว่าลักษณะของภาษาอังกฤษ
พิดจิ้นที่ผู้ให้ข้อมูลใช้แตกต่างไปจากภาษาอังกฤษมาตรฐานในรูปแบบของโครงสร้างประโยค
และโครงสร้างไวยากรณ์เช่น การใช้รูปกริยาเรียงและการไม่ผันกริยา รวมถึงการใช้คำศัพท์เช่น
การทำให้ความหมายของคำกว้างขึ้นและการสร้างคำใหม่ จะเห็นว่าคุณลักษณะที่เกิดขึ้น
คล้ายคลึงกับลักษณะของภาษาพิดจิ้นตามสากลและสะท้อนถึงอิทธิพลจากภาษาแม่ นอกจากนี้
ยังพบว่าภาษาพิดจิ้นดังกล่าวได้ถูกใช้ในบริบทที่กว้างขึ้น ไม่ใช่เฉพาะแค่ในการซื้อขายเท่านั้น แต่
ยังรวมไปถึงการใช้ในชีวิตประจำวันด้วย

สาขาวิชา ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ ลายมือชื่อนิสิต..

ปีการศึกษา 2553   ลายมือชื่ออ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก..........................

NICHA TOVANKASAME: THE SYNTAX AND LEXICON OF THAI PIDGIN ENGLISH IN PHUKET. ADVISOR: PROF. AMARA PRASITHRATHSINT, Ph.D., 132 pp.

This study aims to analyze the syntax and lexicon of Thai Pidgin English in a community named Rawai, Phuket. Data was collected by tape-recording conversations of thirty informants. They are divided into two groups: traders and inter-married families. The results illustrate that Thai Pidgin English spoken in Phuket is a contact language containing features different from those in Standard English in terms of sentence structure and grammatical patterns; e.g., *use of serial verb and the lack of inflectional morphology*, as well as lexical usage; e.g., *semantic broadening and word creation*. Those characteristics show the influence of the first language on constructing another language, and they also correspond to what has been suggested in previous studies of pidgins. Moreover, the situations of speaking Thai Pidgin English in Phuket do not only cover trading circumstances, but also extend to wider contexts.

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Department : English as an International Language   Student's Signature *Nicha Tovankasame*

Academic Year : 2010   Advisor's Signature *Amara Prasithrathsint*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis would not have been possible without many contributions provided by a great number of people, who deserve my humble acknowledgement.

First of all, I am heartily thankful to my advisor, Professor Amara Prasithrathsint, whose encouragement, guidance and support from the initial to the final stage enabled me to develop an understanding of this subject and to accomplish my first thesis.

It is a pleasure to pay tribute to the committee, Assistant Prof. Namtip Pingkarawat and Associate Prof. Boonruang Chunsuvimol, for their valuable comments and suggestions in many interesting aspects.

The great helpfulness would heed to the community of Rawai, where people are very supportive in providing their time to be recorded the conversations.

With my respects, I would like to thank all English experts, Kimberly, Jeremy, Rowenna, and Ajarn Waroth, for their kind cooperation in editing my English uses.

My best counselors of life and study are my parents. My mother, Suneeporn Tovankasame, is a wonderful person who raised me with her caring and tenderly loves. My father, Apinan Tovankasame, is the one who lighted up the great ideas of this study and criticized my thesis' contents in various ways.

Ultimately, I offer my regards and blessings to all of those who supported me in any respect during the completion of the thesis.

CONTENTS

x

PAGE

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Pidgin is a linguistically simplified, mixed, and restricted language used in limited contact situations. According to Wardhaugh (2002: 55), pidgin is a language that has no native speakers. It emerges out of the necessity of communication in business transactions. It is not the first language of anyone.

Mufwene (2002) indicates that pidgin speaking can be found in many coastal areas and former-colonized countries, where trading circumstances and political or economic influences take place, respectively, during the seventeenth to nineteenth centuries. It is spoken among people living around the Atlantic and in the Indian and Pacific Oceans. The situation occurs when people speaking different languages attempt to communicate with one another for their specific purposes. Sometimes, it eventually becomes the first language of the next generation. An interesting book about pidgin written by Carr (1972: 65) focuses on the process of the development of pidgin to become close to Standard English by investigating the degrees of proficiency in English speech of the speakers in each stage. Although it becomes the language of the second generation called 'creole', its popular named 'pidgin' is still used.

In other areas, Hancock (1971: 87) points out that there are possibly more than 200 pidgin and creole languages universally. It would be difficult to indicate the exact number of such languages due to different views of definition and perspective of what pidgin is considered. Allen (1992) states that normally people take pidgin for granted

as one of the varieties providing the concurrence of two or more non-associated language spoken in at least one domain. There are many pidgins in the world; for instance, Hawaiian Pidgin English, Cameroonian Pidgin English, Tok Pisin, Chinese Pidgin English, Jamaican Creole English, etc.

Thai Pidgin English in Thailand has been studied by Chunsuvimol (1995). He collected data from conversations between himself and Thai traders selling souvenirs on Sukhumvit Road (a well-known business area in Bangkok). The study illustrates that the grammatical structure of Thai Pidgin English is different from Standard English. The study suggests the first language has influence on pidgin and that there are syntactic similarities among pidgins around the world.

At present, there is little research on pidgins in Thailand. As Chunsuvimol (1995) suggests, many tourist areas in Thailand (e.g., *Chiangmai, Phuket* and *Pattaya*) might show linguistic patterns of pidgin. Phuket is recognized as a well-known tourist spot that attracts people from all parts of the world. This attractive area is not only inhabited by native Phuket people and Thai southerners, but also by many migrants from other regions (mainly from the north and the northeast of Thailand). They earn their living by being involved in activities related to tourism. Interestingly, the characteristics of these migrants vary in terms of their speech dialects and education backgrounds. This thesis intends to study their language traits in communicating with customers in some specific areas of trading industry, where people from different places assemble and speak a certain type of pidgin. The reason for this is that those people do not understand one another and they need a lingua franca for the purpose of conversation.

To scope the area of study, I am interested in a district named **Rawai**. It is located in the south of Phuket with a size of approximately 38 square kilometers covering the area of the mainland and nine surrounding islands[1], with many highlights; for example, Promtep Cape, Naiharn Beach, Rawai Beach, Yanui Beach, Sea Gypsy Village, and the artist community. These outstanding locations are well-known for peacefulness and relaxation. Thus, there are a large number of foreigners staying as tourists and permanent habitants.

Pidginization in Rawai is caused by the fact that some local people do not get to develop their English skills in school. Instead, they pick up the language by themselves due to their necessity of communicating with others for specific purposes, namely, trading, living or immersing themselves in a particular group or culture activity for intimacy. Thus, they learn to speak English in real situations in commerce and negotiation in order to achieve their goals in trading. Moreover, the aim of communication also includes the language use for building relationship as mentioned earlier.

Obviously, there is no previous research which concentrates on the English pidgin in Phuket. This study will be valuable for those linguists who are interested in linguistic features of pidgins and situations in which they are used.

---

[1]   Retrieved from the website http://www.rawai.go.th/index.php

1.2 Research Questions

The research questions of the study are as follows:

1. What are the syntactic patterns of Thai Pidgin English in Phuket compared with Standard English?

2. What are the characteristics of lexicon in Thai Pidgin English?

3. In what situations or contexts can Thai Pidgin English possibly be used?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:

1. To analyze the syntax and the lexicon of Thai pidgin English in Phuket

2. To compare the syntactic structures and the lexicon of the pidgin with those of Standard English

3. To describe the situations in which the pidgin is used

1.4 Statement of Hypothesis

The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

1. The syntax of Thai Pidgin English in Phuket is marked by two characteristics: the SVO word order and the lack of inflectional morphology

2. The speakers are limited lexicon users; that is, they use one term to cover different words which have similar features and meanings (e.g., *bread for biscuit and toast*).

3. The syntax of Thai Pidgin English is based on Thai, while the lexicon is based on English.

4. Thai Pidgin English is not only used in trading circumstances, but also in everyday conversation.

1.5 Scope of the Study

In order to investigate the characteristics of Thai Pidgin English, the selected informants were originally Thais who are both Rawai native people and habitants who have lived in this community for more than five years. Moreover, the conversations were collected from the authentic contexts happening in the real life situations which were not artificial or scripted beforehand.

1.6 Definition of Terms

1. The term "Pidgin" in this study is the spoken language used for making contact and communicating among people who have different language backgrounds. It normally appears when the speakers attempt to interact in a necessary context such as transaction, traveling, military, and inter-marriage (Hall, 1966: 49). Pidgins facilitate the communication of distinct social groups. The European languages such as English, French, and German are considered as the lexical source languages that provide vocabulary to be used in a vernacular language (Todd, 1974: 58). On this wise, the speakers use the dominant languages in structuring their own sentences by means of simplification and reduction (Wardhaugh, 1986:57; Adler, 1977:38 & 77; Hudson, 1980:62).

2. "Syntax" is the arrangement of a string of words that are combined to form a sentence, occurring in either spoken or written language; it is also called "the structure". Linguistically, it relates to the order of words which cannot be connected randomly; it is subject to a governed standard. This type of rule is called "the grammar of a language" (Aarts, 1982: 62). In order to mention the syntactic description regarding pidgins, Hall (1966, 69) introduced two principle levels: phrase-structure and clause-structure. Phrase-structure is a way to describe the natural language sentence which can be broken down to the syntactic categories; namely, phrasal categories (noun phrase, verb phrase, and prepositional phrase) and lexical categories (noun, verb, and adjective). Clause-structure is used to analyze the elements of sentence in the relative position of 'head and modifier' by initially emphasizing ATTRIBUTE + HEAD of noun phrase, which can be found in *good + man*.

3. "Lexicon" is the language's vocabulary stored in the mental dictionary of the speakers' minds. It consists of words, meaning, and pronunciation (Fromkin et al, 2007: 157). In sociolinguistic process, the size of lexicon can be increased by borrowing from other languages. The borrowed words may obtain additional meanings when used by the pidgin speakers. In some pidgins, the borrowed words are also added with the affixes of the native words with some adjustment made to the words borrowed as to accommodate the speakers (Hatch & Brown, 1995: 170).

1.7 Significance of the Study

In the past decade, there have been three studies on Thai Pidgin English in the central part of Bangkok, the capital city of Thailand (Chunsuvimol 1995, Chomchinda 1995, Hirunpat 2004). They found interesting characteristics of the language use among the traders and in the touring careers in terms of linguistic analysis and language acquisition. The previous pidgin studies in Thailand provide significant starting steps of studying pidgins in Thailand. However, there has been no study of a pidgin outside Bangkok and no study that takes into account situations in which pidgin is used in Thailand.

Theoretically, this study presents another sample of pidgins used by another population, aiming to provide a better understanding of how people use the language for their living which occurs in many parts of the world. Moreover, it can be another resource for the theory of pidgin syntactic and lexical features in which some similarities to or differences from other pidgins are found. Pedagogically, the results of this study can be an evidence of the failure of English uses by pidgin speakers in Phuket which can be observed in the ungrammatical uses and the different word choices from Standard English. This phenomenon can be a supporting data to determine the direction for the development of curriculum and course syllabus of teaching English as a foreign language to Thai students.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter demonstrates a review of literature related to pidgins. The content of the review is divided into three main topics as follows.

(1) Pidginization and creolization

(2) The characteristics of pidgins

(3) Pidgins spoken in the world

2.1 Pidginization and creolization

Many scholars in the field of pidgins and creoles have posed different views regarding pidginization and creolization. They can be divided into sub-topics: *origins of pidgins, theories of pidgins,* and *the process of becoming creoles* as follows:

2.1.1 Origins of pidgins

The beginning of pidgin circumstances occur among the interaction when people from different cultures and communities come into contact with one another. These interethnic groups with diverse languages need a "lingua franca" to fill the gap in communication. According to Mauranen (2009), a lingua franca is used by people who do not have the common language to communicate in their conversations. Furthermore, she states that English is the global lingua franca considered to be the core language in North America and Australia, and also the second language in Africa

and Asia. Interestingly, English becomes the means of communication all over the world although peoples in those areas use their native spoken languages to communicate in their communities. Meanwhile, Diaz (2008) points out that a type of lingua franca is "pidgin language" representing a mixture of two or more languages. It can facilitate the difficult communication between those distinct mother-tongue speakers. He gives an example of lingual franca in the Mediterranean by explaining the situations in that area.

In order to explain about pidgins, Adler (1977) states that the traditional pidgins originate from the language of trading, mostly trading slaves. They are found in some parts of Africa, Asia, and Australia when the Europeans expanded their authority of politics and economy over those colonies. Apparently, the slaves attempted to learn the masters' language for communicating in the field of labor and specifying their needs. Yet, Todd (1974) emphasizes that the relationship between the master and the slave appears in the pattern of unequal status. It can be considered from the use of improper masters' language spoken by the slaves due to the failure of learning standard language. In this case, the master thought that it is their insolence to speak as the native-like language and allow them to understand only the superficial language version. Consequently, the slaves could only learn it by picking up the language and speak it in their own way.

However, Matras (2009) points out that pidgins are also required as a contact language in the equal position of interethnic communication. It can generally be found in the business transaction and work organization. In this case, sometimes they share

their linguistic input to create the language for immediate interaction; for example, the pidgin in Norway and Russia contains words from both Norwegian and Russian. Mufwen (2007) reveals that in the past pidgins mainly came from trading of Europeans sailing along the coasts around the Mediterranean, East Africa and other parts of Africa. They primarily had no common language to conduct business and exchange information of their product, so that the combination of several languages became the solution of incommunicative obstacle. Many societies in coastal areas have enlarged since plenty of people from other areas have settled in these areas. Later on, they become societies that contain multi-cultures and diverse languages. DeCamp (1977) illustrates the study of pidgins and creoles spoken in different areas and various contexts of slavery, colonialism, military occupation, migration, etc. Many cases show that the uneducated people learn to speak the dominant languages (mostly from Europeans) by imitating the native speakers and adapting to use in their language. This process of imperfect learning occurs in the form of relexification as found in the use of dominant language's vocabulary in their grammar.

2.1.2 Theories of pidgins

Since the emergence of pidgins has enormously increased, many researchers pay attention to the theories of pidgins. Lefebvre (1988) suggests "the relexification hypothesis" is the prominent concept stressing the invention of new lexical items from the superstrate language with the limited knowledge. Practically, they would use some similar elements obtained from their substrate language. This hypothesis would support the possibility of how pidgins are structured in the first place. Yet, it is also

mentioned by Muhlhausler (1997, 108) that "relexification can occur at different stages in the development of Pidgins and Creoles". Since the word formation might require more complex processes in producing different patterns from those of original languages borrowed by pidgins, some reductions may take place if those features from superstrate language do not suit in the pidgin. Wardhaugh (1986) points out that pidgins are the language for those who have the disability of learning standard languages, so that they come up with the simplified language. It appears in the theory of "baby-talk", "talking down", or "mimicry". He also mentions that although European languages provide the vocabulary in pidginized varieties, a lot of Europeans seem not to speak or even understand those basic structures of the pidgins. Wardhaugh introduces two theories of "polygenesis and monogenesis" in explaining the pidginization and creolization. Polygenesis theory describes a pidgin that contains a variety of pidgins sharing similar linguistic features but demonstrates its reduced forms. Monogenesis theory demonstrates the existence of a pidgin derived from different target languages that originally rooted from a single Proto-World language. For example, West African Pidgin Portuguese consists of several superstrate languages: mainly from English and French, and some Portuguese and Spanish. McWhorter (2005) states that based on the similar characteristics of those Indo-European languages, the results also correspond everywhere: no inflections, simple word order patterns, reduced forms of sentence structures, etc. Moreover, Romaine (1988) emphasizes the acquisitional process of pidgin users by illustrating different theories of "baby talk", "simplification", and "monogenesis". The evolution of pidgins and creoles is also mentioned. It focuses on the stage of language

development which can be seen in its formation (jargon, stable jargon, extended pidgin, and creole) and linguistic features revealed in each stage. Apparently, pidgins are mostly settled for a particular time and might die out afterward. Yet, if the community of pidgin speakers expands it to the second generation and the wider context, they are eligible to develop it to the new variety under the construction of "creole".

2.1.3 Creolization

To focus on the notion of creole, Bonvillain (2003, 325) gives this definition: "Creoles arise in the contact situations where speakers of different languages interact and need to develop a mutually intelligible code". The enlargement of language contact appears as a product officially seen in the second generation and the outspread society. Examples of creoles in the United States are shown and we can see that there are three main different varieties, substrate languages, and regions; Gullah (descended from Africans spoken in the South of Florida), Louisiana Creole (derived from French and African languages), and Hawaiian Creole (the immigrant workers from Asian, Pacific, etc.). Another study by Todd (1974) introduces the evolution of language process from pidgin to creole. Pidgins can be available as a lingua franca wherever the multilingual societies occur. Later on the needs of language are extended to the broad communication. He presents four phrases of pidgins' development distinguished by the language use and the user as follows:

1. *Marginal contact,* using the simple structure of an influential language and some gestures to communicate with the native speakers.

2. *Period of nativization*, pidgin is not only used with native speakers of the dominant language, but can exist between non-native speakers using different languages. They tend to learn the new language imperfectly by acquiring words and mainly employing reduplicated forms in their speech.

3. *Influence from the dominant language*, the non-native speakers adopt the prestigious language in the modified forms of their vernacular pronunciation, vocabulary, sentence structure, and meaning. In some areas the pidgins are used solely after the standard language is withdrawn.

4. *The post-creole continuum*, the use of pidgins/creoles increases in broad communication. This process generally occurs in the community where the dominant language becomes the official language and pidgin/creole is accepted as one of the varieties; for example, Hawaiian Pidgin English and Cameroon Pidgin English.

The study of second language acquisition in creole acquisition is introduced by Bickerton (1981). He explains the development of language use among creole speakers in the second generation. An interesting hypothesis mentions the species-specific behavior. He proposes the theory of "Bio-program": genetic transmission of the bio-program for the species. Bickerton emphasizes how children can invent the language due to their ready-made bio-program without learning from any other sources. The evidence supporting this hypothesis can be seen in that children are eligible to develop their pidgin as their first language. Based on the aforementioned hypothesis, Mather (2006) provided the facts shown in the study of creolization in the European lexicon used in plantation creoles by Africans. It is investigated that the

creole speakers whether contain the mental processes or employ the strategies of first language transfer and relexification. Regarding the results, the main inventor of plantation creoles is the adult (not the children). They are the second language learners that process their language by using second language acquisition strategies.

Carr (1972) shows five different speech types spoken in Hawaii. They were analyzed from the period of immigrants speaking broken English to the Hawaiian Standard English as the language continuum. Carr provides the case study of each speech type by demonstrating the finding of research to support the development of creoles from pidgins. Another part of her study concerns the loanword from different languages mostly from Asia used in the speech of Hawaii's English. As stated, the Hawaiian language (the original language in Hawaii spoken by the islanders) tends to provide the bulk of loanwords to the Pidgin English compared to other foreign languages because the majority of pidgin users are native islanders. The process of loanblend or hybrid compound was also demonstrated in terms of the significance of developed stages of borrowed words. She gives an example of the word *aloha shirt* derived from Hawaiian and English words combined to convey the colorful, open necked shirt for men used by the islanders, but also exported to the mainland of the United States and to several foreign countries.

2.2 The characteristics of pidgins

In order to produce the pidgin language, as mentioned earlier, there must be various languages supplying different sounds, vocabularies, and grammatical features. According to Thomason (2001), a pidgin is a type of contact language that is developed from bilingual or multilingual speakers when they are in the context of communication for limited purposes. It is always considered as a second (third, fourth…) language of the speakers. Pidgins consist of two distinct languages: The prestigious language and the vernacular language. The former normally provides the most of vocabulary to pidgins. Thus, it is known as a "lexifier" or "superstrate" language. The vernacular language contributes the grammar to the pidgins and it is known as "substrate language". Hence, its linguistic structures appear to be rudimentary and limited use of lexicon.

She also mentions that most pidgin languages are not considered as elaborated languages and have aspects of grammatical structures different from the Standard English. A pidgin contains the lack of morphology and does not have inflection. Typically, there is no tense/aspect or numerous suffixes in the sentence of substrate language; for example, adding *–ed, -ing, -(e)s*, respectively. The word-order is SVO *subject + verb + object*. Another feature of pidgin is the placement of the negative elements, which are in front of verb, as can be seen in Chinese Pidgin English: *Maj no hav kaci* (I negative have caught book) 'I haven't borrowed the book'.

Holms (2008) demonstrates the percentage of using English vocabulary in Tok Pisin more than Tolai vocabulary. This phenomenon also occurs in many colonial

countries and trading areas, where European languages have influence in education, politics, economics, and even everyday conversation. The vernacular language is also part of pidgin providing grammar and sentence structures. It is called "substrate language". Moreover, he also stated that pidgin's characteristics can be classified into three points: 1.) spoken in the limited functions and domains. 2.) Simplified and reduced the linguistic features from the superstrate language. 3.) Predominantly considered as the low prestige and stigmatized language, toward which most outsiders have negative attitudes.

2.2.1 Grammatical features of pidgin

Most studies on pidgins have been interested in linguistic features. There are five grammatical features found in the previous studies: *inflectional morphology, pluralizations, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, and word order.*

Apparently, the classical characteristics of pidgin can be explicitly seen in the lack of morphological marking according to many previous studies. A study by Perekhvalskaya (2004) conducted a study of Russian-Chinese Pidgin and found the omission of inflectional markers and prepositions in constructing sentences. Holm (2004) also states that basilectal pidgin language does not have the inflection, but the pidgin speakers add different particles to indicate tense and aspect; e.g., *will, might,* and *just*. He explains that these lexical items are not only the outer form of auxiliary verbs, yet they can be used as semantic preverbal tense and aspect markers in many Creole substrate languages; for example, African American English uses *been* in a sentence *I got on a cowboy shirt now, been have it all day*. Holm further describes the

lack of plural and gender markers or even possessive inflection. English has rules of forming the plural and possessive nouns, but gender marker only occurs in some languages such as French, German and Dutch.

The similar perspectives also appear in another researcher's study. Hudson (1980) views that pidgin lacks inflectional morphology. He claims that "inflectional morphology is not an unnatural mechanism for expressing semantic and syntactic distinction and also increases the difficulty of learning language" (pp. 65). Furthermore, the pronominal morphology is discovered from many pidgin studies. For example, no plural making to indicate the noun's number; e.g., *five shirt*, no subject pronoun; e.g., *Eat here?*, and no distinctions of gender or case in the discourse; for instance, a pronoun 'me' may play the role of object but be stated in the subject; e.g., *Me play good music*.

Another studies focuses on the pluralization system in the deeper point. Tagliamonte et al. (1997) studied the factors of plural marking of Nigeria Pidgin English by employing the analysis of syntactic, semantic, and phonological features. The results reveal that there are two variants of plural form: the use of *dɛm* that precedes a noun and the null mark. The conditions that determine plurality are the animacy (human or non-human) and nominal reference (generic, definite and indefinite). Yet, the confirmation of this study is still obscure due to the variety of users. Conversely, Huber (2004) found different processes of pluralization appearing in the reduplicating words. It should be noted that verbs, nouns, attributive adjectives,

adverbials, and numerals are mostly used to apply with the reduplication to convey the plurality in space and time; e.g., *he keep on vomit vomit and shit shit*.

In order to mention about the auxiliary verb, Todd (1974) supports that there is no auxiliary in the negative sentence; e.g., *I not see him* and no verb conjugation in any aspect or tense, yet the appearance of time adverbials or word markers instead; e.g., using the word *go* or *goeen* deliver the future tense. Meanwhile, some pidgin languages contain the auxiliary words to indicate the specific aspect. Bickerton (1983) mentions that the word *stay* is positioned before the main verb in the repeated action sentence; e.g., *I stay run everyday*. In African American English, Dillard (1973) demonstrates the use of *done* in the perfective sentence structure, instead of the auxiliary *have*; e.g., *I done went to college*. Another stative verb *is* is served to emphasize the meaning; e.g., *I is seen him*.

The study of the use of prepositions in pidgins is another interesting issue. Dillard (1973) explains that the propositions are used as the simplified version; e.g., the word *out of*, only say *out* in the sentence *Put the cat out the house over gramma house*. The dissimilar aspect of proposition usage emerges in the finding of Mann's (1993) study, investigating the use of preposition *fo* of Anglo-Nigerian Pidgin in different contexts and functions. It is basically taken from English preposition *for* and used to convey the same meaning as the standard one; e.g., *I asked him to wait for me*. Moreover, the use of the aforementioned preposition occurs in many contexts shifting the position of possessive marker -*'s* and *of*; e.g., *Dat buk, na fo John*. 'That's John's book.' The case of spatial and temporal locative appearing as *in, on,* and *at* is

optionally changed to *fo*; e.g., *John de (fo) skul*. 'John is at school.' This significant point shows the pidgin's simplification of word use in general terms of communication.

Concerning the word order of pidgins, Bickerton (1983) shows that, in the simple conversation, the sentence structure is formed SVO (*subject-verb-object*), but SOV and VSO structure also exists in some individual expressions according to the transmission of the first language; e.g., Japanese and Filipino in Hawaii, respectively. Another supportive scholar, Hudson (1980) also states that the variations of word order are hardly found in the speakers' discourse. They usually maintain the dialogue that they used to speak. The process of expressive repetition is found from the pidgin speakers. Nonetheless, he also mentions the pattern of interrogative sentences forming as like statements: the subject can precede the verb or auxiliary; e.g., *Where I can go?* 'Where can I go?'. To focus on the complex sentence, Holm (2000) points out that a relative pronoun functioning as the subject of the clause can be omitted; e.g., *You have house sell cheap* 'You have the house that is sold cheap.' and the equivalent of *that* introducing a subordinate clause can be crossed out; e.g., *He say you like it.* 'He says that you like it.'

Naro (2000) describes the grammar of pidgins by providing examples from different varieties and areas. The main point is the creation of lexical items to produce a distinct grammar from standard languages. There are three topics given: invented phrases to form a word; e.g., *ass belong world* means 'big fellow' to convey 'God', the extension of lexical meaning, and the existence of a variant form in any

grammatical cases, appearing mostly with the verb; e.g., the infinitive form *work* used in any tense or aspect. In addition, Naro states that recently pidgins have enlarged the context usage to different domains (more than daily life conversation), but it is found that the characteristics of linguistic features are more simplified and restricted.

2.2.2 The lexical features of pidgin

Another important linguistic feature that has been studied is the lexicon of pidgins. Previous studies presented five different characteristics: *multi-functionality, lexical semantics, reduplication, calques,* and *word formation*.

A large number of pidgin lexical studies found a word placed in any position of the sentence. Hall (1966) emphasizes that the linguistic features of pidgins can be expanded to serve the language use of the speakers, but the structure still remains simple. He also points out that different languages identify linguistic traits dissimilarly; therefore, some lexical features might not be applied to every language or cannot be found in other varieties. For example, a word can perform different types of syntactic categories; for example, the word 'help' in English can be either a verb or a noun; e.g., *I help my children* and *give me some help*. In pidgin languages, multi-functionality emphasizes the capability of one word to have various syntactic features. Concerning the omission of morphology to form the categories, the word can be simply placed in any position of the sentence. For example, the change of noun to adjective *He catch crazy* 'He became crazy', or a preposition can stand on the function as a noun; e.g., *He come from out* 'He comes from aboard'. One word in pidgins can have various syntactic functions; for example, 'hot' can take the role of adjective,

noun, verb and adverb; e.g., *Di hot sup* 'the hot soup' and *Dis hot go bring palava* 'These hot things will cause trouble.'

Within the context of first language transmission of word classification, Oshima (2002) illustrated a study of Gairaigo spoken in Japan. It is the Japanese loanwords that originated from the foreign languages (mostly European and Chinese) employed among Japanese people with the adaptation of Japanese pronunciation, written characters, and meaning. The concentration of Oshima's study is on the borrowed words that have been changed in terms of semantics and structure to accommodate the Japanese native speakers. As shown in Gairaigo, the verb conjugations do not exist in any situations even in different tenses, but the form of Gairaigo verb is shown in *verb + suru* (to do); e.g., *atakku-suru* 'to attack'. In past tense, the morpheme *shita* is added after the verb; e.g., *arenji-shita* 'arranged'. Therefore, the invariant verb form exists in the Gairaigo Japanese and that is considered to meet the characteristics of pidgins.

Holm (1988) points out the differences in using vocabulary between pidgin speakers and the speakers of lexical source language. It focuses on the lexical form and meaning which are changed to the substrate language in order to accommodate the speakers' interaction. He shows lexical features of semantic changes due to their knowledge limitation. First, certain semantic shifts are mostly used to call name, local plants, animals, or unknown objects that do not exist in other areas. The words might be borrowed from a European language or be created. The original meaning of the words will be lost when they are extended. For example, in the Miskito Coast, *lion*

can be used to call the local cougar and *tiger* for the jaguar. Second, semantic broadening is to employ one word to convey several meanings; e.g., *tea* means 'a drink or medicine made by herbs, or also any kind of hot drink- *coffee and cocoa'*. The influence of indigenous semantics also affects the use of vocabulary that has the similar features; e.g., the word *stick* can mean 'tree' or 'wood'. Finally, semantic narrowing rarely occurs in pidgins or creoles compared to the broadening.

The above study explains lexical usage found in pidgin speakers. Nonetheless, the semantic broadening tends to be taken into consideration according to the finding from many studies. Another term referring to this feature is introduced by Todd (1974) as "polysemy". For example *belly* can convey many word meanings: 'appetite', 'hunger', 'pregnancy', 'internal parts', 'seat of emotions', 'secret place', and 'secret'. The similar explanation of polysemy is also presented by Holm (2004). He gives the example of *bread* meaning 'biscuit, baguette, toast'. Additionally, Mowarin (2010) carried out a study examining the lexical semantics of Naija Pidgin English. It is the substrate language containing the similar feature to West African Pidgins. The polysemous words found in this variety shows that a word that has a distinct meaning also appears in different lexical categories. For instance, the word *chop*, which means 'to cut something in little bits' in English, means 'food', 'to eat', and 'enjoyment' in Naija.

In many previous studies, pidgins are counted as the languages of plainness as seen from the small numbers of lexical words and the rudiments of grammatical function. However, an interesting argument of "semantic complexity" in pidgins is

brought up by Fenk-Oczlon and Fenk (2008). The study shows that the speakers perceive the way of language process from two different languages: superstratum and substratum languages, and that would support their massive background knowledge to select and facilitate their language usage. As they states clearly that "a pidgin language demands, even more than a standardized and highly 'overlearned' language, high context sensitivity, awareness of the situational context as well as intuitive and fast associative checks and decisions." (pp. 11). Such notion demonstrates the homonymy and polysemy that is normally found in the study of lexicon employment. For example, a word that contains a single meaning and sound model can also represent many other different semantically unrelated senses, according to the conformation by users in various cultures, contexts, and situations. Consequently, the numerous adapted lexicons of pidgins might render the use of the language limited.

One of interesting aspects of pidgins portrayed by Todd (1974) is "the repetition of words". Normally, the main function of reduplication is to emphasize the meaning; e.g., *It was a long long walk*. However, it is employed to reduce the misunderstanding of the conversation and to differentiate the meaning that the speakers require to convey. There are four semantic purposes of using repetition: 1.) The deduction of homophones; e.g., *san* 'sun' and *sansan* 'sand'. 2.) The explanation of continuous situation; e.g., *Pikin di soso kraikrai* 'The child is always crying.' 3.) The classification of the object; e.g., *Di bif bin ɛnta wanwan* 'The animal is wet in one by one.' 4.) The transformation of meaning into the simple language; e.g., *som fainfain pikin* 'a really lovely child.' Furthermore, Mosel (1980) explains that the reduplication found in Tok Pisin tend to convey plurality (*food food* – 'lots of food'), distributing the

variety of things by using the cardinal numbers (*one one* – 'different things'), and reduplicating adverbs to intensify the meaning intensification (*big big* - 'huge').

Holm (1988) mentions that calques are considered as the process of translating word by word. It is transferred from the native language into the new variety; e.g., in Bahamian CE, the word *son* is called *boy-chil* 'male child', or *big eye* 'greedy'. In Atlantic Creoles also occurs the two-morpheme question by using 'what' before the noun; e.g., *what person?* meaning 'who?' and *what place?* meaning 'where?'. Another study conducted by Ofulue (2010), also shows the characteristics of calques in Naiji; e.g., *hat kot* 'heart cut' meaning 'fear', *wuman rapa* 'woman's wrapper' meaning 'lady's man', and *longatrot* 'stomach sweet' meaning 'well said'.

In terms of word formation, Holm (2004) reveals that the pidgin speakers have a limited mental lexicon. Their word formation rules are not also fixed or even existed in the language system, so that the speakers feel comfortable to invent their own words. The significant point of this study is to investigate the creation of pidgins. He also illustrates the fundamental traits of lexical use in pidgins covering two main points: 1.) The diagrammatic iconic relation is used to expand the vocabulary by adding a similar image of the form and meaning; e.g., *grass* 'hair' and *grass of face* 'moustache'. 2.) The improvisation process and innovation can be invented by the combination of simple vocabulary; for example, the noun compounding for place or thing *eat buy place* 'restaurant'.

Kwak (2003) presents the linguistic features of 'Unish', spoken in Africa. It is a new variety deriving vocabularies from fifteen distinct languages. The results

demonstrate lexical traits that share the commonness to universal pidgins. The simplicity of vocabulary can be noticed from their selecting easy words from the list languages; e.g., choosing the word *um* in German to use in their variety to mean 'around'. The further step is to shorten the original words by remove all affixes. Finally, the word compounding from different language processes by considering the meaning that is conveyed in structuring the word; e.g., the word *modbuk* means 'dictionary', derived from *word* and *book*.

2.3 Pidgins spoken in the world

2.3.1 Pidgins in different continents

Many previous studies on pidgins emphasize pidgin languages in different geographical areas. The most classic pidgin research regarding the migration is a study of Pidgin English in Hawaii by Smith (1933), which illustrates the situation of immigrants to Hawaii who became laborers in sugar plantation. Since they belonged to different ethnicities (Filipino, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, etc.), they spoke a wide variety of languages. Pidgin became an inter-ethnic language and gradually developed to the next step; that is a creole. Lipski (1944) also exhibits the pidgin language spoken in Iberian Peninsula, where Afro-Portuguese Pidgin is used because a group of Africans migrated to Portugal and later directed to Spain to work as slaves. The existence of this pidgin can be seen in literary works, songs, cultures, etc. The

modern use of this pidgin is manifested by works explaining its linguistic traits and the frequent use among the speakers.

Similarly, a study by Naess (2008) aims at investigating some features of the Pidgin Arabic used by Asian foreign workers in the Omani border town of Buraimi when speaking to their Saudi clients and customers. He found that some stability of the grammatical structures of the Gulf Pidgin Arabic variety seems to be achieved due to the input of foreigner talk of Gulf Arabs and inter-group interaction with other groups of foreign workers. It seems that Pidgin Arabic becomes the means of communication among the migrants in Omani border.

In addition, studies show that pidgins may occur because of colonization. The product of being colonized can be noticed from the lexicon uses and the variety's development. A study conducted by Smith (1997) concerns the use of lexicon in Melanesian Pidgin English (Tok Pisin) occurring in Admiralty Islands, Papua New Guinea. The results show that the speakers tend to use more English vocabulary, especially verbs in their speech by adapting those lexical items to the morpho-syntax of Tok Pisin; for instance, the word *force* is adapted to *fosim* by adding the transitive suffix *–im*. Moreover, pidgin speaking expands wider among English-medium secondary education and other situations, so that it becomes the post-creole continuum variety recently. Additionally, Breva-Claramonte (1999) also investigates a mixed Spanish-English linguistic situation concerning spellings, sounds, morphology, word order, creolization and decreolization. The finding did not show much about grammatical features, but showed a lot about the vocabulary and spelling; for

example, English *jazz*, would become *yaz*. As English and Spanish have alphabetic similarity, these two languages can frequently mix up depending on the users of language.

An interesting situation occurs when pidgins are formed with another dominant language, thus there are three languages involved in this variety. Echu (2003) illustrates the influence of using French vocabulary on Cameroon Pidgin English. He collected data from 60 lexical items and classified them into four different activities; Gastronomy, Medical and pharmaceutical, Socio -cultural and Economic. The semantics of each Cameroon Pidgin English lexicon also reveals the cultural value of French and some words still maintain the original meaning as in French.

In Asia, there are many countries using a pidgin as a lingua franca in multilingual communities because the colonial Europeans have settled and established the system of education, politics, and transaction or even dominated the way of local life. Some Asian countries have left the trace of language from the colonization and commerce; for instance, Singapore, Malaysia, China, Hong Kong, India, and the Philippines. Ansaldo (2009) describes the characteristics of speech patterns in China Coast Pidgin (CCP), which has Cantonese as the substrate and English as its superstrate. He also stresses that all syntactic and semantic features are transmitted from their local standard of Cantonese to pidgin English.

2.3.2 Pidgins in Thailand

There are several studies of pidgins in Bangkok, Thailand. A study of Thai Pidgin English used in the famous trading area of Sukhumvit Rd. was conducted by Chunsuvimol (1995), who presents a comparison of syntactic patterns between Thai Pidgin English and Standard English. Thai Pidgin English is spoken by uneducated traders selling clothes, food, and souvenirs around there. The results suggest that pidgins all over the world seem to share similar characteristics of having first language influences on grammar and simplifying language structure. There are fourteen main features of pidgins language found as follows:

1. The use of negative 'No and Not' precedes the verb; e.g., *not sell here material.* 'I don't sell material here.'

2. There is no marking on plural noun; e.g., *have many color* 'I have many colors.'

3. No future tense marking; e.g., *what minute you come back?* 'When will you come back?'

4. No 'a, an, the' in front of nouns; e.g., *salesman send to me everyday.* 'The salesman sends goods to me every day.'

5. The use of transitive verbs without objects; e.g., *you have?* 'Do you have it?'

6. The omission of prepositions; e.g., '*4 one hundred baht.* '4 for one hundred baht'

7. The use of reduplication; e.g., *big shop same same.* 'The big shop have the same goods.'

8. Both declarative and interrogative sentences are structured the same; e.g., *You have?* 'Do you have it?'

9. No complicated sentences; e.g., *ok,* you buy now I sell you cheap *price.* 'O.K. if you buy now, I'll sell it for a cheap price.'

10. There is no use of currency 'baht' following the price; e.g., *ninety baht I charge two one hundred seventy.* 'One ninety baht or two for ninety baht I charge two one hundred and seventy baht.'

11. The lack of 'copula verb'; e.g., *Gucci very nice sir.* 'Gucci is very nice sir.'

12. Word choice is different from that of Standard English; e.g., *one shop, two shop, three shop, same same.* 'Try any shop; the goods are the same.'

13. One word can be used in different word classes, especially the word 'same'; e.g., *same big shop.* 'Just the same as in the big shop.'

14. There is no subject in the sentence; e.g., *have many color* 'I have many colors.'

Another study by Chomchinda (1995) analyzes the strategies of using English trading language among the Thai vendors in Khao San Road, Bangkok. The objective

of the study concentrates on the communicative strategies of the vendors while using English for presenting and selling their products to the customers. There were 60 informants participating in this study. The researcher also found the same features, as described. However, some examples illustrate results that are different from the study by Chunsuvimol: 1.) Using negative *don't* with the subject *he*. 2.) The limited use of prepositions. The speaker only uses one preposition to express other prepositions. 3.) The use of wrong vocabulary. 4.) Creating the new pattern of sentence by embedding from the old sentence. 5.) Using the wrong pronoun. 6.) Employing the repetition to persuade the customers to buy the produce. 7.) Creating new words; e.g., the word *waker* instead of *alarm clock*. 8.) Code-switching to French. 9.) *Noun phrase* or *verb* omissions in the sentence. 10.) Typically beginning the sentence with *Give you…* and *Give me...* 11.) Frequent use of *you know* and *you see* with raising tone to check if the customers understand what they said and saying the same phrase with normal tone to give information to the customers. 12.) The use of English title of *sir, miss, madame, mister,* and *man* inappropriately to the situation. 13.) Telling the price without currency *baht*.

Hirunpat (2004) also studied the use of English among female employees of entertainment establishments in another famous tourist area in Bangkok, Patpong. The researcher interviewed 30 informants in different topics such as life in the past, the work experience, the attitude of English, and the frequency of communicating in English, etc. and tape-recorded the conversation by asking them to respond back in English. The results illustrate the language use that is different from Standard English;

for instance, the verb serialization is a sentence that has two (or more) verbs put together without any indicator to identify their relationship; e.g., *I go watch movie* (ฉัน ไปดูหนัง) as occurring in Thai language. In Standard English, an indicator is always required to place between two (or more) verb; e.g., *Jimmy likes to scream out*.

In conclusion, the aforementioned literature review illustrates research on pidgins in many aspects including the linguistic features focusing on syntax and lexicon. Another interesting topic to be discovered is the situation in which pidgin speaking takes place. The description of different situations and context is rarely found in most of the previous studies. Moreover, many studies were conducted in the area that pidgins had occurred for a long time before; therefore, a study, such as the present one, that focuses on a new multilingual community would reveal more interesting truth about pidgins.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

3.1 Data collection

3.1.1 Selecting location and informants

Data collection was done by field work. It was conducted in the area of Sai Yuan Road (ถนนใสยวน), Rawai community, Muang district, Phuket. It is situated in the middle part of Rawai, where the original inhabitants are Muslim people, who are the majority of the population. In the past five years, this area has become famous as a community of mostly retired people from Europe and Scandinavia due to the perfect location for relaxation and permanent living. This area also contains a lot of artists setting up their galleries and art exhibitions; it is known as 'the Art Village'. In fact, there are many interesting places in Phuket that could have been selected for conducting the field work. Patong is considered the better-known tourist attraction in Phuket compared to Rawai. Yet, Rawai would be more interesting for data collecting because it contains permanent residents and the varieties of various ethnic groups. In addition, the English speakers, mostly tourists, in Patong do not have as close relationship with the local people as the foreigners in Rawai do.

Data was collected from 30 informants (26 informants were from trading groups and 4 informants were from inter-married families). They were chosen from seven careers: 1) souvenir shopkeepers 2) restaurant owners and waiters 3) tourist

agencies 4) seafood stall owners 5) massage therapists 6) taxi drivers and 7) artists, as shown in the following table.

Table 2.1: List of informants by occupations

30 informants	
26 informants from trading group	
9 souvenir shopkeepers 6 restaurant owners and waiters 3 tourist agencies 3 seafood stall owners 2 massage therapists 2 taxi drivers 1 artist	*4 female informants from inter-married families*

In my pilot study, I found that the aforementioned occupations cover the majority of all careers in this area and they also represent people speaking Thai Pidgin English in the region studied. The varieties of professions in trading groups revealed different characteristics in describing products and services to the customers. The group of inter-married families provided the use of language in different circumstances as they were speaking with foreigners in pidgin. The main criteria for selecting informants are how they are engaged in activities with foreigners and their willingness to cooperate. It was subsequently found that there are two general characteristics of those selected informants: *the age of 18 - 40 years old and the educational background of 4th – 9th grades*. Due to the security of confidential issues,

the names, addresses, and other private information are not herein revealed; however, each informant is referred to as a code.

3.1.2 The survey before data collection

I started conducting a pilot study in the first week of July 2010 and intended to observe for the location, informants, and appropriate time to collect the data. Firstly, I surveyed the location for collecting data in Phuket and there were two tourist areas found, Patong Beach and Rawai Beach. As said earlier, Patong Beach seemed to be the best place for gathering material because it is the most famous tourist attraction containing a large number of merchants and foreigners. However, the tourists there just stay for a short time and do not have close relationship with the local people. Therefore, Rawai Beach became an outstanding choice for this research since a lot of foreigners inhabit in this town permanently and they also adjust themselves to the surroundings, especially the cultures and languages.

When I met my informants, I firstly introduced myself and informed them about my work to get permission to tape-record their speech. One of the methods of data collection that I used is the technique of observer-as-participant. The pilot study was also planned to check the informants' availability and the occasions to record their conversations. For the complete participant technique, the other method, all the selected informants' names were listed and arranged for observation at appropriate times.

3.1.3 The first round collection

To gain the needed information, there were two types of techniques used in this research:

1.   *The complete participant:* The informants did not realize that I was playing the role of an observer. I acted as a customer to ask the informants about certain products or services and tape-recorded them during their responses spontaneously. The finding is more likely to be natural and authentic. This method was used when collecting data from restaurant owners and waiters, massage therapists, tourist agencies, and an artist.

2.   *The observer-as-participant*: I informed the informants about my research and checked for their availability. The data collection began when I waited for any foreign customers or interlocutors to arrive, and the informants were tape-recorded during their conversations by letting them hold the tape-recorder in hand or put in the pocket, so that the voice could be recorded clearly. The foreign customers or interlocutors might be native or non-native English speakers. In the family domain, I expected to create different situations in order to have opportunities to join each of the selected families and to record their conversations on setting up a party, asking for a dinner, and leading them the conversation etc. The informants tended to be supportive and were not conscious of being recorded. This technique was operated with those inter-married families, souvenir shopkeepers, taxi drivers and seafood stall owners.

Each of the conversations under trading circumstances was recorded for approximately 3-5 minutes, while each of the inter-married group's was approximately 20 - 25 minutes long. I collected the data twice for each informant, thus it was expected that a total number of 60 conversations would be obtained. In trading circumstances, the data collection was conducted 6 times in 3 days a week (from Friday to Sunday) at 3.00 pm. – 7.00 pm., from October 2010 to January 2011. In the inter-married family setting, I collected data 8 times from November to December 2010. The schedule is given as follows:

Table 2.2: The schedule of data collection of Thai Pidgin English in Phuket

Date	Data collection
15th – 17th Oct. 2010	- Tape-recording conversations in trading context (1st)
	- Making an appointment with the inter-married families
12th -14th Nov. 2010	- Tape-recording conversations in trading context (2nd)
	- *Tape-recording conversations in the inter-married families (1st)*
19th - 24th Dec. 2010	- *Tape-recording conversations in the inter-married families (2nd)*
27th Dec. 2010 - 2 Jan. 2011	- Tape-recording conversations in trading context (3rd)

3.1.4 The second round data collection

After processing the first batch of data, there were a large number of unclear points in the conversations. In order to gather accurate information in the conversations, I rechecked with the informants and asked them to identify the meaning of their talks. This process helped to authenticate the data given and illustrate

the distinguished use of language between Thai Pidgin English and Standard English explicitly.

3.1.5 Problems found in data collection

While I was collecting data and acting as a complete observer and an observer-as-participant, there were four unpredictable problems found as follows:

1.   Unexpected noises existed during the interfered data collection. This problem could possibly happen in the situation in which I was a complete participant. Sometimes, the tape-recorder was too far to pick up the informants' voice, but caught the disturbing sounds of car engines and other people talking instead. The high quality of a tape-recorder could work for reducing those unexpected noises appearing in the tape. Another solution is to note some short and important conversations to ensure validity in case of any unclear sound occurrence.

2.   There were a small number of tourists traveling in Thailand during the year I collected data (2010), so I had to wait for quite a while before getting to observe another group of customers interacting with the informants. Due to the economic crisis and political difficulties occurring all over the world, tourism nowadays is inclined to be decreasing. In fact, the data of this study should have been collected around October and November, but there were not enough customers to be the interlocutors in the collected conversations. According to the statistics of tourist arrivals in Thailand by the Department of Tourism[1], the percentages of tourists

---

[1] http://www.tourism.go.th/2010/th/statistic/tourism.php?cid=30

traveling in Thailand in October and November 2010 were 28.53 and 32.04 respectively, compared to 39.43% in December. Although the numbers of tourists traveling in Thailand in those three months were relatively close, it is found that a lot of tourists came to Thailand in December, especially on special occasions or festivals. In this case, my solution was to change the dates of data collection to the periods of celebrations e.g. Christmas and New Year.

3.   Some informants were not willing to be a good supporter to support this research. They did not understand the purpose of the work and refused to cooperate. Sometimes, they had to sell and talk to the customers, thus they did not expect any interruption while presenting their products. To overcome this obstacle, I would only choose the supportive ones to facilitate my data collection.

4.   Some foreigners who have lived in Rawai for quite a long time usually communicate with local people in Thai more than in English. The reason is that they want to build relationships with those people and sometimes take advantage of being like Thais to gain some benefits e.g. in purchasing things at Thai standard prices. For this part of data collection, the similar case also happened when the obstacle was that those foreigners attempted to speak Thai mixed with English to their Thai spouses. Therefore, it shows that the language spoken in the conversations by inter-married family members were mostly in Thai. In this case, I decided to select the informants who personally prefer to speak English to their spouses in any situations.

3.2 Data analysis

After collecting all data, the recorded conversations were transcribed and classified into different situations. There are three steps of analyzing the data. They are as follows:

1.   I compared the grammatical patterns and the lexicon used in the pidgin with those in Standard English. Two native English speakers from England and Canada helped me render all pidgin sentences into Standard English to enable me to discriminate between pidgin and standard features. Ultimately, I generalized about the syntactic and lexical patterns of Thai Pidgin English in Phuket.

2.   I analyzed the characteristics of the syntax and lexicon of the pidgin, using theories of pidginization and previous studies of pidgins as shown in Holm (1988, 2004), Hall (1966), and Todd (1984) as guidelines in my analysis.

3.   I described the situations in which the pidgin was used. The conversations were divided into 6 sets according to 6 situational variables: type of situation, topic, participant, setting, variety/code, and formality of conversations. In order to explain my analysis more clearly, the following variables are taken into account.

1.) **Type of the situation** : *trading circumstance* or *everyday conversation*

2.) **Topic**: *buying and selling, giving/asking for personal information, greeting, etc.*

3.) **Characteristics of pidgin speaker**: *ethnicity, age, gender, the relationship between the speaker and the interlocutor*

4.) **Setting**: *place* and *time*

5.) **Variety/code**: *Thai Pidgin English, Thai,* and *code-switching/mixing*

6.) **Formality of conversations**: *formal, semi-formal,* and *informal*

In the analysis of situations, I presented examples of situations containing the largest numbers of informants' sentences from each profession and an inter-married family. In the explanation part, I described the examples within the abovementioned parameters.

CHAPTER IV
THE SYNTAX OF THAI PIDGIN ENGLISH IN PHUKET

This chapter focuses on the study of syntactic features of Thai Pidgin English found in Thai people's speech in trading and inter-married family circumstances. My preliminary observation also reveals the influence of Thai on their pidgin grammatical features. To illustrate a better picture of the characteristics of Thai Pidgin English, the following example is a conversation collected while the speaker was having an interaction with her interlocutor as shown:

Foreign husband:	When did you get the camera?
Thai wife:	*Don't know, I no remember.*
Foreign husband:	What? Can't you remember?
Thai wife:	*Oh! Remember laew, Sunday na I think we go.*

This is a real discourse spoken by a non-native speaker of English working in a souvenir shop. She has been learning English from her surroundings; e.g., her lover, her customers, her foreign friends, etc. Even though she was educated in an ordinary Thai school until sixth grade, her ability of speaking English is considered to be limited in terms of vocabulary. Syntactically, there are four different grammatical points found in those two sentences; e.g., *the lack of subject, the use of 'no' instead of 'can't or don't', the misuse of tense, and lack of object in a transitive sentence.* The sentences also show the mixture of Thai words in the sentences; namely, *laew* (แล้ว) meaning 'already' and the particle *na* (นะ).

To demonstrate the use of this variety, the collected utterances were firstly transcribed and later the syntactic features were analyzed by comparing them with those in Standard English. There are 948 sentences from 60 conversations collected

from the use of Thai Pidgin English in Rawai. They can be generalized in terms of their syntactic characteristics as follows:

(1) **Sentence structure,** there are four features of sentence structure found in Thai Pidgin English as follows:

(1.1) *Use of simple sentences*

(1.2) *Lack of subject or predicate in a sentence*, which consists of *the lack of the subject of a sentence* and *the lack of the predicate of a sentence*.

(1.3) *Use of wrong word order* illustrates how pidgin speakers structure words into a sentence. This can be divided into three features: *unorganized sentences*, *the frequent use of adverbs in front position*, *and topicalization*.

(1.4) *Use of question form.* This demonstrates different patterns of interrogative question between Thai Pidgin English and Standard English. This can be classified into: *the use of one single word or phrase to form a question and the use of a declarative statement to construct a question*.

(2) **Word classes** are classified into seven items as follows:

(2.1) *Verb*

(2.2) *Noun*

(2.3) *Adjective*

(2.4) *Adverb*

(2.5) *Preposition*

(2.6) *Pronoun*

(2.7) *Linking word*

4.1 Sentence structure

Typologically, The Thai language contains the sentence structure similar to that in Standard English. They both have the same type of word order; S-V-O or subject-verb-object. As claimed by Hall (1988, 146), there is a similar feature of word order found between the superstrate European languages and substrate African language; for example, Niger-Congo languages and the French language share the common sentence structure of SVO.

Apparently, most sentence structures of Thai Pidgin English are formed differently from those of Standard English. There are two matters occurring in the findings: 1.) most pidgin speakers use ungrammatical English. 2.) some of them can apply grammatical structures in Standard English, as stated by Dulay et al. (1982); the speakers get to memorize some routine structures as whole unit; for instance, *how are you?* And *can I help you?*

4.1.1 Use of simple sentences

A simple sentence is a sentence that can stand alone and does not require another sentence to fulfill its meaning; it is also called an "independent clause"; e.g., *you are not important,* and *I'm talking to you*. A simple sentence does not contain a linking word such as, *because, although, when, if, etc.* The sentence with any of those linking words is called a "dependent clause". It is a sentence that needs another sentence in order to be meaningful; for example, *if you wish to go out, I will unlock the door.* Normally, pidgin speakers use simple sentences in their conversations, instead of complex ones, as claimed by Hirunpat (2004). In this study, the use of

simple sentence is also discovered by the following examples.

(1)   *Thailand drink cold water.*

(2)   *He fall down in the toilet.*

(3)   *I talk about your life in hospital.*

(4)   *I have price just moment.*

4.1.2 Omission of subject or predicate in the sentence

In order to structure a complete sentence in English, two parts of the sentence should be considered: "the subject" and "the predicate". The subject signifies what is appointed to do something, which can be a pronoun or noun phrase. The other part is the predicate, its function is to identify what the subject is appointed to do. A predicate consists of a main verb or a main verb with a complement, as shown by the following example.

[The bird on the tree] [is singing near my house]
          Subject   Predicate

Thai Pidgin English is marked by a sentence that is deficient in either subject or predicate of the sentence, so it can allow the audience to miss some intentional meanings of the speaker's sentence or even to interpret different meanings from the original one.

4.1.2.1 Lack of subject in the sentence

In Standard English, the subject always exists in the sentence. The subject may refer to a thing, an action, a situation or an idea; e.g., *Is this your shirt?* or *It's very nice. It* can also stand for 'impersonal pronoun'; e.g., *Who came to see you last night? – It's Dave.* Normally, the pronoun *it* is used to signify time, season, weather, and distance; e.g., *It's hot in here.* It is also used

in the structures with a that-clause or a to-infinitive; e.g., *It's great to see you here*. In addition, some contexts of greeting that show the lack of the subject might occur in the response of an informal question or can be accepted in a colloquial conversation; for example:

> A: How was it when you studied English at school?
> B: <u>Not bad</u>.

Moreover, the lack of the subject is also found in imperative sentences used to indicate a command or order; for instance, *Eat them!, Take off your shoes!, Do the dishes!, Quit smoking!*. Sometimes, it is expanded to signal permission; e.g., *Come in!*. Examples (6) and (7) are found in this study. The omitted subject could be a pronoun or a noun phrase. Due to the obscure meaning caused by the missing subject, the interlocutor might interpret who is engaged in this situation differently. It is also found in the study by Hudson (1980).

(6)   <u>*Talk*</u> *you like air con.*   (TPE)[1]

                 'I said that you like the air-con.'   (SE)[2]

(7)   <u>*Pick up*</u> *your hotel very early morning six.*   (TPE)

     'I'll pick you up at your hotel around six o'clock in the morning.'   (SE)

4.1.2.2 The absence of predicate in the sentence

Another significant part of the sentence is the predicate. What is mostly found in this study is the omission of the main verb. Therefore, the constructed sentence can be of any meaning if the verb is not stated

---

[1]   (TPE) stands for Thai Pidgin English

[2]   (SE) stands for Standard English

specifically.

(8)   *My daughter one year in America too.*   (TPE)
                'My daughter stayed in America for a year.'   (SE)

(9)   *If you cola, I give you last price.*   (TPE)
                'If you want the cola, I will give you the last price.'   (SE)

The verb in the simple sentence (8) can be placed variously; namely, *stay, study, work,* or even the negative meaning of *be in prison* and *be arrested.* As mentioned, this is the important part of the conversation since the speaker only had a sentence to communicate and to express their whole meaning. While another sentence (9) is a complex sentence consisting of two clauses, the second clause can convey the meaning to specify the verb choice, namely, *want, drink, or thirst.* Apparently, it is impossible to apply the verbs *steal* and *throw out* because the sentence *I give you last price* implies the meaning of the previous sentence.

4.1.3 Wrong Word order

4.1.3.1 Unorganized sentences

Some sentences found in this study are not even constructed as an organized sentence, yet the informants tended to pick up useful words and structure it in the wrong order. The following examples are found when the informants needed to explain something to their customers. They only form their sentences by mentioning a small number of essential words express the overall meaning of the sentence.

(10)   *This number one today fishing.*   (TPE)

'This fish is the best for our fishing today.'   (SE)

(11)   *Thai food, Pong Pang seafood, name yeah, near Chalong bay.*   (TPE)

'That Thai restaurant is named Pong Pang Seafood. It's near Chalong Bay.'   (SE)

Example (10) shows a near-complete sentence the meaning of which is still understandable. If directly translated from those English forms to Thai ones, normally, the use of *verb to be* (*pen* – เป็น) and preposition *for* (*sam rab*-สำหรับ) is not found in spoken Thai; therefore, the structure of the example (10) is shown separately as *this/ number one/ today/ fishing*. Example (11) is not considered to be a complete sentence. The informant used only key words that he knew; namely, *Thai food, Pong Pang Seafood, name, near Chalong Bay* to construct the sentence. In Standard English, this unorganized sentence has to be rearranged and be divided into two sentences in Standard English as shown above.

4.1.3.2 The frequent use of adverbs in front position

As further explained in (4.2.4), adverbs are used to indicate time (e.g., *ago* and *recently*), place (e.g., *here* and *there*), and manner (e.g., *easily* and *interestingly*). Adverbs can be placed in front position, middle position, or end position, but not between verb and direct object. From the data, the informants tended to begin their sentences with adverbs of time. This situation can also occur in Standard English when someone asks questions about time.

A: When did you start selling your shirt?

B: Yesterday, I just had time to do it.

The conversations that start with adverbs of time can be another example of the use of "subject-verb inversion". The fronting of adverb to the beginning of a sentence is to emphasize the matter of situational duration. This may reflect an influence from Thai because in Thai it is common to begin a sentence with an adverb of time. The examples of adverbial fronting are shown as follows:

(12)　　　　　　　　*Next time you come again na madame.*　　　(TPE)
　　　　　　　　　'Please come again. You are always welcome.'　　(SE)
(13)　　　　　　　　*Sunday, yeah, last Sunday we go Sandy shop.*　　(TPE)
　　　　　　　　　'We went to Sandy shop last Sunday.'　　(SE)
(14)　　　　　　　　*Tomorrow I go ask how much everybody come here.*　　(TPE)
　　　　　　　　　'I will ask him how many people are coming to the party.'　(SE)

4.1.3.3 Topicalization

Beginning a sentence with an object is another syntactic feature found when the informants emphasize or highlight things or actions. In Standard English, this can be constructed by using passive voice, which has this structure: *subject + verb to be + a passive particle*; e.g., *the bread are baked* from *I bake the bread*. In this case, the informants are not able to construct the correct form of passive voice, so they used topicalized sentence instead. However, Speyer (2010) states that, even though the use of topicalization is not accepted in English written discourse, it occurs in the spoken contexts of some English dialects as discovered in the part of Northeast America due to the influence of the Yiddish language. The examples of topicalized sentences are also given in his regard, *my trousers I dried by the gas stove in my*

bedroom and *tall, narrow houses they are.* In Thai Pidgin English, the use of topicalization is shown below:

(15)	*Next time <u>breakfast</u> we eat together.*	(TPE)
	'Maybe we meet tomorrow for breakfast?'	(SE)
(16)	*<u>The joke</u> woman like.*	(TPE)
	'Woman likes the joke.'	(SE)
(17)	*<u>This chicken</u> can a little bit.*	(TPE)
	'Thank you, I will have a little bit of chicken.'	(SE)
(18)	*<u>Thai massage</u> I have, <u>whole body</u> can do.*	(TPE)
	'I have the Thai massage, I can massage whole body.'	(SE)

In examples (17) and (18), apart from topicalization, the omission of subjects is also found, such as *this chicken (I) can a little bit*' and '*whole body (I) can do*'.

4.1.4 Forming questions without subject-verb inversion

There are two types of question form found in this study. They are the use of a word or phrase to form questions and the use of statement to construct questions, as explained in the following sections:

4.1.4.1 Use of a word or phrase to form question

To create a question in Standard English, the structure is similar to the statement (S + V + O), but the auxiliary verb has to be placed in front position, as the form *auxiliary verb + statement*. Sometimes, a question can be expressed in 1-3 words; e.g., *Done?* and *Happy now?*, the shortened version of *Are you done?*, *Are you happy now?* In Thai Pidgin English, the informants just use only a key word or phrase that represents the complete question. As example shown, the words *ice* and *wait* are the key words of constructing such

questions, including the use of particle *yeah* in the end to form the Yes/No question. The concept of raising tone at the end of the question form is also used to stress the intention of asking as follows:

(19)   <u>*ice, yeah?*</u>   (TPE)

                    'Would you like some ice?'   (SE)

(20)   <u>*Wait? Yeah? You can?*</u>   (TPE)

                    'And you? Can you wait?'   (SE)

4.1.4.2 Use of a declarative statement to form a question

There are two kinds of question form in Standard English, which are **Yes/No question** and **Wh/H-question**. The simplest way to form the Yes/No question is to alter the position of subject and verb in the sentence, called subject-verb inversion; e.g., *Are you bored?* or to insert the auxiliary verb in the front position *Do you like tennis?*. The **Question tag** is another form of Yes/No question. It is a short question attached to the final part of the statement; e.g., *I can watch the T.V., can't I?* In this study, the question tag is rarely found in any conversation of Thai Pidgin English. The correct Yes/No question form can be seen in the plain expressions, namely, *Are you ok?, Do you like this?* and *Can I help you?*. Concerning this matter, Holm (2004) suggests that many interrogative patterns in pidgin are formed as the affirmative sentence. Following examples (21) and (22) show questions formed by statements with a raising tone at the end.

(21)   *You take food now?*   (TPE)

                    'Are you taking the food now?'   (SE)

(22)   *You want lotion?*   (TPE)
                        'Do you want some lotion?'   (SE)

According to the results, the use of words or phrases to form a question makes it more difficult to predict the actual meaning of the expression, hence the contexts or situations can provide the better meaning. For example, when a person says *cook?*, with a fish in his hand, it might convey the correct question, supposedly structured *Do you want to cook the fish?* However, the use of a declarative statement alone to form an interrogative sentence contains a more explicit meaning.

Furthermore, Standard English may use statements in asking with the words *right, correct, ok, alright* in the end; for instance, *I can go with my mom, right?* in order to confirm the information. Thai Pidgin English is also found to use this type of question in the context of assuring the information given, mostly found with the word *ok?*

(23)   *This one like I can give you I can down for you fifty baht, ok?*   (TPE)
        'This one, I can give you a fifty baht discount, ok?'   (SE)
(24)   *This I sell cheap for you two fifty, ok?*   (TPE)
        'I give you for two hundred fifty baht, ok?'   (SE)

In Wh/H-Question, the structure is to place Wh/H-words *what, where* and *how many* before the structure of *auxiliary verb + subject + predicate*; e.g., *Who do you mean?* and *How much does it cost?*. The study found that the informants produced the structure of Wh/H-Question by positioning Wh/H-words prior to the statement.

(25)	*Where you go, madam?*	(TPE)
	'Where are you going, madam?'	(SE)
(26)	*Which hotel you stay?*	(TPE)
	'Which hotel do you stay?'	(SE)

Clearly, there should be subject-verb inversion in the interrogative structures; e.g., *Where will you go?, Where do you go?,* or *'Where are you going?* However, this pattern is not found at all in Thai Pidgin English.

4.2 Word Classes

4.2.1 Verb

4.2.1.1 Omission of inflectional verb endings after a third person singular noun or pronoun

In Standard English, when a present simple verb occurs with a third person singular noun or pronoun, it is subject to an inflection, an addition of needs an inflection: *-s* or *-es* to be added to the verb ending; e.g., *sleeps, builds,* and *watches*. This term is called "subject-verb agreement". In this study, it is found that, the informants rarely put *–s* or *–es* at the end of the verb due to the influence of Thai, which is a non-inflectional language. Thomason (2001) and Hudson (1980) also mention this feature in their books. Examples of lack of subject-verb agreement are shown as follows:

(27)	*My grandfather <u>stay</u> in the town.*	(TPE)
	'My grandfather <u>lives</u> in the town.'	(SE)
(28)	*Everyday he <u>go</u> and today he no go.*	(TPE)
	'He <u>goes</u> out every day, but today he didn't.'	(SE)

4.2.1.2 Use of verb serialization

Verb serialization is the arrangement of verbs without *to* between the finite verb and the infinitive. In the Thai language, two verbs can be placed next to each other without having to insert *to* in between; e.g., *chan pay tham ngaan* (ฉันไปทำงาน) 'I go work', while Standard English requires *to* to separate two verbs; e.g., *'I like to talk with the foreigners'*. The following example shows the language transfer of Thai to Thai Pidgin English and it is also found in the study by Hirunpat (2004).

(29)   *You <u>want look</u> small size.*   (TPE)

                    'You <u>want to look</u> at the small size.'   (SE)

(30)   *We <u>come eat</u> dinner yesterday.*   (TPE)

                    'We <u>came to have</u> dinner last night.'   (SE)

4.2.1.3 Omission of (a direct/an indirect) object or a complement of a

transitive verb

In Standard English, a verb type that requires direct objects is called 'transitive verb'; e.g., *play, watch, eat, manage,* etc. These verbs do not contain the complete meaning themselves; for example, **I play* and **I manage*. These sentences cannot be meaningful without an object. On the other hand, this study found that the informants do not put an object after a transitive verb, as shown in the examples below:

(31)   *Oh! Pad Thai eek ruh. <u>You want eat?</u> Yeah squid, <u>you want?</u>*   (TPE)

                'Do you want to eat <u>it</u>? Do you want <u>it</u>?'   (SE)

(32)   *<u>I want to taste. I hope I can eat. I try. I think I can eat.</u>*   (TPE)

        'I want to taste <u>it</u>. I hope I can eat <u>it</u>. I try <u>it</u>. I think I can eat <u>it</u>.'   (SE)

4.2.1.4 Use of 'have' in an existential construction

English distinguishes between the possessive construction (*to have*) and existential construction (*there+BE*). In contrast, Thai does not separate the possessive from the existential construction. Only one verb is used, i.e., *mii* 'to have'. It is very likely that Thai Pidgin English is influenced by Thai. It is found that no informant in this research used the word 'there + be', they always use 'have' in existential constructions. Examples are shown below.

(33) *Have one chair for you.* (TPE)
'There is a chair for you.' (SE)

(34) *Have many visitor have many England, Russian, Italian come to eating.* (TPE)
'There are many visitors from England, Russia and Italy coming to my restaurant.(SE)

4.2.1.5 Negative form

The negative form in Thai and English is formed differently, hence there are three distinctive uses found in this study, *use of 'no' or 'not' in a negative sentence*, *use of 'don't' with a wrong subject*, and *use of 'verb to be' instead of 'verb to do' for negations*.

4.2.1.5.1 Use of 'no' or 'not' in negative sentences

In Standard English, negative sentences typically require an auxiliary verb (e.g., *verb to do*) plus 'not' placed between a subject and a main verb. Likewise, the use of a proper tense and subject is also significant to structure negative forms because those two constituents can indicate the use of auxiliary verb. For instance, to formulate a negative sentence that representing a routine event (present simple tense) and the subject is the third person singular (*he,*

she, it), the correct auxilary verb should be 'does'; e.g., S*he does not go to school in the weekend*. In contrast, Thais only use the word *may* (ไม่) (to mean *no* or *not*) by inserting it in front of the main verb; e.g., *I not like this book* and *she no beautiful*. Other studies of Thai Pidgin English by Chunsuvimol (1995), Chomchinda (1995), and Hirunpat (2004) also suggest that the use of 'no' and 'not' is ordinarily found in the conversations of Thai Pidgin English. According to the findings of the study, the informants tended to use either *no* or *not* in any form of sentence and the choice of using either are unpredictable, as can be seen in the following examples.

(35) *When you return back <u>not</u> need to refill back.* (TPE)

  'You <u>don't</u> need to refill the tank.' (SE)

(36) *Sometime I'm take order <u>not</u> too much only drink.* (TPE)

  'I <u>don't</u> take food orders.' (SE)

(37) *Yesterday no have mosquito.* (TPE)

  '<u>There was no</u> mosquito yesterday.' (SE)

4.2.1.5.2 Use of 'don't' with a wrong subject

In Standard English, 'don't' is considered a negative form occurring in the present simple tense with any subject, except the third person singular. It is placed before an infinitive; e.g., *I <u>don't want</u> to wash my clothes sometimes*. It should be noticed that the speakers who used *no* or *not* for the negative form tended to develop their language skill since they select to apply the verbal auxiliary *do* in their negative sentence. Yet, it is not grammatically correct because they use 'don't' with a wrong subject as shown below:

(38)	*She <u>don't</u> tell anything.*	(TPE)
	'She <u>does not</u> tell anything.'	(SE)
(39)	*He <u>don't</u> like smoking too.*	(TPE)
	'He <u>does not</u> like smoking too.'	(SE)

4.2.1.5.3 Use of verb to be instead of verb to do for negation

In Standard English, *verb to be* cannot be placed with the verb infinitive to form negations. There are more explanation of using 'verb to be' in the next topic. The findings show that some informants apply this form probably because their familiarity of using *I'm* and *It's* to begin the sentence.

(40)	*<u>I'm not close</u> midnight, I'm open all day all night.*	(TPE)
	'<u>We don't close</u> at midnight.'	(SE)
(41)	*<u>It's not mean</u> no have food here.*	(TPE)
	'<u>It doesn't mean</u> there is no food in here.'	(SE)

4.2.1.6 Omission of verb to be and misuse of linking verb

In Standard English, a predicative adjective occurs with verb to be. The use of *verb to be* functions as the main verb in the sentence, as the structure *subject + verb to be + complement (adjective or noun)*; for example, *you are lovely!* and *he is a man (of the match)*. In Thai Pidgin English, the use of *verb to be* is hardly found in the conversation. The similar result was also found in the study by Holm (2004). Examples (42) and (43) are discovered from this study as follows:

(42)	*This trip. This for one person.*	(TPE)
	'This trip <u>is</u> for a person.'	(SE)
(43)	*It good. It have a sugar everything yeah?*	(TPE)
	'It<u>'s</u> good to have some sugar in every food, right?'	(SE)

The complement also takes place after other linking verbs; e.g., *taste, seem, sound, feel, get, look, stay,* and *appear.* For instance, *it sounds good* and *I feel hungry.* The following example demonstrates the use of linking verb in Thai Pidgin English conversations showing the lack of the inflection *–s* or *–es* at the verb ending.

(44)   It <u>taste</u> good darling, you want?   (TPE)

'It <u>tastes</u> good, darling. Would you like some?'   (SE)

4.2.1.7 Tense

Standard English has tense markings to indicate the time when the event takes place by changing the verb form, On the other hand, Thai does not mark tense on verbs. Due to the influence of Thai, the informants tend to use a verb in the infinitive form to describe an action taking place in any point of time, accompanied by an adverb of time indicating the tense (*already, tomorrow, now*); e.g., *I eat already,* and *you come to see me tomorrow morning*. According to Romaine (1988), the conjugation forms are counted as the complex structure that is rarely found at the first stage of pidgins. The expressions where infinitives are used improperly are mainly found in four tenses; namely, *Present Continuous Tense, Past Simple Tense, Present Perfect Tense, and Future Tense*, are explained as follows:

4.2.1.7.1 Misuse of the infinitive form as to represent the Present Continuous Tense

Present continuous tense is the tense in which a situation or an action is happening at the moment or period of time the message is being stated. The structure is shown as '*present tense of **be** + **ing-form***; e.g*., I'm walking on the*

road and *I'm going back to work*. In the findings, the speakers did not express their present time with the present continuous forms, but tended to use the simple pattern instead.

A: What are you drinking?

(45)   B: *I drink red wine, oh very good.*   (TPE)

'I'm drinking red wine, it tastes very good.'   (SE)

(46)   *Talk about your life in hospital.*   (TPE)

'I'm talking about your life in hospital.'   (SE)

4.2.1.7.2 Omission of the Past Simple Tense markers

The significant use of the Past Simple Tense emphasizes the situation or action that happened and finished in the past. The changing of verb form is shown as the regular past form ended with –ed (play – played), irregular past form (steal – stole), and the infinitive form (read – read). The findings show that, the informants did not use the past simple form in those bygone sentences. This is also suggested in the study by Thomason (2001) and Hudson (1980). Practically, they form sentences without any conjugations, but indicate the past events by simply adding an adverb of time; e.g., *last year, yesterday, and last time*, as can be seen in the following examples.

(47)   *She call to me she busy yesterday.*   (TPE)

'She called me and said she was busy yesterday.'   (SE)

(48)   *Khun Tanaka go to Japan last month.*   (TPE)

'Miss Tanaka went to Japan last month.'   (SE)

(49)   *You tell me Body Glove you buy in Holland.*   (TPE)

'You told me that you bought Body Glove in Holland.'   (SE)

Regarding the sentences (47) and (48), the word *yesterday* or *last month* in the sentences indicated the past; therefore, the informants may not consider the changing of the verb form as necessary. In the sentence (49), the word signifying the time or tense does not appear, but the context of the sentence can be predicted as being in the past simple tense.

4.2.1.7.3 Lack of marking the Present Perfect Tense

In Standard English, the present perfect focuses on the situation or action that happened in the past and is still showing its effect at present. Sometimes, it is used to describe the experience of doing something in former times. The sentence structure consists of '*present verb to **have** + **past participle***'; e.g., *I have been in Europe since last year* and *you have learnt the words*. The findings show the use of an infinitive (without –*to*) along with the word indicating the perfect tense such as 'already' and 'just' in the example (49) and (50) as follows:

(50)   *You just <u>come</u> back from Germany.*   (TPE)
             'You <u>have</u> just <u>come</u> back from Germany.'   (SE)

(51)   *I <u>don't see</u> him long time*.   (TPE)
             'I <u>haven't met</u> him for a long time.'   (SE)

In addition, some informants could formulate the sentence in present perfect form but use only a past participle, which is counted as the defective sentence, as illustrated in the examples (52) and (53).

(52)   *I <u>done</u> this turquoise two week*   (TPE)
             '<u>This took me</u> two weeks to make it.'   (SE)

(53)   *I <u>been</u> there before two time*.   (TPE)

                          'I <u>have been</u> there twice before.'   (SE)

4.2.1.7.4 The absence of the Future Tense markers

   The future tense in Standard English signifies a situation or an action that will happen in the future. The word 'be going to' or 'will' is placed before the main verb to produce the future sentence. The following examples (54) and (55) exhibit the use of an infinitive (without *to*) when the informants needed to express their future actions. It seems that they could use the words *tomorrow* or *next week* as a sign of the upcoming event. This finding is the same as what is found in the study of Thai Pidgin English by Chunsuvimol (1995) and Hirunpat (2004).

(54)   *I take from you five shirt tomorrow na*   (TPE)

                       'I will take your five shirts out tomorrow.'   (SE)

(55) *This box <u>be</u> back to the soi dog foundation when finish the art exhibition.* (TPE)

 'This box <u>will be</u> taken to street dog foundation when the art exhibition is over.' (SE)

4.2.1.8 Modal auxiliaries

  Modal auxiliary verb is a verb placed in front of another verb to mark different type of modality: 'ability' (*can, could, be able to*), 'permission' (*can, may, could, and be allowed to*), 'possibility and certainty' (*may, might, could, must*), 'necessity' (*must, have to*), 'recommendation' (*should, ought to, had better, be supposed to*), 'offers', and 'invitation'. In Thai Pidgin English, the informants do not seem to use a modal auxiliary verb in a sentence as follows:

(56)	*Take a prawn big one small prawn.*	(TPE)
	'Would you prefer big or small prawns?'	(SE)
(57)	*You want plastic bag?*	(TPE)
	'Would you like a plastic bag.'	(SE)

In fact, a modal auxiliary verb is not essential in terms of grammatical form, but it can provide the actual meaning of the speakers' purposes. For instance, considering the example (56), beginning the sentence with a verb can convey the connotative meaning of a 'command' or an 'order' in a way; yet, the informants might intend to offer or invite the customer to get interested in their products. In this occurrence, the use of modal auxiliary verbs can show the politeness and intention of doing things. Example (57) demonstrates the statement that the speaker used to offer something to her customer. To compare with the prior example (56), the form of sentence (57) sounds more dramatic and impressive to listen to. However, the statement has to be reformed by using the modal auxiliary to show more politeness to the customer.

It is interesting that the study also found the use of modal auxiliary verbs in the informant's conversation. Nonetheless, it is not used correctly as shown in (58) and (59) and the correct structure should be *a modal verb + an infinitive (without to)*.

(58)	*You <u>must to booking</u> before one day.*	(TPE)
	'You must book at least one day before you go.'	(SE)
(59)	*You <u>can swimming</u> and snorkeling Maya beach.*	(TPE)
	'You can swim and snorkel off Maya beach.'	(SE)

Sometimes, the informants use the form accurately, but the modal verb used is not appropriate to the context of the sentence in terms of meaning and aim of the

speakers. As exhibited in (60), the use of *must* is improper when expressing suggestions. The word *should* is more appropriate.

(60)   *You <u>must</u> go Phangna and Ranong this week*.   (TPE)

               'You <u>should</u> go to Phangna and Ranong this week.'   (SE)

4.2.2 Nouns

Nouns are words that refer to things, places, living things, and certain actions. Nouns can be singular or plural and the plural form is marked by *–s* or *–es*, *–en*, modification of the ending, or transformation of an entire word; e.g., *cars, buses, oxen, memoranda, cacti, people*, *etc*. Moreover, it should be noted that nouns can be classified into *countable nouns* (which can be both singular and plural; e.g., *bird, birds, pen, pens, child, children, etc.*) and *uncountable nouns* (always in singular form; e.g., *juice, money, air, etc.*). Examples of the use of nouns in Thai Pidgin English are as follows:

4.2.2.1 Omission of plural markers

Many informants do not pronounce /-s/, /-z/, and /-iz/ of the plural noun. Hudson (1980) also mentions the lack of number marking on nouns. This same finding also appears in the study by Hirunpat (2004) showing the influence of their Thai language in ignoring the number matter as illustrated below:

(61)   *You have oh <u>four shirt</u>*.   (TPE)

               'You have <u>four shirts.</u>'   (SE)

(62)   *Have many <u>many sauce</u>*.   (TPE)

               'There are <u>many sauces</u>.'   (SE)

(63)   *<u>Three island</u> and they stop <u>seven point</u> stop*.   (TPE)

               'There are <u>three islands</u> and they will stop <u>seven places</u>.'   (SE)

4.2.2.2 The head + modifier word order

Typically, the combination of nouns is formed to specify the type of head noun. It should be noted that the compound noun can be written as separate words (with or without hyphen) and join words. In English, the modifier is always placed in front of the head noun; for example, *the bread knife* is *the knife for bread*, *the plastic bag* is *the bag made of plastic*, or *the teapot* is *the pot for tea*, etc. This kind of word combination also exists in Thai, but they are different in word order: the modifier follows the head noun; for example, the word *naam-cim + kay* (น้ำจิ้มไก่) 'sauce (for) chicken', explained by Bhandhumetha (2008). Examples (64) and (65) show the use of such a word order.

(64)	*What? This? <u>Salad potato</u>?*	(TPE)
	'What is this? Is this the <u>potato salad</u>?'	(SE)
(65)	*Ok, <u>sandwich tuna</u>.*	(TPE)
	'Ok, <u>tuna sandwich</u>.'	(SE)

In English, nouns can be modified by adjectives, so the word order is essential to place an adjective before a noun. This structure is also presented by Hall (1966; 69). He states that the pidgins' form is different from Standard English; the adjective is preceded by the noun, as appears similarly to the finding of Thai Pidgin English as shown:

(66)	*Ah, <u>noodle thai</u> in the Rawai.*	(TPE)
	'Ah, it's the <u>Thai noodle</u> in Rawai.'	(SE)
(67)	*He want to look around, look <u>girl nice</u>.*	(TPE)
	'He wants to look around to see the <u>nice girl</u>.'	(SE)

4.2.2.3 Misuse of articles

Articles are positioned before nouns and used to identify the nouns that we are talking about. The article can be *a, an*, and *the* and used differently. *A* and *an* signify the singular thing that is mentioned at the first time. Normally, we use *a* before a consonant, and *an* before a vowel. The use of *the* is to state a specific thing that is known or understood. The misuse of articles in Thai Pidgin English was also discovered by Chunsuvimol (1995) and Hirunpat (2004). In the present study, the informants do not use articles as shown below:

(68)   *He and pork satay. It's good satay.*   (TPE)

'He said the pork satay is good.'   (SE)

(69)   *Have long tail boat to take you to the beach.*   (TPE)

'We have a long tail boat that can take you to the beach.'   (SE)

The findings also show the wrong use of articles; for example, the sentence (70) illustrates the use of *the* to identify the informant's profession at the first time, so it should be changed to *a* as the correct grammar. Similarly, *the* cannot be used with place names (*towns, lakes, most streets, etc.*), but here it is used such as example (71).

(70)   *I am the artist. I am it's not it's not the carpenter.* (TPE)

'I am not the carpenter. I am an artist.'   (SE)

(71)   *Ah, noodle thai in the Rawai.*   (TPE)

'Ah, it's the Thai noodle in Rawai.'   (SE)

4.2.2.4 Use of quantifiers

To talk about the quantity of things, quantifiers can present the estimated number of a noun; e.g., *less, many, a small amount of, etc.*, which also concerns the type of uncountable (always singular) or countable (plural) nouns. It is found that the informants tended to use the quantifiers differently from those normally used in

Standard English. It should be noticed that *a little* and *much* are used with uncountable nouns and should not be employed with *potatoes* and *people*, which are countable nouns, an shown in the examples (72) and (73).

(72)   *A little potato in the fridge for tonight cooking.*   (TPE)
         'We still have <u>a few</u> potatoes in the fridge for cooking tonight.'   (SE)

(73)   *How <u>much</u> everybody come here?*   (TPE)
         'How <u>many</u> people are/will be coming?'   (SE)

4.2.3 Adjectives

In Standard English, adjectives describe things, places, living things, and certain actions. There are two positions that we can place an adjective: before a noun; e.g., *a happy face* and after verb to be or a linking verb; e.g., *you are great* and *she looks gorgeous*. According to the findings of this study, there are incorrect uses of adjective found as follow:

4.2.3.1 Use of incorrect adjective form

The adjective *interesting* and *interested* are examples of how the adjective form determines the function and the meaning of an adjective in the sentence. The use of *she is surprised* expresses the feeling of the subject, whereas *it is surprising* explains why one particular thing causes the person's feeling. The findings show that the informants understand the meaning of words, but use the incorrect form. Hence, the meaning of an expression can be changed by the formation of the adjective. For example, the sentence (74) means *she is scaring to you*, yet actually the informant intended to mean that *she is afraid of you* as illustrated below:

(74)   *She <u>scary you</u>.*   (TPE)

'She <u>is scared</u> of you.'   (SE)

4.2.3.2 The inaccurate use of comparative and lack of superlative patterns

The comparative form is used to make the comparison between two things, persons, or actions, while the superlative form draws on the comparison between one thing with two or more things. Their patterns are marked by the suffix *–er,* and *–est* (*hot – hotter - hottest*), the word *more* and *most* (*comfortable - more comfortable – most comfortable*), or form changing (*good – better - best*). According to the findings, the informants know that the sentence should be constructed in comparative form, but they are not able to use the complete form correctly as follows:

(75)   *Yeah, <u>more cheap and slow</u> na this one.*   (TPE)

'Yes, this one is <u>cheaper and slower</u>.'   (SE)

(76)   *Similan Island … and the price is the <u>expensive than</u> another program.*   (TPE)

'Similan Island … and the price is <u>more expensive than</u> going to other islands.'   (SE)

The sentence (75) exhibits the use of *more* with one-syllable adjective and another sentence (76) shows the use of *than* to indicate comparative sentence without *more*. Consequently, these two examples reveal that the informants were not provided the imperfect leaning of grammatical rules in order to form the appropriate structures. In this case, they might only memorize the word *more* and *than* and construct the sentence incompletely. Moreover, I also found that no informants used the superlative form in the sentence, except the words *number one* which is considered to be close to the words *the best*. There is more explanation of such a word in the next chapter.

4.2.4 Adverbs

An adverb adds more information about the place, time, manner, cause or degree of the verb, an adjective or even another adverb. The position of an adverb is mentioned earlier in the sentence structure (4.1.3.2), thus this section presents how its form is constructed in a sentence properly. The simplest way to perform the function as adverb is to put the suffix *–ly* at the end of an adjective; e.g., *true – truly* and *possible – possibly*. According to the findings, the informants frequently used the adverbs of time and place in their expressions; e.g., *next time, tomorrow, here, there*, etc. Yet, adverbs of manner only occur in several sentences as follows:

(77)	*Like I <u>serious</u> practice one month.*	(TPE)
	'I practiced <u>seriously</u> for one month.'	(SE)
(78)	*Sometime business go <u>slow slow</u>.*	(TPE)
	'Some days the restaurant's rather <u>slow</u>.'	(SE)

The sentences in (77) and (78) show that the informants comprehend the meaning of the vocabulary, but cannot form the adverb of manner correctly. They mentioned the words *serious* and *slow*, (which were spoken in the adjective forms) to modify the verbs in the sentences. The Thai language also has a way of forming adverbs similar to that in Standard English by inserting the word *yang* (อย่าง) (equally to the word *-ly*) at the beginning of verbs. However, this way is not critically applied in the spoken Thai. They usually ignore to say the word *yang* and merely leave the form of verb instead.

4.2.5 Prepositions

When we express about the position or movement in Standard English, prepositions are one of the word classes to be mentioned. Their function is to provide more meaningful and definite linking constituents in the sentence by using *in, on, at, about, over, etc.*; for example, *I stay <u>at</u> the dormitory* and *she has to work <u>on</u> the paper*. Moreover, some nouns, adjectives, or verbs have the particular prepositions to perform with; *e.g., on business, interested in,* and *wait for.*

In this study, the omission of prepositions is found. This phenomenon is also stated by Hall (1966; 75) and discovered in Chunsuvimol (1995), Chomchinda (1995), and Hirunpat (2004). Example (79.) exhibits the lack of *for* with the verb *pay.* Example (80) shows the absence of *on* in the noun phrase *vacation.*

(79)	*How much I pay this?*	(TPE)
	'How much do I pay <u>for</u> this?'	(SE)
(80)	*Are you vacation?*	(TPE)
	'Are you <u>on</u> vacation?'	(SE)

The findings also show the limited use of prepositions in the other conversations: *in, on, behind, back, before, from, there, here, near, to, for, only, with,* and *about*. These prepositions are used to express broad meaning, and sometimes the informants use them inappropriately. As the sentence (81), the informant used *for* in the sentence that does not require a preposition . Relating to the sentence (82), the use of *for* is not the proper preposition to appear in the expression *bring something to someone.*

(81)	*Spell <u>for</u> your name.*	(TPE)
	'Can you spell your name, please?'	(SE)

| (82) | *I bring the flower <u>for</u> he.* | (TPE) |
| | 'I bring the flowers <u>to</u> him' | (SE) |

4.2.6 Pronouns

In Standard English, pronouns are used instead of noun or noun phrases; e.g., *I, he, them, it, etc*. The findings illustrate the different uses of pronouns between Thai Pidgin English and Standard English as follows:

4.2.6.1 Use of improper pronouns

Pronouns can be classified into personal pronouns and reflexive pronouns. To talk about personal pronouns, there are four types of them functioning and positioning differently in the sentence; Nominative case (the subject of sentence; e.g., *I, you, they, etc.*), Accusative case (the object; *e.g., us, her, him, etc.*), Possessive adjectives (before noun; e.g., his, our, my, etc.), and Possessive pronoun; e.g., *mine, its, theirs, etc*. The reflexive pronoun is used for referring back to the subject; e.g., *she can do it herself*. As illustrated in the study, there is no reflexive pronoun spoken in any conversation. Furthermore, the informants seem to misuse the personal pronoun in their sentences, as opposed to those in Standard English. The examples can be seen below.

(83)	**Nominative case**	*<u>Her</u> no like this, you know?*	(TPE)
		'<u>She</u> doesn't like this drink.'	(SE)
(84)	**Accusative case**	*I make to <u>he</u> in the garden.*	(TPE)
		'I bring the flowers to <u>him</u>.'	(SE)
(85)	**Possessive adjective**	*<u>He</u> food come come already.*	(TPE)
		'<u>His</u> food is ready now.'	(SE)

(86)   **Possessive pronoun**   *That notebook is <u>you</u>, honey.*   (TPE)

'That notebook is <u>yours</u>, honey.'   (SE)

In addition, the possessive form is also found by employing the word *of* and the suffix *-'s*. In the sentence (87), the phrase *the past of me* does not exist in English grammar, so this should be changed to *my past experiences*. Another example (88) shows the wrong structure of possessive form. Those two words of *girlfriend* and *David* should be switched their positions and the suffix *-s* should be inserted in between.

(87)   *Everything from <u>the past of me.</u>*   (TPE)

'Everything is from my past experiences.'   (SE)

(88)   <u>*Girlfriend David.*</u>   (TPE)

'That is David's girlfriend.'   (SE)

4.2.6.2 Omission of relative pronouns

When an embedded clause takes place in a sentence, relative pronoun links a relative clause to a noun in the main clause. It always appears after a noun and at the beginning of the relative clause. In order to analyze the relative pronoun more easily, there are two positions to be considered: the relative pronoun as the subject and the object. The results of this study show that the relative pronoun is not used either as the subject or the object of the sentence.

(89)   **Subject**   *He go to <u>bar have people smoking</u> cannot stay.*   (TPE)

'He can't stay in <u>the bar that let people smoke inside</u>.'   (SE)

'The bar that let people smoke inside.'

(90)   **Object**   *We talk about like to look and <u>joke the woman like</u>.*   (TPE)

'We talk about <u>the jokes that woman likes to listen</u>.'   (SE)

Woman likes to listen to the jokes.

(91)   *Lunch at the restaurant on <u>Pan Yee village people Muslim stay</u>.*   (TPE)

'We'll have lunch at <u>Pan Yee village where the Muslim people live</u>.'   (SE)

The Muslim people live in Pan Yee village.

4.2.6.3 The repetition of noun (phrase) with pronoun in subject

In order to emphasize a noun or noun phrase already mentioned in the sentence, the informants tend to repeat the subject with a pronoun after *tenderloin, Phuket Gazzette.com, and foreign people* as demonstrated in (92), (93), and (94). This finding shows the influence of the Thai language in repeating the pronoun so as to highlight the subject. This is called "shadow pronoun".

(92)   *Tenderloin <u>it</u> mean like ka fillet wrap bacon around there.*   (TPE)

'Tenderloin is like a fillet wrapped around bacon.'   (SE)

(93)   *Phuket Gazzette.com <u>they</u> always tell you everything.*   (TPE)

'Phuket Gazzette.com always tells you everything.'   (SE)

(94)   *Foreigner people <u>they</u> come to training.*   (TPE)

'Foreign people are here for training.'   (SE)

4.2.7 Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word that connects two sentences together. There are different purposes of using conjunctions, such as to express the condition (*if* and *unless*), to talk about the comparison and contrast (*but, yet,* and *even though*), to indicate the reason of something (*because* and *since*), to state the intention (*to* and *so that*), and to talk about the time (*before* and *as soon as*). In Thai Pidgin English, the informants did not add the conjunction as shown below:

(95)   *You don't care, everyone cares.*   (TPE)

'You don't care, <u>but</u> everyone else does.   (SE)

(96)   *You buy one kilo discount for you.*   (TPE)

                    '<u>If</u> you buy one kilo, I will/can give you a discount.'   (SE)

In this study, the use of five conjunctions; namely, *because, and, but, when, if,* and *to* is also found in the other conversations of the informants' sentences. There are few sentences that show the inappropriate use of conjunction as follow:

(97)   *Because I not drink you know, work work work here.*   (TPE)

                 'If I don't drink red wine, I can function properly.'   (SE)

(98)   *I think you die and five minute you not breathe.*   (TPE)

    'I thought you were dead because I didn't see you breathe for five minutes.' (SE)

(99)   *He make passport but they give a new birthday.*   (TPE)

    'When he asked for the new passport, they also gave him the new birthday.' (SE)

In this chapter, I have presented the syntactic features of Thai Pidgin English which are different from those of Standard English by classifying them into two main parts: sentence structure (*word order, question form, etc.*) and word classes (*noun, verb, adjective, etc.*). The overall results show that the informants seem to be influenced by their first language (Thai). In some context, they are able to follow English grammatical rules, but it is still in the process of imperfect learning appearing in many incomplete uses of morphological and syntactic elements. Furthermore, I also found the distinctive use of lexicon which emerged in the informants' conversations and that is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

THE LEXICON OF THAI PIDGIN ENGLISH IN PHUKET

This chapter concerns the vocabulary in Thai Pidgin English that is used in real-life conversations. As mentioned earlier, one of the characteristics of pidgins is the use of words provided by the superstrate languages, predominantly European languages. This part of my study focuses on the English based lexicon and the effects of some Thai words used in sentences. The lexical items that I analyzed were selected from the words used distinctively from those words in Standard English. The selected lexical items were analyzed for their lexical semantics and word formation. In order to cover the complete analyses of word use, the study also includes the description of how some Thai words are substituted by some English words and how some English words are confused with other words of the same language. The following example shows lexical use in Thai Pidgin English in Phuket.

'*You control good good motorbike.*'   (TPE)

(You drive safely.)   (SE)

As can be seen in the above example, there are several points representing the improper and limited use of vocabulary by Thai Pidgin English speakers. For example, the word *to control* is used instead of *to ride*. The use of reduplication is also found in the word *good good* instead of stating the word *safely* to convey the meaning explicitly. Therefore, the aforementioned sentence illustrates that informant's lexicon is different from that in Standard English. Moreover, the use of those words also shows the limited knowledge of mental lexicon in the matter of expressing the speaker's thought.

In the conversations, 58 words were selected to be analyzed and explained. Those words can be classified into nine categories according to their semantic features as follows:

1. Semantic broadening

2. Misuse of synonymous lexicon

3. Use of one word in different word classes

4. Incorrectly choosing words to fit a context

5. Reduplication

6. Word creation

7. Literal translation

8. Use of Thai word

9. Malapropism

In order to illustrate the semantic features of lexical use, further explanations are herein given on the uses of the vocabulary selected from the sentences along with the definitions of those words provided by Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005, 7th ed.). An explanation is provided for every example to help clarify how and why the lexicons words are used as such among Thai Pidgin English speakers.

5.1 Semantic broadening

Semantic broadening refers to the increase of the number of senses of a word the primary meaning of which still remains. In Standard English, one word that carries distinctive characteristics can share certain similar features with some other words; for example, the word *computer* and *laptop/notebook*. Regarding the limited use of vocabulary in Thai Pidgin

English, the informants tend to employ a word to convey the sense of the other words that share similar meaning classified in the same domain. Typically, the speakers notice some related features of different things or persons introduced to them in terms of physical characteristics, functions, properties, appearances or personality. This point is also suggested by Hall (1988) and Todd (1984) in the part of the polysemous collection of pidgins. There are fifteen words under semantic broadening found in this study; e.g., *boss, peanut, machine, car (taxi), Thailand (Thai people), madam, to do, to finish, to come, to pick up, to park, to make love, down, big,* and *small.* They are explained with examples of sentences as follows:

5.1.1 The word *boss* has two definitions: (1) 'a person who is in charge of other people at work and tells them what to do.' (2) 'a person who is in charge of a large organization.' According to the study, it is found that the informants from speakers in trading setting tended to refer to their owners and customers as 'the boss'. It should be noticed that the term *boss* is used, instead of owner, to refer to a person who owns or monitors a workplace and has authority to tell the workers to do something (definition 2). The word *sir* to refer to 'the customer' is not equivalent to any mentioned definition, but the informants give the title to the customers as they are considered superior or significant as illustrated:

(1) 'owner' *He is big <u>boss</u>, from Belgium. I'm staff.* (TPE)

'He is the <u>owner</u> from Belgium and I'm a staff member.' (SE)

(2) 'sir (the customer)' *Hello, <u>boss</u>, madam, you want taxi?* (TPE)

'Hello, <u>sir</u> and madam, would you like taxi?' (SE)

5.1.2 The word *peanut* describes 'a nut that grows underground in a thin shell'. In this study, the informants only knew the word *peanut* and apply it to other kinds of *nuts* or *beans* due to the influence of the Thai word *thua* (ถั่ว) which refer to any kind of nuts or beans in

general. To give the explanation, the informants mention the word peanut and specify the color black as shown:

(4) 'bean'   *One day I make dessert, black one <u>peanut</u>.*   (TPE)

          'I used to make a dessert once. There were some black <u>beans</u> in it.' (SE)

5.1.3 The word *machine* signifies a piece of equipment with moving parts that is designed to do a particular job and the power used to work a machine may be electricity, stream, or gas. Sometimes, it can informally refer to a particular machine without the full name; e.g., *(washing) machine*. It is found that the informants do not know the word 'the credit card machine', so the word 'machine' is used to refer to the general term for electric equipment as follows:

(5) 'credit card machine'   A: You take the credit card?

          B: *Don't have <u>machine</u>.*   (TPE)

          'Sorry, we don't have the <u>credit card machine</u>'   (SE)

5.1.4 The word *car* is used to refer to a type of vehicle with an engine and four wheels that can carry a small number of passengers, while *taxi* mean a car with a driver that you pay to take you somewhere. In this study of Thai Pidgin English, these two words are used to refer to a van that can transport a large number of passengers to a particular place. It also means a public van that the passengers have to share the seats with others, as shown in the example sentences:

(6) 'van' *When you want dinner I have <u>car</u> go one thousand nine hundred baht.*(TPE)

          'If you also buy the dinner, there will be a <u>van</u> picking you up.

          It's one thousand nine hundred baht.'   (SE)

> *When go I call you, yeah when <u>taxi</u> go I call you.* (TPE)
>
> 'When the <u>van</u> leaves, I'll call you.' (SE)

5.1.5 The word *Thailand* refers to the name of a country, while *Thai people* means the people who have Thai nationality. In the study, the informants use these two words to talk about anything regarding Thailand. As shown in the examples, the misuse of *Thailand* appears in the contexts where the word *Thai people*, which is the doer of the action, should be used. Likewise, the use of *Thai people* in the sentence (8.) should be changed to 'Thai culture' because the informants were referring to the practice, not the people doing it, as revealed:

(7) 'Thais (Thai people)' *<u>Thailand</u> drink cold water.* (TPE)

'<u>Most Thais</u> drink cold water.' (SE)

(8) 'Thai culture' *Oh! Ice in wine, It the <u>Thai people</u>, not farang.* (TPE)

'Oh! It's <u>Thai culture (practice)</u>. Everyone has ice in their drink.' (SE)

5.1.6 The word *gift* refers to a thing that you give to somebody, especially on a special occasion, or to say thank you. In the findings, the word *gift* was used to substitute for the word 'souvenir' due to the similar features of the two types of objects and the speakers' limited knowledge. The word 'souvenir' contains a distinctive meaning and should not appear in following context.

(9) 'souvenir' *Mister, this is the <u>gift</u> from Thailand, you try?* (TPE)

'Would you like this shirt as a <u>souvenir</u> of Thailand?' (SE)

5.1.7 The title *madam* is used when speaking or writing to a woman in a formal or business situation. Normally, the Thai traders address their female customers by this title, but some of them also use the word *madam* for 'wife' or 'a significant person' as follows:

(10) 'wife'   *You come Thailand family and <u>madam</u>.*   (TPE)

'Did you come to Thailand with your <u>wife</u> and family?'   (SE)

   5.1.8 The verb *to do* defines any action that is not mentioned by name or is not known about. In Thai Pidgin English, it is found that the informants tended to use this verb instead of the verb usually used for a specific task or activity such as 'to massage', 'to braid', and 'to make (money)'. Moreover, it has come to the researcher's attention that the regular use of the verb *to do* is influenced by the literal translation of the word *tham* (ทำ) in Thai, in which *tham* is the verb normally used for tasks. Due to the limited lexical knowledge, the verb 'to do' is applied in sentences as illustrated:

(11) 'to massage'   *Whole body can <u>do</u> and foot massage can <u>do</u>.*   (TPE)

'Do you want me to <u>massage</u> your whole body or your feet?' (SE)

(12) 'to braid'   *<u>Do</u> hair may?*   (TPE)

'Do you want to <u>braid</u> your hair?'   (SE)

(13) 'to earn'   *If you <u>do</u> one thousand in Thailand, that ok.'*   (TPE)

'If you <u>earn</u> one thousand of salary, it is alright to live in Thailand.' (SE)

   5.1.9 The verb *to finish* means to stop doing or making something because it is complete. It is found that the informants use the verb *to finish* in different contexts of talks; for instance, about the condition of sickness and the situation of stock clearance, as illustrated:

(14) 'to get better'   *Today he a little bit sick, papa too,*   (TPE)

have from hudshill people. I don't know <u>finish</u> today.

'My son and I are sick today. I don't know if we will <u>get better</u> today.'   (SE)

(15) 'to clear'   *This I sell cheap for you two fifty ok? I want to <u>finish</u>.*   (TPE)

'I give you a good price of   (SE)

two hundred and fifty baht. I want to <u>clear</u> everything.'

5.1.10 The verb *to come* provides two meanings relating to the words found: (1) 'to move to a particular place.' (2) 'to travel a particular distance.' The results of the analysis show that the informants use the words *to come* to explain the result of roof leaking. The mentioned word is not considered the verb typically used to express the action in this context, compared to the verb 'to leak' or the phrasal verb 'to come down'. Correspondingly, the verb 'to ride' should be brought up in the sentence (18.) as the same reason with the earlier sentence. In Thai, the verb *to come* is *maa* (มา) which is used with the subject *water* and the object *motorbike* considering as the literal translation from Thai *naam maa* (น้ำมา) 'water come' and *maa kap mootersay* (มากับมอเตอร์ไซต์) 'come by motorbike'. The examples are demonstrated as follows:

(16) 'to leak'   *Yeah, water <u>come</u> come, not good.*   (TPE)

              'The water is <u>leaking/coming down.</u> It's not good.'   (SE)

(17) 'to ride'   *You <u>come</u> motorbike?*   (TPE)

              'Did you <u>ride/come by</u> the motorbike?'   (SE)

5.1.11 The phrasal verb *to pick up* means to take hold of something and lift it up. In Standard English, this word can be used in different contexts. One of them is to talk about transportation; e.g., The van will pick up some tourists at the airport. Therefore, the informants apply the word 'to pick up' to convey the situation of delivering food by the restaurant as demonstrated:

(18) 'delivery (to deliver)'   *Sorry, this restaurant no <u>pick up</u> to your home.*   (TPE)

                 'Sorry, we do not have food <u>delivery</u>.'   (SE)

5.1.12 The verb *to park* signifies the situation of leaving the vehicle that you are driving in a particular place for a period of time. As a result, the word *to park* is found to be

used with the boat. The informants were likely to be influenced of the Thai language since it equals the word *joot* (จอด) 'to park', which is used for any transportation as shown:

(19) 'to moor'   *The boat will <u>park</u> on the sea.*   (TPE)

          'The boat will <u>moor</u> on the sea.'   (SE)

     5.1.13 The phrasal verb *to make love* means to have a sexual relationship. The informants were likely to acquire this word from the surroundings and used it without realization of the real meaning. The data show that they attempt to express the phrase 'give love' as example illustrated:

(20) 'to give love'   *Everyone <u>make love</u>.*   (TPE)

          'Everyone <u>gives love</u> to each other.'   (SE)

     5.1.14 The word *down*, as an adverb, indicates a lower level, direction, position or rate. The results show that the word *down* is used as a verb to convey the meaning of 'to discount' or 'to lower' the price of a product, as shown in the first two expressions. The other statement shows how the informants attempted to express the sense of the verb 'to look down on someone' by using the word *down* as follows:

(21) 'to discount'   I can <u>down</u> for you fifty baht.   (TPE)

          'I can <u>discount</u> it down to fifty baht.'   (SE)

(22)   *Ok if you buy one I cannot <u>down</u> for you.*   (TPE)

          'If you buy only one dress, I can't <u>give you a discount</u>.'   (SE)

(23) 'to look down upon' *I know what people speak yeah very <u>down</u> people now.*(TPE)

          'I know what people speak. They always <u>look down upon</u> others.' (SE)

     5.1.15 The word *big* mostly indicates something large in size, degree, and amount; e.g., a big man/house/increase. It is found that the informants use the adjective *big* with the

word *work* and *love* to describe the amount of salary and affection as respectively demonstrated:

(24) 'a lot'   *You work <u>big</u> you can pay.*   (TPE)

         'You get paid <u>a lot</u>, so you can spend a lot of money.'   (SE)

(25) 'loads'   *<u>Big</u> love, <u>big</u> love.*   (TPE)

                 '<u>Loads</u> of love.'   (SE)

5.1.16 The word *small* is used to describe something that is not large in size, number, degree, amount, etc. According to this research, the use of the word *small* in the context of money is meant to signify the word 'change'. However, it should be noticed that the informants might refer to coins or notes with lower value as shown:

(26) 'change (money)'   *You don't have <u>small</u> one, wait me a moment.*   (TPE)

         'Don't you have <u>change</u>? Wait a moment please.'   (SE)

5.2 Misuse of synonymous lexicon

The synonymous lexicon represents the fact that two or more words or expressions appear to convey a similar meaning. Patington (1988) differentiates the degrees of synonymy into 'absolute synonymy and near-synonymy'. Their distinguishable features are such that the absolute synonymy is the semantic relation where one word can be substituted for another in any given situation while in the near-synonymy relation, the use of each of the words with close meanings is subject to the word's distinctive aspects and characteristics often caused by the topic or context. In English, considering the appropriate word choice to be placed in any particular position of a conversation is significant, and that can be related to the use of 'collocations', the proper combinations of words. The key of collocation is to match up two

or more appropriate words considering the use of that combination by frequency, not by chance. For example, the native speakers would rather use 'to have dinner' than 'to eat dinner'.

In this study, both types of synonymies were found in the sentences produced by the informants. Yet, a communication obstacle caused by the misuse of the near synonymy indicates another feature of the pidgin language. It is revealed that the speakers recognize only a limited lexicon to employ in any context although it might not be applicable, as follows:

5.2.1 The word *power* usually represents the ability to control people or things; e.g., *I have the power to command you*. According to the finding, the informants tend to express about his body's energy, therefore the word *power* is not appropriately used in this context as demonstrated:

(27) 'energy'   *I very little very little not so much <u>power</u>.*   (TPE)

                              'I don't have that much <u>energy</u>.'   (SE)

5.2.2 The verb *to look* signifies the action of turning eyes in a particular direction, mostly used with a preposition (*at, to,* and *for*); e.g., *look at your smile*. It is synonymous to the words 'to see' and 'to watch' as shown in the examples taken from the informants' expressions. It should be noticed, considering the differences by the manner or intention, that when one of these two words is replaced by the word *to look*, the statement sounds awkward. As can be seen in (28), the action of taking a walk and getting pleasure from something by sight for a longer time is conveyed best with the verb 'to see'. In the second example (29), the verb 'to watch' concerns the purpose of the action towards motions; e.g., (to watch) a movie/ a film/ television (for knowledge/entertainment). On the other hand, *to look* carries the sense

of attention as one's eyes are directed to focus on one particular thing for a period of time; e.g., *Look! That's your mother.* The study shows that the informants produce the verb *to look* in sentences as follows:

(28) 'to see'   <u>*Look*</u> *the flower around.*   (TPE)

                        'Let's <u>see</u> the flower around.'   (SE)

(29) 'to watch'   *Hello madam, you* <u>*look*</u> *movie?*   (TPE)

                        'Madam, would you like to <u>watch</u> the movie?'   (SE)

        5.2.3 The verb *to clear* describes the removal of things that is not needed from a place. Referring to the finding, the word *to clear* was found in the sentences where the word 'to clean' and 'to get rid of' were supposed to be. Synonymously, the word 'to clean up' conveys a similar meaning to the word *to clear* and it can provide the explicit meaning in this context. As can be seen in (31), *to clear* can be used with *head* or *mind* that has been affected by the consumption of alcohol and this word can be accepted to use in this sentence. Generally, the use of *to clear* always appears in many Thai conversations, therefore it can be investigated that the informants put this verb in their sentences to express a similar meaning as demonstrated:

(30) 'to clean up'   *Where I have to put? I want to* <u>*clear*</u> *already you know?*   (TPE)

                       'Where should I place this stuff? I want to <u>clean up</u> the table.' (SE)

(31) 'to get rid of'   <u>*Clear*</u> *everything here, no crazy you know?*   (TPE)

                       'I should <u>get rid of</u> all crazy things in my head.'   (SE)

        5.2.4 The verb *to control* expresses the act of restricting, limiting, or managing something. In the result, the word *to control* is used to replace the verbs to mean 'to limit the taste' and 'to drive the vehicle'. In fact, the first sentence can be acceptable according to the definition, however the combination of the word *control* and the word *sour* does not appear

frequently compared to the verb 'to limit'. The sentence (33) shows the use of the word *to control* caused by the informant's intention, meaning not only to drive it, but also to get it under control, as illustrated:

(32) 'to limit'	*I <u>control</u> the sour.*	(TPE)
	'I <u>limit </u>the sourness.'	(SE)
(33) 'to drive'	*You <u>control</u> good good motorbike.*	(TPE)
	'You <u>drive</u> safely.'	(SE)

     5.2.5 The verb *to stay* means to live in a place temporarily as a guest or visitor. The example (34) shows that the informants did not understand the differences between the verbs 'to stay' and 'to live' and use them randomly as illustrated:

(34) 'to live'	*My grandfather <u>stay</u> in the town.*	(TPE)
	'My grandfather <u>lives</u> in the town.'	(SE)

     5.2.6 The word *wind* is defined as a quick movement of air as a result of natural force. In this context, the informants tend to use the word *windy* to talk about the light wind which is not appropriate due to different word classes as well as the incorrect meaning. Hence, the word 'breeze' carries the precise meaning according to the informants' purpose as shown:

(35) 'breeze'	*Wienna don't like air-con only <u>windy</u>.*	(TPE)
	'Wienna doesn't like the air-con, but he likes <u>the breeze</u>.'	(SE)

5.3 Use of one word in different word classes

     Not only can the different semantic understanding be found in this variety, there are reports of using one word in different word classes as well. It becomes one of the characteristics of pidgins all over the world as suggested by Todd (1984) and Bickerton

(1981). Likewise, it is also discovered in other varieties of Thai Pidgin English according to the study by Hirunpat (2004). This phenomenon of using the same form representing several word classes is likely to be due to the influence of Thai syntax. In this study five cases of the phenomenon were found.

5.3.1 The word *finish* is used by pidgin speakers in Phuket to mean 'the end'. This probably comes from the word *sut* in Thai, which is a noun meaning 'the end'.

(36)   *Go next small soi go to <u>finish</u> soi have the baht room.*   (TPE)

 'If you go to the next small road, there will be a bathroom at <u>the end</u> of the road.'(SE)

5.3.2 The word *sour* is grammatically used as an adjective; yet, the study found that some pidgin speakers positioned it as a noun. In this case, it is apparent that the informants were not able to change the type of this word to the correct form as shown:

(37)   *I control <u>sour</u>.*   (TPE)

                          'I limit the <u>sourness</u>.'   (SE)

5.3.3 The word *electric* is definitely an adjective by its form. It is found that the informants used this form in two positions to refer to both the electrical system and a person who specializes in electricity, instead of using specific terms as follows:

(38)   *I can do the electric I'm not the <u>electric</u>.*   (TPE)

                    'I can work with the electrics, but I'm not the <u>electrician</u>.' (SE)

5.3.4 The word *dinner* is commonly positioned as a noun. The informants tend to use only *dinner* to mean 'to have dinner' as shown:

(39)   *Ok, you take shower before you <u>dinner</u>.*   (TPE)

                         'You can take a shower before you <u>have</u> dinner.'   (SE)

5.3.5 The word *assist* is normally a verb. It is found in this study that the informants did not change this verb into a noun usable as an adjective, which is 'assistant', in order to describe the type of manager as illustrated:

(40)   *Boss give me only <u>assist</u> manager.*   (TPE)

                                    'I am only an <u>assistant</u> manager.'   (SE)

5.4 Incorrectly choosing words to fit a context

It is found that Thai Pidgin English informants randomly use diverse vocabulary forms available in Standard English due to their language deficiency. The informants tend to put the use of *what* into common practice when starting off a Wh-question. Other distinctive word selections include the use of cardinal numbers to specify the dates and the use of a familiar title to address a person, as follows:

5.4.1 Use of 'what' to form in Wh-question

In order to produce a Wh-question, the informants incline to begin the expression with 'what + noun' appearing in the example interrogative sentences. This point is also indicated by Taylor (1977) and Bickerton (1981) that they called 'the two morpheme parallels in question words'; e.g., *what thing?* 'what?', *what place* 'where?', *what person* 'who?', and what time (when?). However, found in this study are two forms of *what + noun* used instead of 'when', namely *what day*? and *what month*? as shown:

(41)   *<u>What day</u> we got?*   (TPE)

                                    '<u>When</u> did we get it?'   (SE)

(42)   *<u>What month</u> Valentine day?*   (TPE)

                                    '<u>When</u> is the Valentine's Day?'   (SE)

5.4.2 Use of cardinal numbers instead of ordinal numbers

The informants did not grammatically state the date or the numeral order; e.g., *first, second, etc.* The word *number* followed by a cardinal number is used instead to signify the order as follows:

(43)   *Finish the art exhibition <u>number ten</u> December -*   (TPE)
                        until <u>number ten</u> of January.
             'The art exhibition will be held on <u>the tenth</u> of December -   (SE)
                        until <u>the tenth</u> of January.'

5.4.3 Inappropriate use of terms of address

It is found in this study that there are several words used as terms of address. They are different from those in Standard English; e.g., *mister, papa,* and *my friend.* This is probably due to the influence from Thai. Normally, in many Thai conversations, the person being addressed is usually given a title. Bhandhumetha (2008) suggests that a title may be uttered first in a sentence so as to draw the interlocutor's attention to having an interaction with the speaker. The similar result was also found in the study by Chomchinda (1995). Examples found in the present study are shown as follows.

(44)   *Hello, Sawasdee krab. Very nice, ah.. no see you ah.. <u>mister</u>.*   (TPE)
                        'I haven't met you for a long time, <u>sir</u>.'   (SE)
(45)   *Hello <u>papa</u>, what you want today?*   (TPE)
                        'Hello <u>sir</u>, what would you like today?'   (SE)

5.5 Reduplication

One of the universal characteristics of pidgins is "reduplication". Holm (1988) and Todd (1984) introduced that the speakers mainly use this feature as a simple form to emphasize intensifying meanings. This study discovered two different features representing the reduplication of words; namely, *intensification* and *mixing of two varieties of things* as follows:

5.5.1 Reduplication signifying Intensification

The significant use of reduplication is to signify the intensification of what the speakers are mentioning. Normally, the use of adverb plays the role of intensifying the verb or adjective. Yet, what is found in the study is the use of repetition either in the position right next to an adjective (*good good* and *lucky lucky*) or right next to a verb (*white white* or *run run run*) as follows:

(46)	*Good good price for you.*	(TPE)
	'It's very good price for you.'	(SE)
(47)	*Yeah, water come come, not good.*	(TPE)
	'Yes, the water falls down a lot, it's not good.'	(SE)
(48)	*I very little very little not so much power.*	(TPE)
	'I don't have that much energy.'	(SE)

As stated in the example (48), it shows that the repetition of a whole phrase is also found in the conversation.

5.5.2 Reduplication signifying mixing of two varieties of things

Another function of reduplication found in this research is to signify mixing of two varieties of things. The words that the informants use to convey the differences are mix mix, *same same*, and *half half* as illustrated:

(49)   *I think and the Chinese and <u>mix mix</u> Thailand.*   (TPE)

                        'I think you are a mixture of Thai and Chinese.'   (SE)

(50)   *This is the dog hurt, this is I'm hurt. Feel <u>same same</u>*   (TPE)

                        'My dog and I feel the same, we are hurt.'   (SE)

(51)   *Oyster and big prawn, half kilo? <u>Half half.</u>*   (TPE)

                        'You want half a kilo of oyster and half a kilo of big prawn, right?'   (SE)

5.6 Word creation

The word creation means the process of bringing the new vocabularies to use in the sentence and those words are invented out of existing English words. It is found that the informants can create some lexical items by combining words that they can recognize together. Khanittanan (1978) indicates that in the Thai language compound words are produced from the combination of free morphemes. Some of them still maintain a similar meanings to the original words, but some newly-created words seem to have different meanings. There are five words discovered in the conversations, along with the informants' explanations of how each word was created, as follows:

5.6.1 The word *sugar mouth* is produced as a compound word to convey the meaning of 'a sweet talk'. Although it carries a similar meaning to the word *pak-waan* (ปากหวาน) or

'mouth sweet', 'sugar mouth' is definitely not a Thai word. The informants might produce this word from their own creation as example:

(52) *You have <u>sugar mouth</u>, I don't believe.* (TPE)

  'You are <u>sweet talk</u>. I don't believe it.' (SE)

5.6.2 The word *freshmade* is an adaptation of the word 'handmade'. The informants produced this word by replacing the word 'hand' with the word 'fresh' to convey the quality of food as shown:

(53) *We make the new, everything fresh <u>freshmade</u> everything.* (TPE)

  'Every food is <u>made fresh</u>.' (SE)

5.6.3 The phrase *up to choice* is obtained from the phrase 'up to you' to express a sense of freedom to choose. Another way of saying this word in this context is 'anything of your choice' as revealed:

(54) *Ten stamp free food <u>up to choice</u> two hundred baht everything and the food.*(TPE)

  'If you have ten stamps, you can take- (SE)

    <u>anything of your choice</u> up to two hundred baht for free.'

5.6.4 The word *coconut barbecue* conveys the meaning of 'grilled coconut'. The informants understand the similarity between 'grill' and 'barbecue'. Yet, a barbecue usually refers to an outdoor meal where meat, fish or vegetables are cooked over a fire, particularly on a bigger metal frame, not a regular grill as illustrated:

(55) *Oh coconut smaller <u>barbecue</u>, You want?* (TPE)

  'Do you want this smaller <u>grilled</u> coconut?' (SE)

5.7 Literal translation

The informants sometimes produce a word or phrase by directly translating one word in their first language into another word in the second language, word by word. They do not recognize a proper word choice to form a phrase as in Standard English, so the strategy of direct translation takes place. Six items are found to be different from those normally used in Standard English as follows:

5.7.1 The phrase *to play water* is used to convey the action of swim. Typically, the verb *play* in Thai can be employed in different contexts, especially when talking about a recreational activity or the like, such as saying *to play* a computer/ the Internet/ a kite instead of *to use* or *to fly*, which is not the same in English, as can be seen in (56).

(56)   *Yeah, we play water every day.*   (TPE)

                                    'Yes, we swim every day.'   (SE)

5.7.2 The phrase *to paint cream* is used to express the meaning of 'to put some lotion on'. The informants used the word *to paint* when referring to an action of applying a substance on any part of the body; e.g., lips, skin, etc. The sentence can be seen as follows:

(57)   *Paint cream my hand.*   (TPE)

                                    'I put some lotion on my hand.'   (SE)

5.7.3 The phrase *to open mouth* comes from the Thai idiom used to convey the meaning 'to start talking about something'. The data shows the context of using this idiom as follows:

(58)   *When people open mouth and no speak.*   (TPE)

                            'When people start talking, they don't really speak it out.' (SE)

5.7.4 The phrase *to look children* means the expression of 'to have a young face or appearance'. Basically, the informants use a Thai metaphor in this context as shown:

(59)   *'You <u>look children</u> yeah.'*   (TPE)

                         (You <u>look young</u>.)   (SE)

5.7.5 The word *number one* is used to mention something with the best quality compared to other things. In spoken Thai, the word *thii nueng* 'the first' is used to express the meaning of 'the best'. The problem is a lot of Thai people do not know the word *the first*, so they use the word number one instead. This also follows the way to express an ordinal number by uttering the word 'number' preceding a cardinal number as shown in (61).

(60)   Take a prawn barbecue? <u>Number one</u>, mister.   (TPE)

                 'Would you like a grilled prawn? It's <u>the best</u>, sir.'   (SE)

5.8 Use of Thai words

In Thai Pidgin English conversations, the use of Thai words also appears in several situations. There are four features of mingling Thai with English found in this study as follows:

5.8.1 Use of Thai words in English sentences

Sometimes, the informants use a particular Thai word that cannot be expressed in English because they have not learned that English word. In some cases, a Thai word is borrowed to be used in a conversation because the word that conveys exactly the same characteristics or senses of the thing to be mentioned is nowhere to be found in Standard English; e.g., the word *khun* 'the title for both woman and man', *soy* 'lane which is considered

smaller than a road or street', and *farang* 'commonly representing a western foreigner'. There are sentences showing the insertion of Thai words in English as follows:

(61)   *I like to eat in <u>khun</u> muu.*   (TPE)

                'I would like to have dinner at <u>Mister</u> Moo's restaurant.'   (SE)

(62)   *This box be back to the <u>soy</u> dog foundation -*   (TPE)

                when finish the art exhibition.

                'This box will be back to the <u>street</u> dog foundation -   (SE)

                when the art exhibition finishes.'

(63)   *Thai food and <u>farang</u> food also.*   (TPE)

                'There are both Thai and <u>European</u> foods in this restaurant.'   (SE)

5.8.2 Forming a sentence by alternating between Thai words and English words

The findings show that the informants use Thai words that contain the same meanings as the English words. It also reflects their cognitive process in generating words the sense of which they still have to transfer from the Thai language in English production. Those Thai words may be positioned before or after English words in (64) and (65):

(64)   *I look hair first <u>koon</u>.*   (TPE)

                'Can I see your hair first?'   (SE)

(65)   *I have vodka and aria na <u>naam-taan</u> sugar, coconut inside too.* (TPE)

                'There are vodka, sugar and coconut in the drink.'   (SE)

5.8.3 Use of Thai particles

The use of Thai particles is considered the most popular and preferable in the conversations of Thai Pidgin English. In the Thai language, Bhandhumetha (2008) explains the use of Thai particles in expressing the feelings and actions of the speakers, including the

relationship between the speaker and the interlocutor. It can be classified into three functions: 1.) to show the politeness 2.) to ask a question 3.) to signify the age, gender, or status of the speaker Similarly, Yanpaisan (2002) mentions three types of Thai particles used to indicate different purposes of the speakers, as shown by the polite, impolite, and emotional markers. It is also found in the study by Hirunpat (2004). In the present study, it is found that there are different particles in the conversations shown in the following examples.

(66)   *You want fork and spoon? Two <u>na</u> two?*   (TPE)

            'Do you want two sets of fork and spoon?'   (SE)

         The particle *na* is typically positioned at the end of the sentence. In the sentence (66), it is found that the particle *na* is added between two words (Two…. two?) as to make a mild question.

(67)   *No, this one <u>nia</u> last price <u>laew</u>.*   (TPE)

            'No, this is already the last price.'   (SE)

         nia is a particle placed at the beginning or the end of a sentence to attract the audience's attention or to emphasize a point being made. In the sentence (67), the particle *nia* is used to emphasize the word 'this one'. The particle *leaw* is placed at the end of a sentence to indicate the present perfect tense as well as to correspond to the word 'already' in Standard English.

(68)   You taste, taste, taste <u>*may*</u>?   (TPE)

            'Would you like to try this?'   (SE)

may is placed at the end of a statement to indicate or to construct a question. In the findings, the speakers usually use this particle to form interrogative sentences as shown in (68).

5.8.4 Use of ideophones

When the informants cannot express the word in either English or Thai, they tend to use the sound to represent their words and to raise the imagination of interlocutors, so that they can understand the whole context better. This kind of term is called "ideophone", the imitation of sound in an expression so as to represent an idea, as mentioned by Doke (1935). There are two sentences showing in use of ideophone as follows:

(69)   *pippip but change light, every three or four pattern.*   (TPE)

    'The blinking lights can be changed in three or four patterns.'   (SE)

(70)   *He go bike <u>teaw teaw teaw</u>.*   (TPE)

    'He rides the bike so fast.'   (SE)

5.9 Malapropism

The misinterpretation of the perceived words by the speakers is often caused by the similar sounds of two or more words which carry different meanings, i.e. homophones. The limited knowledge confines the speakers' understanding of particular words' meanings to merely the familiar contexts. Even though some words are totally different in functions, their similar pronunciation is something that allows the informants to interpret them differently. The three conversations below manifest different cases caused by distinctive misinterpretation. That is how the speakers confuse one word with another due to the similarity in spellings or sounds as defined by the term "malapropism", suggested by Hirst

and Budanitsky (2003). The conversation (71) shows that the misinterpretation occurs after the informants capture only the word *fire* from the original word *firework* as follows:

(71) A: *Yes, they have <u>the firework</u>.*

B: *Oh! <u>Fire?</u> Oh why?* (TPE)

'Was that the fire? What happened?' (SE)

A: No no no, the firework make it beautiful.

B: *Ah! Beautiful and night? Yeah.* (TPE)

'Ah! It's beautiful at night, right?' (SE)

Another conversation (72) is different from the first one because the informants do not understand the word *child*, so they mistake the word *shy* for *child*, as resulted from the similar sounds of the two words.

(72) A: I like fun too. I'm still a big kid. Like him, I'm bigger. <u>I'm a big child</u>.

B: *<u>Big shy?</u> I understand big shy.* (TPE)
Ok and oh I think you can finish shy, you can. Don't shy like ka baby, not shy.
'Are you shy? I think you shouldn't be shy like a baby.' (SE)

According to (73), the interlocutor mentioned the word 'to pick someone up', which is a verb indicating the act of coming and getting someone; yet, the informants only understand this word as a noun that means 'a truck' as illustrated:

(73) A: Like someone will come and <u>pick up</u> us.

B: *Not <u>pickup</u>, car.* (TPE)

'It's not the pickup/truck. It's a car' (SE)

In conclusion, the results show that the informants produce words with lexical features different from those in the Standard English. They also show the influence of Thai on the vocabulary. Apparently, the informants do not only imitate the Thai lexical production from Thai, but also create new words.

CHAPTER VI

THE SITUATIONS IN WHICH THAI PIDGIN ENGLISH
IN PHUKET IS USED

Another interesting point concerning pidgins is the situation in which Thai Pidgin English is used. Many previous studies are mostly illustrated the use of pidgins in specific circumstances, as Thomason (2001) states that the classic pidgin serves as a trade language. Furthermore, Muhlhausler (1997) mentions that the increase of communicative functions and domains of pidgins can be considered as the expansion stage. Therefore, The widened situations of pidgin speaking in Phuket does not merely mean the surroundings or domains of the conversations, but also include the topics to be discussed; for example, the situation might take place in the business dealing; yet, the topics may concern family, personal information, vacation, etc.

Sometimes, the features of spoken language can illustrate the relationship between Thai people and foreigners in the Rawai area. Unlike people living in other tourist attractions, Most traders employ Thai Pidgin English for a specific function; i.e. they use it with the aim of selling their product and without any extended discourse for building further relationship. It can be noted of course that Thai Pidgin English occurs not only within the context of trading transactions, but also appears in other situations, too.

Description of the situation in which Thai Pidgin English is spoken in Phuket is represented by a sample from each profession and inter-married group. There are seven trading groups (the artist, the seafood monger, the massage therapist, the restaurant waiter, the souvenir shopkeeper, the taxi driver, the tour agent) and an inter-

married group. For each group, the longest conversation was selected as the representative, and the selection was done by counting the number of sentences.

The information of each profession and inter-married group is described in the form of a summarized situation. Five parameters are analyzed regarding the form of situation in which Thai Pidgin English in Phuket is used. They are as follows.

1.) **Type of situation**: This means the context of the conversation, which has two main types: *Trading and everyday activity*

2.) **Topic**: This means the main theme of conversation, topics found include *buying and selling, personal information, greeting, etc.*

3.) **Characteristics of the speaker**: This means the characteristics of informants of this study. The elements of this parameter include *ethnicity, age, gender, the relationship between the speaker and the interlocutor.*

4.) **Setting**: This means *place* and *time* of the situation in which Thai Pidgin English is used.

5.) **Formality of conversation**: This means the three levels of formality: *formal, semi-formal, informal.*

6.1 Trading groups

6.1.1 The artist

Two recordings of the artist profession have been collected. The selected situation took place at the opening of an art exhibition located in Rawai, Phuket. The summary of situation concerning a conversation between the artist and those interested in artwork is as follows:

1.) **Type of situation**: Trading

2.) **Topic**: Presenting artwork and fundraising

3.) **Characteristics of speaker**: Northerner, 32 year-old, male, interacting with an audience of 4-5 people: the relationship between the informant and audience are both close and unknown.

4.) **Setting**: In the art exhibition at night

5.) **Formality of conversation**: Semi-formal

The results of the analysis shows that the topic of trade (buying and selling) is not discussed. Instead, the conversation revolves around two main themes: 1.) The presenting of artwork. 2.) Fundraising. Therefore, the conversation focuses on the explanation of a painting and model made from shipwrecked wood. In addition, it also concerns fundraising for street dogs.

The conversation of this group between the artist and others differs significantly from that of other trading profession groups and reveals a broader range of topics. The artist did not negotiate product prices, but instead engage in private conversations with those who express genuine interest in their work. The relationships between the informant and a group of 4-5 interlocutors are both close and unknown, so that conversation is generally semi-informal. The example of a discourse of this group is shown as follows:

(1)   F[1]:   Are these all your work?
        P[2]:   *Yeah.*
        F: What is your inspiration? I like them all.
        P: *Which one? Because now it sa everything like ka from the past of me.*

---

[1]   F stands for the interlocutor

[2]   P stands for the informant/ pidgin speaker

F: For this work?
P: *Because it's in my heart. I not like something like ka you know. Like ka this box is from the foundation. Actually, this box and this, the foundation they take care of the soy dog. Like ka the dog some people they leave them you know. Like ka on the road. Like ka I have my experience from right now. I hurt this is the dog hurt, this is I'm hurt. Feel same same.*

This short discourse (1) shows how the informant uses the Thai Pidgin English to express his thought and opinion of the artwork. Apparently, he seems to know a lot of words and be able to construct them into sentences. However, one of the limited use of lexicon shown is to frequently mention the word *like ka* before continuing another sentence; e.g., *I not like something like ka you know. Like ka this box...* It can be a strategy of communication in order to reduce pauses while being in the process of thinking. The use of Thai sentences is rarely found in this conversation, only some inclusion of Thai words is noticed; e.g., *soy* meaning 'small street'.

6.1.2 The Seafood monger

In total, six conversations involving seafood mongers were recorded--all located in the seafood stall area at the front of Rawai beach. These selected conversations were taken from two seafood mongers talking to their customers. The following summary illustrates the situation of food selling.

1.) **Type of situation**: Trading

2.) **Topic**: Buying & selling, telling prices, promoting food's quality, offering products, complimenting the customer

3.) **Characteristics of speaker**: Southerner (Phuket), 33 year-old, male, they are familiar with the customers.

4.) **Setting**: At a seafood stall area in the afternoon

5.) **Formality of conversation**: Informal

The conversation contains a small variety of related topics which are largely based around trade, they are; selling and buying, giving a price, promoting the high quality of food items and offering the product for sale. In addition, the seller gives compliments to a customer. From additional recordings of seafood monger's conversions, it is evident that a further variety of related subjects are discussed; e.g., *negotiating price, suggestions for food preparation, and requests for more or different products*. The short conversation of seafood selling is shown as follows:

(2)   P: *You want this?*
           F: You clean it for me?
           P: *Ok, moment na.*
           F: Ok, just yeah just no head.
           P: *Head cut, Fellet?*
           F: Yeah, yeah. No, not fillet ah not fillet.
           P: *Ah, cut head.*
           F: Give me, give me two more. Nice one huh? Two more, nice one.
           P: *Two more. This number one today fishing.*
           P2[3]:   *Papa, take a prawn?*
           F: Not today, not everyday, huh?
           P2:   *Caramari?*
           F: Hey, chaa, chaa, huh?. wan-nii, phrung-nii, maruen-nii)
                    'Slow slow' 'today, tomorrow, the day after tomorrow'[4]
                    'Take it easy, I can come again tomorrow or the day after tomorrow'
                How much is the fillet?
           P: *Two kilo ah.*
                Um.. I discount you twenty six baht.
           P2:   *Mamaa suay wan-nii*
                'Mother (=You) is so beautiful today.'

---

[3]   P2 refers to the second informant (seafood monger)

[4]   Literal translation

This conversation can be categorized as quite informal due to both the close relationship between two participants in the conversation and the characteristics of speech style. The previously mentioned compliment was constructed from the Thai language *mama suay wan-nii* 'Mother (=You) is so beautiful today'. The foreign customer could speak Thai as well *chaa, chaa, huh? wan-nii, phrung-nii, maruen-nii* 'take it easy, I can come again tomorrow or the day after tomorrow'. Another factor indicating intimacy between sellers and customers is the use of titles *papa* 'father' and *mama* 'mother', instead of *sir* and *madam*, respectively. Regarding the language use, the informants can only memorize the chunks of English words of seafood selling *take a prawn?* and *I discount you…* due to the repetition in using those phrases. As investigated, the seafood seller would rather speak Thai to show familiarity to the customers.

6.1.3 Massage therapists

The data of all massage therapists' conversations was collected on the beach as therapists persuaded customers to have a massage. Some massage therapists offer the additional service of hair braids. In this particular example the informant provides detailed information concerning types of massage and hair braids. The condensed detail of the situation of massage therapists' conversation is demonstrated as follows:

1.) **Type of situation**: Trading

2.) **Topic**: Buying & selling, offering massage courses and prices, further suggestions having massage and braid

3.) **Characteristics of speaker**: Southerner, 46 year-old, female, first time

meeting with the customers and they are unfamiliar to each other.

4.) **Setting**: On the beach and in the afternoon

5.) **Formality of conversation**: Semi-formal

Typically, topics recorded in the massage therapists' conversation were service related; e.g., buying and selling, offering massage courses, prices, and post service suggestions. However, in this example the interlocutor asked for directions to the lavatory. The results show that the informants are able to give directions and to recommend the better lavatory. The short dialogue given reveals a conversation happening in the massage circumstance.

(3)   P: *When you want massage, whole body can do, and foot massage can do, oil massage can do, but not not same for money. Foot massage two hundred, for whole body three hundred, um.*

    F: Do we have to take our clothes off?

    P: *Can, you massage here, here.*

    F: No I mean if we want to take the clothes off.

    P: *You can take off, ok, no problem. But no people not looking, not shy not shy.*

    F: Is there any toilet?

    P: *Toilet, yeah.*
              You go to next street. Have. You look at the family mart and small go next small soy. Go to finish soy. Have the bath room.
              'street'

    F: Thank you, thank you so much.

    P: *Why you not go to the Ocean[5]? Ocean, yeah same same. You can go there. Because free for customer go in there.*

In all recordings, the massage therapist's conversations can be categorized as semi-informal due to first time meetings. A noteworthy point is that whilst Thai Pidgin English is utilized as the primarily communication mode, there was also

---

[5]   She means Ocean Department Store

evidence of code-mixing with Thai (e.g., in some sentences the particle *may* was used (to raise a question) and *aa* (at the end of a statement)'. The words *reiw* (เร็ว) 'fast' and *kaun* (ก่อน) 'before' were also used in a position that does not concern the meaning. When welcoming the customers, many fixed patterns of offering massage courses are employed *whole body can do and foot massage can do* and *for whole body three hundred.* Moreover, the conversation does not seem casual because the informants work on the beach and usually have a new customer.

6.1.4 The restaurant

The following conversation (4) took place in one of the European restaurants located in the central of Rawai. A significant reason for selecting this situation is that informant was likely to ask questions which can be particularly beneficial in language research. The summary of the restaurant situation is as follows:

1.) **Type of situation**: Trading

2.) **Topic**: Buying & selling, taking order, quoting prices, recommending special foods, discussing food tastes, personal information, talking about the customers' business, and talking about Thai culture

3.) **Characteristics of speaker**: Southerner (Phuket), 26 year-old, female, first time meeting with the customers and they are unfamiliar to each other.

4.) **Setting**: At a restaurant in the evening

5.) **Formality of conversation**: Casual

The restaurant location includes an ice-cream venue, a café and a fruit shop. Overall topics predictably revolved around selling and buying, placing orders, quoting prices, recommending special foods and discussing flavors, etc. However, additional social information was also discussed (e.g., age, family, place of stay), as well as conversations about the customers' business and the exchange of information about Thai culture and festivals.

(4) P: *Ok. Would you like beefs?*
      F: Beef? No, I eat pork.
      P: *No, eat pork oor. Pork and the this pork pork satay and the porks with chicken.*
                          'Oh'
      F: Oh this one is with chicken.
      P: *Yes, and the… batterfis. And the… this only beef.. beef…*
          And the chicken or pork is good sale.
      F: So, this is all. And then... um what do you eat with this. This one is the price, right?
      P: *Yes, Nii pen No. 4 and they have sets.*
              'This is'
      F: Yeah, Ah if I take as you recommend this one. And...
      P: *Just a moment kha. This this doing...*

      ………… *Another conversation*……………

      P: *You come motorbike?*
      F: Yes.
      P: *Everyday police check point.*
      F: Ah check point. So, it's not good, right?
      P: *Thailand not good.*
      F: Have you got arrested?
      P: *Have.. ah motorbike, not car.*

In this conversation, the informant uses the Thai polite marker of *kha* in the sentence when speaking to the customer. When the topic is not about food, the informant uses more casual language to develop topics and practice her English. It can be noticed that the informant applies the plural form by inserting *-s* in the word *beef*

as *beefs*, instead of saying *beeves*. There is a Thai word existing in the sentence as well *nii pen* (นี่เป็น) 'this is'. To begin the conversation, the informant uses a proper question form of taking food orders *Would you like...?* although other parts of dialogue are not considered to be close to Standard English. It can be stated that at a restaurant, conversations are usually friendly and contain the forms of appropriate language.

6.1.5 The souvenir shop

The selected souvenir shop is located in the north of Rawai where the informant sells handmade jewelry. It is noteworthy that the informant conducts a conversation using his own creative version of the English language, and that becomes his distinctive characteristics of pidgin user. The following summary demonstrates a situation at a souvenir shop.

1.) **Type of situation**: Trading

2.) **Topic**: Greeting, buying and selling, dealing with prices, explaining the product, asking for customers' specification, personal information, recommending tourist attractions, expressing personal opinions about people in society, and persuading the customer to come back

3.) **Characteristics of speaker**: Southerner (Phuket), 38 year-old, male, close relationship between the informant and customers.

4.) **Setting**: At a souvenir shop in the evening

5.) **Formality of conversation**: Informal

There are several types of souvenir shop documented in this study. They sell local Thai products, pearls and jewelry, wooden cravings and batik. The topics found in this particular example provide a general overview. Such conversations typically include greetings and introductions, trade, prices as well as product marketing (descriptions and encouragement to try or purchase an item). Broader conversation topics include Thai prices, occasions for use, Thai souvenir information and the belief of luck as well as requests for customers' specification, discussions regarding personal information (family and spouse), recommending tourist attractions, expressing personal opinions and persuading customer to come back again. A sample of conversations between a shop owner and customers is shown as follows:

(5)   F: He makes very good jewelry.
               This is called turquoise
        P: *Yeah, crystal crystal.*
        F: I know I makes jewelry also.
               I like this, this is real, this is real.
        P: *Yeah, from nature.*
        F: I like this how much?
        P: *thaw-ray.. ah..*
               'How much'
        F: Do good.
        P   *Moment.. ah.. nine hundred baht.*

              …..........Another conversation................

        P: Thank you, I like.
               Next time, can go to, err, Yuun bar. Yuun ba, Yuun baa baa bor bor
                                  'Yuun's bar, Yuun is crazy*'*
        F: I'm err... Surin, I go Surin.
        P: *Surin, Surin beach?*
        F: Yeah.
        P: *You control good good motorbike. No drink, no drive, no accident.*
        F: No accident.
        P: *For me one accident from drink I ...you. Take care good good.*

In this example, the informant uses Thai words and phrases; e.g., *thaw-ray* (เท่า ไหร่) 'how much' and *baa baa bor bor* (บ้าๆบอๆ) 'crazy'. From his use of Thai language it is evident that the informant obviously has a close relationship with his customer. Moreover, the style of constructing his language clearly meets the formation of pidgins as mentioned in word creation (chapter 5) *you control good good motorbike*, *no drink no drive no accident* and *take care good good*. Therefore, the informant's pidgin reveals an attractive feature, which helps him to be close to his customers.

6.1.6 The taxi driver

Conversations by taxi drivers took place in the taxi stop area close to a tourist attraction. For the purpose of data collection, two taxi drivers kept tape recorders with them and recorded conversations with customers. Thus, all conversations were recorded from the real situation of taxi services. The following summary provides concise situation regarding taxi drivers' conversations.

1.) **Type of situation**: Trading

2.) **Topic**: Buying and selling, introducing trips and prices, describing tourist attractions, asking for the customers' specification of their trip, offering more trips

3.) **Characteristics of speaker**: Southerner (Phuket), 35 year-old, male, first time meeting with the customers and they are unfamiliar to each other.

4.) **Setting**: At a taxi stop in the afternoon

5.) **Formality of conversation**: Formal

Conversation topics in a taxi situation are relatively service orientated so focusing upon the subject of selling and buying, introducing trips and prices, describing tourist attractions, requesting customers' specifications and offering further services or more trips.

(6) P: *Hello, boss, madam, you want taxi?*
     F: Yes, how much?
     P: *Patong beach two hundred baht khrap.*
     F: If I want to go to the town.
     P: *Four hundred.*
          You look around madam? Two hour one thousand, three hour one thousand five hundred.
     F: How many places are you gonna take me? Today, I have three hours.
     P: *Temple Chalong, Big Buddha, Leam Promtep.*
     F: What is Leam Promtep?
     P: *You see this please.* (He shows the pictures of those three places)

In discourse, the informant tends to use improper question forms with the customer. Instead of saying *Would you like...?* or *Where would you like to go?*, he expresses that Y*ou want...?* It is because he might not realize the appropriate way of structuring language to be more polite. However, he employs another strategy of communication in forms of showing respect and politeness by using formal titles *madam*, as well as *please* and the Thai polite marker *khrap*. A prediction of this profession's formality shows that the use of polite words creates the distance relationship between the speaker and interlocutor.

6.1.7 The tour agent

There are three tour agents covered in this study. All of them are located in front of the beach or near tourist attractions. As Predicted, tour informants seem more fluent at speaking English than those from other professions. In general, tour agents

are able to produce longer sentences and the speed of talking is faster; but the language structure is still strongly influenced by the structure of their mother tongue (Thai). The summary is demonstrated concerning the content of the speech situation involving tour agents are presented below.

    1.) **Type of situation**: Trading

    2.) **Topic**: Buying and selling, explaining trips and prices, confirming the quality of trips, informing customers of special promotions, asking for the customers' information, suggesting the life style of native people, and persuading the customers to come back

    3.) **Characteristics of speaker**: Southerner (Phuket), 22 year-old, female, first time meeting with the customers and they are unfamiliar to each other.

    4.) **Setting**: At a tourist agency in the afternoon

    5.) **Formality of conversation**: Semi-formal

It is found that the three tour agents cover the same topics in their conversation; namely, selling, buying, explaining about trips and prices, comparing the advantages and disadvantages of each trip, confirming the quality of trips (according to their experience), advertising the uniqueness of a show, the specialty of a trip, and attractions of an activity, advertising special promotions and welcoming customer to come back.

As can be seen, the informant provides numerous details as well as information about Thai culture and the life style of native people. The speakers'

choice of language is designed to expand conversation. Apparently, the use of Thai

words is not found at all in their conversation as follows:

(7) P: *Yeah Rosama Bay for sightseeing, Viking cape for sightseeing and stop and relax on Phi Phi island one hour, and you can swimming and snorkeling at monkey beach. If you want to go to give food for monkey, have long tail boat to take you to the beach.*
     F: Oh there are monkeys.
     P: *But you don't touch it, if you afraid about monkey you can swimming and snorkeling.*
     F: With monkey?
     P: *No no no, not, beach and don't worry about monkey.*
     F: Nine hundred baht?
     P: *Three island yeah.*
     F: Thank you. umm.. Do we have to book before we go?
     P: *Yeah, when you wanna go to Phi Phi island?*

Despite the fact that this is the initial meeting between the informant and the

customer, the conversation tends to be relaxed and casual in terms of tone. A polite

and respectful attitude is adopted. However, the question format and basic sentence

structure are somewhat confused; e.g., ***Would you like*** *go Phi Phi island?* and *you*

should *see monkey island have*, instead of saying *you + verb*. It seems that the tour

agent knows the pattern of sentence beginnings, but cannot conclude properly. In

order to be a tour agent, the experience of using English is in primary consideration.

The informant selected seems to be most fluent in English compared to other

informants in the same profession. Although her language is not completely correct,

she was able to impress the customers in her own language style; for example,

showing interesting details and highlights of the trip, etc. Consequently, the topic can

be extended to the wider range of communication and domain.

6.2 Inter-married group

Four informants from different inter-married families were selected, and their conversations with other Thai and foreign friends were recorded. This selected situation took place at a New Year's party. The conversations of the other three inter-married families were collected while having dinner, talking in the living room, and working in the garden. The summary of the selected inter-married family's conversation is revealed as follows:

1.) **Type of situation**: Everyday conversation

2.) **Topic**: Greeting, food ingredients and tastes, learning English, visiting the informant's family, passport and immigration, the past event of Valentine's Day, the experience of riding vehicles in Thailand, the neighborhood, tourist attractions in Thailand, T.V. shows in Thailand and foreign countries.

3.) **Characteristics of speaker**: Northeasterner, 42 year-old, female, conversations with a group of people: Close relationship with the interlocutors

4.) **Setting**: At a party at night

5.) **Formality of conversation**: Informal

(8)   F: I eat McDonald at Udonthani.
       P: *My house, my house.*
             Now have McDonald, let's go.
       F: So we were with her daughter, her sister, her mother, her niece, let's try and we went to McDonald. They've never been there before.
       P: *Yes Thai people somebody cannot go McDonald because think about it doesn't cheap you know? Cannot go in and only young boy young girl go school they have it's no McDonald, and old woman old people can*

> *not go because don't know cannot go in cannot eat.*
> *You like my potato salad?*

F: Yeah, how could you make it?

P: *Wan-nii I control sour, prokkati ca priaw maak.*
          'Today'   'Usually it's very sour'

F: You have this?

P: *I have this, yes have one, I finish one.*
          Why you don't need this? You tell me but you don't need.

F: I have some.

The selected conversation shows many everyday topics occurring in colloquial circumstances; namely, greeting, food ingredients and tastes, learning English, visiting the informant's family, passport and immigration, the experience of travel in Thailand, the neighborhood, attractive places to visit, T.V. shows in Thailand and in foreign countries. In this situation, there are four people participating in the conversations and they know each other quite well. Interestingly, it is found that the informant tends to speak in Thai Pidgin English switching to Thai sentences and Thai words sometimes.

From the above examples that illustrate the use of Thai Pidgin English in various situations, It can be stated that this pidgin is broadened to general conversations, as can be seen in various topics discussed in a domain of trade shown above. This phenomenon of expanded pidgin may be considered to be the creolization, which means the development of pidgins in the aspects of complex linguistic features, communicative strategies, and the widened situations in which they are used. Even though creoles basically are the first language of new generations, this study shows that the use of Thai Pidgin English in Phuket possibly grows among the second language speakers and may be also found in the next generations of inter-married families.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION

This chapter contains a summary of the study, a discussion of the results, and suggestions for further studies in the field of pidgins.

7.1 Summary of the Study

This study focuses on the linguistic aspects of Thai Pidgin English spoken by traders and inter-married families in the community of Rawai, Phuket. The objectives of the study are to analyze the syntax and lexicon of Thai Pidgin English spoken in Phuket and to compare its sentence structures, grammatical features, and lexical items with those in Standard English. Moreover, the study also aims at examining the situations in which Thai Pidgin English is used with reference to type of situation, topic, background of speakers, setting, and formality.

In data collection, sixty conversations from thirty informants of trading careers and inter-married families were recorded in real life situations. All the informants belong to eight professions: souvenir shopkeepers, restaurant owners, waiters, tourist agents, seafood stall owners, massage therapists, taxi drivers, and artist. Several techniques of the real participant and the observer-as-participant were used in different circumstances and conditions as deemed appropriate.

The features of the syntax and lexicon of Thai Pidgin English in Phuket were analyzed and compared with the corresponding features of Standard English. In addition, the situations where Thai Pidgin English was spoken in Phuket were examined with reference to the type of situation, topic, characteristics of the speaker,

setting, and degree of formality. The results of the analysis are summarized with regards the hypotheses as follows:

7.1.1 The first hypothesis stated that the characteristics of syntax of Thai Pidgin English are different from Standard English. The result of the analysis supports the hypothesis. The syntactic features of Thai Pidgin English are different from those in Standard English, which can be categorized into two main groups: *the sentence structures and word classes*.

The sentence structures of Thai Pidgin English has four characteristics: **use of simple sentences** (e.g., *complex sentences are rarely found in the conversations*)**, omission of the subject or predicate in a sentence**, **use of wrong word order***,* and **use of a word or phrase to form a question and the use of statement to form a question**.

The findings show that, there are three characteristics that support the findings of the previous studies: **use of wrong tense, omission of the subject or predicate in a sentence,** and **lack of subject-verb inversion for forming questions.**

Regarding the wrong word order that is found in this study, no previous study has mentioned this problem. However, in both Thai Pidgin English and Standard English SVO is mostly used in most sentences. The wrong word order found is the placement of the modifier after the head noun or verb. In Standard English the modifier appears in front of the head.

Moreover, the use of word classes found in this study reveals how parts of speech are used differently from Standard English. They are divided into seven items: **Verb** (e.g., *omission of inflectional verb endings in the third person singular, use of*

serial verbs instead of placing to between verbs, *lack of (direct/indirect) objects or complements following the transitive verb*, *use of 'have' in an existential construction, omission of auxiliary added in front of 'not' to form negative sentence, lack of verb to be or linking verbs added in front of complement, misuse of tense markers, lack of proper modal auxiliaries.)*, **Noun** (e.g., *omission of plural markers*, *the head + modifier word order*, *lack of articles* and *quantifiers*), **Adjective** (e.g., *use of incorrect adjective form*s and *the inaccurate use of comparative and lack of superlative patterns*), **Adverb**, **Preposition, Pronoun** (e.g., *use of improper pronouns*, *lack of relative pronouns between clauses, use of shadow pronoun),* and **Conjunction (**e.g., *misuse of conjunctions in sentences)***. Compared with the former theories and research of pidgins, this study shows that **use of 'have' in an existential construction** and **use of incorrect adjective forms** are initially found in this study. Therefore, these syntactic features conform to the hypothesis concerning the differences between the Thai Pidgin English and Standard English.

7.1.2   Regarding the second hypothesis: The use of restricted lexicon is one of the characteristics of pidgin speakers. Typically, they only have a small number of lexical items to utilize in their conversation, which causes the difficult conditions of communication. The findings show that the hypothesis is partially confirmed that the speakers of Thai Pidgin English **misuse synonymous lexicon, use one word for different word classes, incorrectly choose words to fit a context, reduplicate words, use literal translation, and malapropism.** In addition, the results illustrate that they also use complex lexical items found in two features marked by **semantic broadening and word creation**. The speakers process the language that they acquire

to invent their own words, which are employed to express what they mean and understand.

7.1.3   Regarding the third hypothesis: The features of Thai Pidgin English and Standard English are different in the grammatical usage. There are many syntactic aspects illustrating the influence of the Thai language; for example, *Head + modifier word order, lack of inflectional markers, use of have in an existential construction, etc.* These features show that the Thai Pidgin English used in Phuket does not follow the syntax of Standard English.

The results of lexical analysis, it is found that the speakers tend to use a lot of English words in their conversations and include some Thai particles and words or sentences when they do not have English words or talk about Thai contents. In some contexts, the informants use the certain words in different meanings from those of Standard English and also produce many words in new forms. Consequently, while the speakers do not speak grammatical English, they supply themselves with a lot of words available in Standard English in order to support their purpose of communication with foreigners. The findings, thus, confirm that this hypothesis is correct and this variety of English is considered a pidgin.

7.1.4 Regarding the last hypothesis: which states that the situations of pidgins do not only occur in the trading transactions, but also in general conversations. This study shows that this pidgin is also used in everyday conversations. Normally, the informants in the inter-married family group obviously use Thai Pidgin English in their daily life to talk about food, activities, neighborhood, etc.

For the trading group, the situations found are mainly about buying and selling products, dealing with prices, and the quality of products. In some contexts, the findings reveal that the trading situations also appear on various topics regarding Thai life style, personal information, giving compliments, etc. when a conversation on trading has ended or has not started. There are situations where Thai Pidgin English is spoken in public areas, such as when an artwork presentation is given by an artist. This shows that the speakers are confident to speak Thai Pidgin English to a larger group.

The description of situation occurring in which Thai Pidgin English is used shows the increase in using pidgin in broader contexts. This is supported by two findings in this study: 1.) **the characteristics of the speakers' language uses** 2.) **the summary of the five parameters.** The primary consideration of studying pidgin is the adequate language experience of the speakers. Basically, those users tend to be more confident to learn to speak pidgin in the real situations due to the frequency of practices. The next stage, they can use the communicative strategy to carry out the conversation. Obviously, the pidgin users cannot construct standard structure of the superstrate language, thus they use the communicative strategy to support the deficiency of language use; e.g., the use of 'connecting word' (like) to reduce pauses which is shown in Chapter 6. Another significant step is to conduct various topics in a conversation. The speakers tend to be more relaxed to speak the second language and be confident to bring out different points to discuss. Sometimes they even understand the situations in which appropriate topics should be raised. Later, when people have similar interest, they could easily build up the relationship and become a group.

Therefore, this hypothesis is accepted with respect to the extending situation of pidgin.

7.2 Discussion of the Results

The study of syntactic aspects of Thai Pidgin English points out that they are different from the features of Standard English in terms of sentence structures and word classes. According to the main studies of grammatical features by Holm (1988, 2004), Hall (1966), and Todd (1984), there are two main characteristics marking pidgins: *SVO word order* and *lack of inflectional morphology.* It is concluded that this is supported by this study. Moreover, there are more non-standard syntactic features found in the findings which also appear in other prior pidgin studies of Perekhvalskaya (2004), Hudson (1980), Tagliamonte et al. (1997), Huber (2004), Bickerton (1983), Dillard (1973), Mann (1993), and Naro (2000). These consequences demonstrate that pidgins occurring in the world share the similar grammatical characteristics of differences from the standard languages.

In addition, there are many features from the findings not mentioned in the previous studies; for example, the unorganized sentence, the frequent use of adverbs in the front position, the use of *have* in an existential construction and the use of incorrect adjective form. On the other hand, some features that have been found in other pidgins do not exist in the Thai contexts; e.g., in Tok Pisin. Therefore, different substrate languages of pidgins contain different linguistic features; for example, Tok Pisin has a complex plural rule. Thomason (2001, 171) gives an example of a system of pronominal number divided into singular, dual, trial, and plural things (e.g.,

different form of saying *we*), while Thai Pidgin English merely contains a form of saying *we*. However, it is noteworthy that the major theories of pidgin genesis of substrate influence and the processes of second language acquisition (baby-talk, simplification, and monogenesis) introduced by Romaine (1988) can still be applied to all pidgins.

The hypothesis assuming that the pidgin speakers are limited lexicon users is partly supported. The analysis of vocabulary usages reveal that there are five lexical features indicating the restricted knowledge of the speakers in the study: *misuse of synonymous lexicon, use of one word for different word classes, incorrectly choosing words to fit a context, reduplication, literal translation, and confusing one word to another (malapropism)*. One explanation is that, as mentioned in Chapter 2, the pidgin users do not get to learn English from school or other tutorials. Thus, they only learn it from speaking in the real contexts and memorizing useful words and phrases in order to construct sentences in their own way. Some pidgin speakers also use the strategy of simplified phrases or sentences in order to remember those structures easier because they do not have knowledge of the complex grammar of English.

In addition, the feature of semantic complexity is introduced by Fenk-Oczlon and Fenk (2008). This trait is found in forms of *semantic broadening* and *word creation* which are opposed to the simplified features of pidgins. In order to invent words containing semantic complexity, the study discovers that those speakers tend to have adequate experience in English in order to broaden the meaning of standard words or produce new vocabulary to express in contexts. It shows that the speakers develop their language skill and apply existent words to fulfill their needs of

communication as claimed in the study by Raukko (2006).

With respect to extending situations of speaking Thai Pidgin English in Phuket, previous studies reveal that pidgin is a kind of contact language used to facilitate the language users that speak different languages and to serve the function of auxiliary variety for specific situation as claimed by Mufwene (2007) and DeCamp (1977). Pidgins are not much found to be communicated in general situations. Thomason (2001) suggested that the prototype of pidgins is restrictedly used in several functions of trading and migration as occurred in the old days. The expanded pidgin, as claimed, is just a variety used in a stage between pidgin and creole, which cannot be any further unless there are native speakers (the next generation of pidgins) found.

Back to the findings, since the analysis of Thai Pidgin English has discovered what is similar to the theory, there are two mains points illustrating how pidgins recently grow in the community: Firstly, although most pidgin users require this variety to be used in their trading circumstances, the need of language learning can also be noticed in many ways; for example, to have a lot of speaking practice with foreigners and to raise questions. However, their language characteristics are not close to the standard one due to the imperfect learning and speaking without formal training. As stated, many of them show noticeable characteristics of language use, which can be observed by their communicative strategies, use of semantic broadening, and word creation. Secondly, the results show that Thai Pidgin English is widely used in the society. That means most Rawai habitants are likely to communicate in pidgin with the foreigners living in this area. This shows that it is a

lingua franca in Thailand.

7.3 Suggestions for Further Study

The study of Thai Pidgin English in Phuket was conducted to examine the language use and situations occurring in pidgin usage. In order to have more generalization of the findings and to verify the results, many repetitions of the study of pidgins in other fields are recommended. There are interesting areas covering the aspects as follows:

7.3.1 Further studies should analyze other types of linguistic features; for example, the speech patterns focusing on the relationship between morphemes and their phonetic realizations (morphophonemics). Additionally, a number of phrasal verbs used differently from those in Standard English are also found in the conversations; *e.g., you go in the* car now. 'get in the car now!'

7.3.2 For next studies, another interesting theory of 'code-switching' or 'code-mixing' can be applied to analyze the characteristics of the language use in Phuket or other tourist attractions in Thailand. Since many conversations spoken by the informants contain a lot of Thai words or phrases embedded, there should be a study of how those code-switching (mixing) features are constructed in the conversations and the reasons of using those features in different contexts of their communication.

7.3.3 According to the previous studies, there were several tourist places in Bangkok (e.g., Sukhumvit Road and Khao San Road) where similar fields of research have been conducted. Therefore, the use of Thai Pidgin English at other tourist attractions in Thailand have not been studied; e.g., Chiangmai, Pattaya, Udonthani,

etc. The results might appear differently from one pidgin-speaking region to another due to the specific dialects and the speakers' experiences. Also, the bordering areas should be taken in consideration for this type of study since the languages used by the residents of those areas are seemingly close and connected.

7.3.4 Besides studying the language use of Thai people, it would be beneficial to investigate the use of English Pidgin Thai among the foreigners (Europeans and Asians). The results can be comparative to the study of Thai Pidgin English in terms of differences of language uses.

7.3.5 For those who specialize in other languages, pidgin studies can be the mixture of any varieties; e.g., Thai Pidgin Japanese, Thai Pidgin Malay, Thai Pidgin Korean, etc. Moreover, the research of pidgins can also focus on the combination of distinctive dialects; for example, the Southern Thai dialect mingled with Pidgin Hokkien in Phuket, etc.

7.3.6 Further investigation should examine the language learning and communicative strategies of pidgin speakers. Due to my short interviews, a lot of informants have many interesting ideas of learning and speaking English (or maybe other languages); for example, noting unknown vocabularies, speaking two words at once (instead of one complete sentence), memorizing only one or two phrases at a time, etc.

7.3.7 The attitudes toward pidgin spoken in Thailand should be another issue to light up. Currently, there is still a large population of Thai people not acquiring enough knowledge of communicative English, especially trading groups and tourists involved in many attraction places. Therefore, the study can be useful to investigate

the status of English. That is, pidgin should be their choice of communication or providing those groups with Standard English instruction should be a better option.

7.3.8. Further analysis of this study should examine the next process of pidgins: *creoles*. Regarding inter-married families in Phuket, the children acquire both languages from their parents and their surroundings. The investigations of further generations can cover the areas of linguistic features, the influence of different languages, and the language acquisition. It would be of interest to keep track of the development of the language usage in a multilingual society like Phuket.

REFERENCES

Adler, M. 1977. Pidgins, Creoles and Lingua Francas: A Sociolinguistic Study. Hamburg: Helmut Buske Verlag.

Allen, J. H. 1992. Former Lexifier Language Acquisition. Work papers of the Summer Institute of Linguistics in St. Lucia.

Ansaldo, U., Stephen M. and Geoff S.. 2009. The Cantonese Substrate in China Coast Pidgin. University of Hong Kong.

Aarts, F. 1982. English Syntactic Structures: Functions and Categories in Sentence Analysis. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Bhandhumetha, Nawawan. 2008. Thai Grammar. Bangkok: Academic Publication Project, Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University. (นววรรณ พันธุเมธา. 2551. ไวยากรณ์ไทย. กรุงเทพมหานคร: โครงการเผยแพร่ผลงานวิชาการ คณะอักษรศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย.)

Bickerton, D. 1981. Roots of Language. Koroma Publishers.

Bickerton, D. 1983. Creole Languages. Scientific American, July 1983, 59-69.

Bonvillain, N. 2003. 4th ed. Language, Culture, and Communication: The Meaning of Messages. New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Breva-Claramonte, M. 1999. Pidgin Traits in the Adaptation Process of Spanish Anglicism. Cuadernos de Filologia Inglesa. Vol. 8, 239-250.

Carr, B. E. 1972. From Pidgin to Standard English in Hawaii. Honolulu: The University Press of Hawaii.

Chomchinda, Supunya. 1995. English Sales Talk in Bangkok: Communicative Strategies of Khaosan Road Stall Vendors. Master's Thesis, Faculty of Liberal-Arts, Thammasat University. (สุปัญญา ชมจินดา. 2538. กลวิธีในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการขายสินค้าของผู้ค้าแบบแผงลอยชาวไทยย่านถนนข้าวสารกรุงเทพมหานคร, วิทยานิพนธ์ปริญญามหาบัณฑิต, คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์.)

Chunsuvimol, Boonruang. 1995. The Characteristics of English Usage among the traders in Sukhumvit Road, Bangkok. Science of Language, Volume 9. Department of Linguistics, Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University. (บุญเรือง ชื่นสุวิมล. 2538.   ลักษณะภาษาอังกฤษของคนขายของชาวไทยที่แผงลอยริมถนนสุขุมวิท กรุงเทพ.

ศาสตร์แห่งภาษา ฉบับที่ 9. กรุงเทพมหานคร: ภาควิชาภาษาศาสตร์ คณะอักษรศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์
มหาวิทยาลัย.)

DeCamp, D. 1977. The Development of Pidgin and Creole Studies. In Valdman (ed.),
Pidgin and Creole Linguistics. Indiana: Indiana University Press.

Díaz, E. 2008. An Approach to the Lingua Franca of the Mediterranean. Department
of Hispanic Philology, Universitat de Barcelona.

Dillard, J. L. 1973. Black English: Its History and Usage in the United States.
New York: Vintage Books.

Doke, C. 1935. Bantu Linguistic Terminology. London: Longmans, p.118. Cited in
Mark Dingemanse. On the History of the Term 'Ideophone'. [online] 2008.
Available from: http://ideophone.org/on-the-history-of-ideophone/ [2008,
January]

Dulay, H., Burt, M. And Krashen, S. 1982. Language Two. Oxford: Oxford
University Press.

Echu, G. 2003. Influence of Cameroon Pidgin English on the Linguistic and Cultural
Development of the French Language. Presented at Cultures in Motion: the
Africa Connection, an international conference at University of Tennessee,
Knoxville, February, 5-9.

Fenk-Oczlon, G. and August F. 2008. Complexity Trade-offs between the Subsystems
of Language. In M. Miestamo, K. Sinnemäki and F. Karlsson (eds.), Language
Complexity: Typology, Contact, Change, pp. 43-65.. Amsterdam/Philadelphia:
John Benjamins.

Fromkin, et al. 2007. An Introduction to Language. Boston: Thomson Higher
Education

Hancock, I. 1971. A Survey of the Pidgins and Creoles of the World. In Romaine
(ed.), Pidgin and Creole Languages. London: Longman.

Hatch, E. and Brown, C. 1995. Vocabulary, Semantics, and Language Education.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (170)

Hall, R. 1966. Pidgin and Creole Languages. New York: Cornell University Press.

Hirunpat, Pataraporn. 2004. English Language Learning and the Use of English by Female Employees of Entertainment Establishments in Patpong. Master's Thesis, Department of Linguistics for Communications, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University. (ภัทรพร หิรัญภัทร์. 2547. การเรียนรู้และการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษของพนักงานหญิงในสถานบันเทิงย่านพัฒน์พงศ์, วิทยานิพนธ์ปริญญามหาบัณฑิต, สาขาวิชาภาษาศาสตร์เพื่อการสื่อสาร คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์.)

Hirst, G. and Alexander B. 2005. Correcting Real-word Spelling Errors by Restoring Lexical Cohesion. Natural Language Engineering 11 (1): 87–111.

Holm, J. 1988. Pidgins and Creoles, Vol.1, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Holm, J. 2000. An Introduction to Pidgins and Creoles. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Holm, J. 2004. Languages in Contact: The Partial Restructuring of Vernaculars. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Holmes, J. 2008. An Introduction to Sociolinguistics. London: Longman

Huber, M. 2004. Ghanaian Pidgin English: Morphology and Syntax. In Kortmann, Bernd and Schneider, Edgar W. (eds.), A Handbook of Varieties of English. A Multimedia Reference Tool. Volume 2: Morphology and Syntax. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 866-878.

Hudson, R.A. 1980. Sociolinguistics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Khanittanan, Wilaiwan. 1978. Language and Linguistics. Bangkok: Thammasat University. (วิไลวรรณ ขนิษฐานันท์. 2521. ภาษาและภาษาศาสตร์. กรุงเทพมหานคร: มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์.)

Kwak, E. 2003. Comparisons between Pidgins and Unish. Journal of Universal Language 4. March 2003, pp.17-31. Sejong University

Lefebvre, C. 1988. Studies in Caribbean Language. Journal of Pidgin and Creole Languages 3:1, 153–157.

Lipski, J. 1994. Afro-Portuguese Pidgin: Separating Innovation from Imitation. presented at the Annual Meeting of the AATSP, Philadelphia, August 1994.

Mather, P. 2006. Second Language Acquisition and Creolization: Same (i-) processes, Different (e-) Results. <u>Journal of Pidgins and Creole</u>. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 231-274.

Matras. Y. 2009. <u>Language Contact</u>. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mann, C. 1993. <u>Polysemic Functionality of Prepositions in Pidgins and Creoles: The Case of 'Fo' in Anglo-Nigerian Pidgin</u>. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 57-67.

Mauranen, A. and Elina Ranta. 2009. <u>English as a Lingua Franca: Studies and Findings</u>. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing

McWhorter, J. 2005. <u>Defining Creole</u>. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mosel, U. 1980. Tolai and Tok Pisin. <u>Pacific Linguistics</u>. The Australian National University.

Mowarin, M. 2010. Some Lexico-Semantic Processes in Naija. Paper presented at the Conference of Nigerian Pidgin, University of Ibadan.

Mufwene, S. 2002. Colonization, Globalization, and the Future of Languages in the Twenty-first Century. <u>Most International Journal on Multicultural Societies</u> 4 (2): 162–193.

Mufwene, S. 2007. What do Creoles and Pidgins Tell us about the Evolution of Language? <u>The Origin and Evolution of Languages: Approaches, Models, Paradigms</u>, ed. by Bernard Laks, Serge Cleuziou, Jean-Paul Demoule, and Pierre Encrevé. London: Equinox. 1-45.

Muhlhausler, P. 1997. <u>Pidgin and Creole Linguistics</u>. London: Westminster University Press.

Naess, U. 2008. <u>Gulf Pidgin Arabic: Individual Strategies or a Structured Variety? A Study of some Features of the Linguistic Behavior of Asian Migrants in the Gulf Countries</u>. Master's Thesis, Department of Culture Studies and Oriental Languages, University of Oslo.

Naro, A. 2000. <u>The Grammaticalization of Lexical Items in Pidgin/Creole Genesis</u>. Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro.

Ofulue, C. 2010. Towards the Standardization of Naija: Vocabulary Development and Lexical Expansion Processes. Paper presented at the Conference of Nigerian Pidgin, University of Ibadan.

Oshima, K. 2002. Semantic and Structural Shift Patterns of Gairaigo in Japan. Intercultural Communication Studies. International Christian University.

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (7th ed.) 2005. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Partington, A. 1998. Patterns and Meanings: Using Corpora for English Language Research and Teaching. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Perekhvalskaya, E. 2004. Clause Structure in the Russian-Chinese Pidgin. Series of International Symposia on Languages spoken in Europe and North and Central Asia. 94-97.

Raukko, J. 2006. Polysemy as Complexity? SKY Journal 19: 357-361, Cited in Fenk-Oczlon, G. & August Fenk. 2008. Complexity Trade-offs between the Subsystems of Language. M. Miestamo, K. Sinnemäki and F. Karlsson (eds.), Language Complexity: Typology, Contact, Change, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins. pp. 43-65.

Romaine, S. 1988. Pidgin and Creole Languages. London: Longman.

Thomason, G. S. 2001. Language Contact: An Introduction. Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Todd, L. 1974. Pidgins and Creoles. London and Boston: Routledge.

Smith, G. 1997. English and Melanesian Pidgin in the Admiralty Islands. The English Centre. University of Hong Kong. Links & Letters 5, 1998, 109-125.

Smith, W. C. 1933. Pidgin English in Hawaii. Duke University Press. American Speech, 8, 1 (February, 1933), pp. 15-19.

Speyer, A. 2010. Topicalization and Stress Class Avoidance in the History of English. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Tagliamonte, S., Shana P. and Ejike E. 1997. Plural Marking Patterns in Nigerian Pidgin English. Journal of Pidgins and Creole. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 103-129.

Taylor, D. 1977. Languages of the West Indies. Baltimore. MD: Johns Hopkins
    University Press., p. 170. Cited in John Holm. 1988. (Vol.1) Pidgins and Creoles,
    Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wardhaugh, R. 1986, 2002. An Introduction to Sociolinguistics. Oxford: Blackwell
    Publishing.

Yanpaisan, Poonsuk. 2002. Thai Grammar. Phuket: Faculty of Humanities and Social
    sciences, Phuket Rajabhat University. (พูลสุข ญาณไพศาล. 2545. ไวยากรณ์ไทย. ภูเก็ต: คณะ
    มนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาลัยราชภัฏภูเก็ต.)

Biography

Miss Nicha Tovankasame was born in October 10th, 1986 in Phuket. She graduated with a Bachelor of Liberal-Arts degree, majoring in Language for Development with First Class Honors from Prince of Songkla University in 2008. At present, she works as an instructor at Prince of Songkla University, Phuket campus. Her areas of interest are sociolinguistics, Pidgin and Creoles, and lexicology.