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ELF inThailand: Variants and Coinage in Spoken ELF in Tourism Encounters

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Abstract

Globalisation has a great influence on the emergence of English as a lingua franca (ELF), particularly in tourism contexts. This paper reports on a piece of research that investigated variants and coinage in spoken ELF interactions between Thai locals and foreign tourists on Koh Lanta, Krabi. The nature of tourism encounters was brief and practical. That is to say, the primary focus was to exchange tourism information athough interactional encounters also occurred. In this study, the utterances in English produced by Thai locals when interacting with foreign tourists were collected and then analysed to identify distinctive features of pronunciation and lexicogrammar, including coinage which was used commonly. The findings provide that the forms of ELF in tourism contexts more or less vary from other contexts of ELF use. The findings of this study lie in the notion that the communicative practices of ELF are context-bound communication.

INTRODUCTION

In the globalised world, people find themselves in contact with a wide range of others with different lingua-cultural backgrounds through the use of English. English becomes the dominant global language and subsequently plays the role of an international lingua franca or ELF. Many ELF scholars have provided definition of English as a lingua franca. In this study, ELF refers to "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option", according to Seidlhofer (2011, p.7). ELF functions as "a contact language" (Firth, 1996, p.240) which is "a medium of communication used by people who do not speak the same first language" (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.7). In the setting of this study, ELF is the language of choice spoken by the Thai locals to communicate with foreign tourists.

ELF research has emerged in these decades since Seidlhofer's call for the description of ELF to reflect how ELF plays its role in lingua fraca communication. ELF research has traditionally focused on linguistic features such as phonology, lexis, and grammar, but more recently there

has been a degree of shift forwards pragmatics. The establishment of three large-scale corpora of ELF, namely VOICE, ELFA, and ACE has given rise to prolific corpus-based research of ELF, and subsequently this allows the descriptive work on the linguistic features of ELF emerging particularly where English is used as a contact language.

A number of ELF studies carried out mainly in academic and business domains have contributed that some linguistic forms of English in ELF communication do not follow the norms of English as a native language (ENL) (Björkman, 2008; Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Deterding, 2010; Jenkins, 1998; Lewis & Deterding, 2018; Ranta, 2006, 2010). Some language patterns of English used by ELF speakers commonly diverge from ENL norms or the Standard English referring to institutionalised native-speaker varieties of English, namely British English, American English, and Australian English in general (Quirk, 1990, p.6). In this sense, emerging distinctive linguistic forms of English in spoken ELF communication are perceived as characteristics of ELF, rather than a deficiency in the English language. Being multilingual, ELF speakers have a wide range of levels of English proficiency and, as such, modify their lingustic resources and create innovative linguistic forms. ENL standard norms, therefore, are irrelevant as a yardstick to measure the ELF speaker's English proficiency. In addition, correction by the native speakers of English is less necessary in using English for lingua franca communication, but attention to intelligibility and shared understanding in spoken ELF should be paid, instead (Björkman, 2008; Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Jenkins, 2006, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2011).

So far, ELF research has been conducted prolifically in academic and business setting where ELF users are international students, educated academic staff members, English language teachers, lecturers in higher education, including professional in business contexts. However, there has been a little ELF research in other contexts. In fact, tourism contributes to typical ELF situations where users of English are multilingual, and they have different levels of English language competence. Despite the high degree of ELF communication involved, there has been little research on linguistic features in the context of tourism, particularly in Thailand.

Background to the study

The globalised world has accelerated the use of English in Thailand. English, as an additional language, is used for international communication in business, trades, tourism, media entertainment, higher education, and so on (Foley, 2005; Trakulkasemsuk, 2018). English is widely used in in metropolitan cities e.g. Bangkok, Chiang Mai, Pattaya, Phuket, so-called "metropolitan English" (Chamcharatsri, 2013, p.22). The use of English is also widespread in local contexts where local people either live near border areas or live in touristy areas. Having more chances to interact with foreigners from different language backgrounds, Thai people need English as the language of choice. The use of English as a lingua franca in Thailand is, therefore, becoming more common inside the country.

The continual increase in international travel has constantly accelerated the widespread use of ELF in tourism in Thailand. The average number of foreign visitors was approximately twenty-five million arriving in the country each year from 2014 to 2018 (Ministry of Tourism and Sports, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018). Accordingly, the ELF phenomena in Thailand,

particularly in tourism contexts have generated my interests in investigating how Thai local people use English in different formats in lingua franca situations where Thailand, the broader context, is one that is often described as being characterised by 'poor' levels of English (First Education, 2013, 2016; Fredrickson, 2015). Additionally, the Thai locals in this study were not expected to have received formal English language education. Having limited knowledge of English might have impacted on their use of English.

This study aimed to explore to what extent Thai people made use of their English and produced distinctive features of English in ELF interactions. This paper reports emerging distinctive forms of English in terms of phonological and lexicogrammatical features. The study was designed to investigate naturally-occurring spoken ELF interactions between the Thai locals and foreign tourists during brief communicative encounters on Koh Lanta, the touristy island in the Andaman Sea. In order to support Seidlhofer's call (Seidlhofer, 2001), the study, therefore, contributes to a new knowledge about the linguistic characteristics of ELF in tourism.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The initial focus of ELF research was to document the communicative practices of ELF, especially to describe the phonological and lexicogrammatical forms of English used by non-native speakers of English (Cogo & Dewey, 2012, p.2). It is worth mentioning Jenkins' pioneering work (Jenkins, 1998) as she proposed the features of English pronunciation produced by non-native speakers of English in international communication. She posited that norms and models of pronunciation should be taught in English language classroom in order to equip English-language learners capable to use the target language and to promote intelligibility in lingua franca communication. Jenkins (2002) labelled "core" and "non-core" features of phonological and phonetic items which are deviant from ENL norms, identified as follows:

- All the consonants, except /θ/ and /ð/
- No omission of sound of word-initial clusters e.g. *pr*omise or *st*ring
- Distinctions of long and short vowels
- No substitutions for the mid-central vowel /ɜ:/ e.g. b*ir*d or n*ur*se
- Correct placement and lengthening production of nuclear stress

The Lingua Franca Core is phonological and phonetic features that are crucial to intelligibility; otherwise, interlocutors could encounter difficulties in understanding and subsequently cause loss of intelligibility or miscommunication. On the other hand, non-core features do not affect intelligibility (Dauer, 2005; Deterding, 2011; Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

Alongside phonological features, lexicogrammatical features are also emerging. According to Seidlhofer(2004, p.220), these are common variants found in ELF communication as follows:

- Dropping the third person present tense *–s*
- Confusing the relative pronouns *'who'* and '*which'*

- Omitting definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in ENL, and inserting them where they do not occur in ENL
- Failing to use correct forms in tag questions (e.g. *isn't it?* or *no?*)
- Inserting redundant prepositions (e.g. *study about, discuss about*)
- Overusing certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do, have, make, put, take*
- Replacing infinitive-constructions with that-clauses (e.g. *I want that*)
- Overdoing explicitness (e.g. *black colo*r)

Moving to ELF in Asia, the establishment of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) has promoted the demand for English as the working language and also has given rise to the significant role of ELF in ASEAN (Kirkpatrick, 2010b; The ASEAN Secretariat, 2013). So far, a number of ELF research studies have been conducted in Southeast Asia. The Asian Corpus of English (ACE) was established and subsequently ASEAN ELF is now gaining academic attention. It is worth summarizing common features of ASEAN ELF. To begin with shared phonological ASEAN ELF, consonant clusters as the final sound are often reduced; for example, 'first' is pronounced as /firs/ and /t/ is dropped (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Conversely, some of the consonant clusters, particularly voiceless sounds ending with –ed in the past simple are additionally produced as /-ed/ by Thai speakers (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.75). For example, 'tapped' is pronounced as /tap-ped/ in place of /tapt/, and the word 'linked' is pronounced as /linked/, instead of [linkt]. Some long vowel sounds e.g. /eː/ and /oː/ and initial aspirations /t/ and /p/ are difficult for some users of ASEAN ELF to pronounce (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006, p.397; Kirkpatrick, 2010a, pp.77–78). Users of ELF across ASEAN more or less merge long and short vowel sounds (Baskaran, 2004; Deterding, 2007; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). When users of ASEAN ELF utter a multi-syllable word, they lack in reducing vowels (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.78). Furthermore, pronouns and final words are frequently stressed (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

Regarding lexical items, there are many more words describing the same things across varieties of English. Some localised English vocabulary is mixed with the indigenous language and English so that "hybrid words" are frequently found in ELF (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.89). Localised English vocabulary is often used internationally such as 'satay' from Malay English (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.86). On the other hand, some of localised lexical items referring to traditional culture are understood only in a specific area such as 'minor wife' and 'make merit' found when English is used in Thai contexts (Saraceni, 2015; Trakulkasemsuk, 2012) and 'kiasu' in Singapore English (Saraceni, 2015, p.111). In this sense, the use of localised lexis represents cultural values. Furthermore, the same word used in a specific area can have a different semantic sense. The word 'crocodile' in Malay English refers to 'a womaniser' (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.124). Using local idioms and localised vocabulary is likely to cause understanding problems for outsiders.

Regarding grammatical features in ASEAN ELF data, users of ELF across ASEAN frequently omit grammatical elements e.g. articles and often insert additional elements e.g. pronouns (Kirkpatrick, 2010a). They leave out an article and commonly use a definite article, instead of using an indefinite one (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.105). Concerning noun pluralisation, ELF users in ASEAN do not mark plurality to plural countable nouns; conversely, uncountable nouns are

pluralised. In respect of tense systems, the ASEAN ELF data shows that verbs are not formed into tenses, especially the present or the simple. Instead, ELF users in ASEAN often insert time adverbials in utterances (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.107). They establish the time by using the context. In terms of using modal verbs, the use of 'would' in place of 'will' is reported as a characteristic found in varieties of Asian English (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). However, there are few instances of this found in the ASEAN ELF data. ELF users in ASEAN rarely inverse a subject and a verb in wh-questions. They place an affirmative sentence right after a wh-question word. Like users of ELF in European nations, ELF users in ASEAN produce redundant prepositions as "a general all-purpose preposition" (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.113) for example using 'about' with verbs e.g. tell, discuss, and talk. The emerging linguistic features of ELF in ASEAN contexts, particularly reported in Kirkpatrick's works (Kirkpatrick, 2010b, 2010a) were developed as the theoretical framework to analyse spoken ELF in tourism in this study.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In the setting of this study, ELF is the language of choice spoken by Thai locals to communicate with foreign tourists, set only on Koh Lanta, Krabi in southwestern Thailand. Due to the growth of tourism on the island, more and more local people are working in tourism services. The participants of this study were hostel and coffee shop owners, ticket and reservation agents, *Tuk Tuk* drivers, travelling agents, and local tour guides. They had a higher demand in using English with foreigners; although, some of them had restrictive knowledge of the language. To be able to communicate, they acquired English in whatever form from available resources. Evidently, they gained forms of English from their experience. In other words, some of the locals used their grass-root level of English for work-related purposes.

Instrument

When the Thai locals spoke English with foreign tourists, naturally-occurring spoken interactions in ELF were recorded and then transcribed to create the data set for analysis. In this paper, utterances produced by the Thai locals were analysed in detail, particularly based on emerging distinctive features of pronunciation and lexicogrammar which has been reported in previous ELF research in Asia (Kirkpatrick, 2010a).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This paper aims to report emerging forms of ELF in terms of phonological and lexicogrammatical features in tourism encounters in Thailand. The findings show that the communicative practices of ELF are context-bound communication; as a result, the forms of ELF in the context of tourism more or less vary from other contexts of ELF use in academic and business settings (Björkman, 2018; Canagarajah, 2007) because the participants in this study, particularly the Thai locals had the low level of English language competence. Despite the use of distinctive

forms of English, the Thai locals put their effort in making meaning and negotiating mutual understanding with the foreign tourists. To describe the distinctive features in spoken ELF, the linguistic features were tagged with <pvc> </pvc>, according to the mark-up conventions in VOICE and ACE corpora (VOICE, 2007).

Phonological features of ELF

Inside the sea cave, the local guide (TH55m) described the features of the cave and points at stalactites and stalagmites. These two examples are evidence that TH55m did not acquire pronunciation of *'stalactite'* in U1 and *'stalagmite'* in U2. Due to his awareness of intelligibility,he pronounced each word with two possible phonological forms. In U1, he pronounced *'stalactite'* into ['sta l3k ta3d] and ['sta l3k ta3d], additionally used self-repetition and *'you know'* as a comprehension check. In U 2, ['sta l3k m3d] and ['sta l3k m3d] were pronounced for the word, *'stalagmite'*. Either of these two forms of stalactite and stalagmite more or less helped the tourists recall the word he was mentioning. In doing so, it can support monophthongization, a pronunciation feature which is shared by speakers of ASEAN ELF (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006, p.395; Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.80). That is, a diphthong [a3] in the final syllable is merged into a short vowel [3].

U1 (416)	TH55m	okay ah . this is a sea cave and everybody can you see this one . this is <pvc> **sta.lək.taɪd {stalactite}** </pvc> <pvc> **sta lək tɪd** </pvc> you know <pvc> **sta lək taɪd** </pvc> you know <pvc> **sta lək tɪd** </pvc>
U2 (416)	TH55m	ah this is a stalactite and this one this is a <pvc> ˈ**sta.lək.mɪd {stalagmite}** </pvc> <pvc> ˈ**sta lək maɪd** </pvc> or <pvc> ˈ**sta lək mɪd** </pvc> . on the talabeng island this is the limestone island limestone stone

Regarding shifting the vowel sounds, F50f produced [m3 n3 bu:s] for the word, 'minibus' (U3). Instead of ['m3ni,b3s], the short-vowel sound [3] was shifted to the long-vowel sound [u:]. Interestingly, in the next turn TH2 initiated other-repetition by following F50f's pronunciation. In spite of that, most of the time she pronounced this word with the short-vowel sound.

U3 (46)	F50f	is there not any <pvc> **mɪ nɪ bu:s** </pvc> there
	TH2f	<pvc> **mɪ nɪ bu:s** </pvc> they have.

The further non-standard pronunciation is distinction in diphthongs, as seen U4. Due to his limited knowledge of English, it can be assumed that TH53m was not able to distinguish the vowel sounds. He pronounced the word, 'climb' with the vowel sound [e3], instead of [a3]. In addition, TH54m shifted the final consonant sound [t] into [t3]. The final consonant sound will be discussed in detail later in this section. However, distinctive pronunciation produced by TH53m did not cause difficulties in understanding.

U4 (391) TH53m but inside very very dark . if you <pvc> **kleɪm {climb**} </pvc> you come to another trip . you have the safety your body you need the big <pvc> **laɪtʃ {light}** </pvc>

However, some variants in the vowel sounds of diphthongs occasionally triggered non-understanding, as seen in U5.

U5 (050) TH7f they have <pvc> **dəʊm {dorm}** </pvc> also in here
F54m they have?
TH7f <pvc> d33m {dorm} </pvc>
F54m dorm?

TH7f did not learn English properly. She learned English from tourists and imitated what she had heard in English. So she produced the distinctive pronunciation of the word *'dorm'.* She pronounced with the vowel [33], instead of [ɜ:] and also reduced the consonant sound [r]. Consequently, F54m the listener, initiated an interrogative echo asking for repetition in the following turn.

U6 illustrates **reduction of vowel sounds.** TH21m pronounced the word, *'snorkelling'* as [snɜ:klɜŋ]. He reduced [r] and the Schwa sound [ɜ]. Moreover, the consonant sound [k] was merged with the final syllable[-lɜŋ] into [-klɜŋ].

U6 (401) TH53m but normally <pvc> **snɔ:klɪŋ {snorkelling}** </pvc> but today cannot do <pvc> 'snɜ:klɜŋ {snorkelling} </pvc> because have the (.) wave windy

Additionally, TH21m in U7pronounced *'snorkelling'* in a slightly different form. Like TH53m, TH21m reduced [r] and the Schwa sound [ɜ], but he did not produce the consonant [l] when the sound [k] was merged with the final syllable [-lɜŋ].

U7 (159) TH21m forty</1> forty five minute to the first island <pvc> **s nɔ:k kɪŋ {snorkelling}** </pvc> and you have to <pvc> **ɛ vəri tɪŋ {everything}** </pvc> the cave emerald cave here

Furthermore, TH21m's pronunciation, [ɜ v3ri tɜŋ] also presented **"the lack of reduced vowel"** (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.80). This exemplified utterance supports the common pronunciation feature of dental fricative in spoken ELF. In U7, the sound [θ] in a medial position of the word, *'everything'* was produced with an alveolar plosive [t] into [- tɜŋ]. These distinctive phonological features did not contribute to problems in understanding as the conversation was carried on without a signal of non-understanding.

The lack of reduced sounds, nevertheless, occasionally was problematic and establishes a signal of non-understanding in the listener's following turn, as seen in U8.

U8 (337) TH46m yeah yeah the <pvc> **mʌd ki:p pər {mudskipper}** </pvc> fish

F340m huh?
TH46m and the <pvc> m3d ki:p p3r </pvc> ni the low tide they can't see <pvc> m3d ki:p p3r </pvc> fish and walking fish

TH46m pronounced *'mudskipper'* with clear stress on every syllable. This mispronunciation affected the listener's understanding as seen in the following turn where F340m signalled the problem in understanding by using a minimal query, *'huh?'* to ask for another chance to hear. Apart from repeating the word with this same deviant pronunciation, TH46m initiated combined repetition to repair his utterance with additional information.

Turning to consonant and consonant cluster sounds, phonological variants noticed in this study were a) shifts of consonant sounds, b) the addition of a consonant sound, c) shifts of consonant clusters, and d) reduction of consonant clusters.

Beginning with **a shift of an initial consonant sound,** U9 illustrates that TH54m pronounced the word, *'shoes'* as [t3u:s], instead of [3u:z]. This sample shows the initial consonant sound [3-] was pronounced [t3-], and also TH54m produced the final consonant sound [-s], instead of [-z]. In this case, these variants caused the listener non-understanding. F397f seemed not to be sure of the word she had heard; therefore, she used a discourse marker, *'you mean'* with repetition of TH54m's utterance to confirm her understanding in the following turn.

U9 (403) TH54m madam <pvc> **tʃu:s {shoes}** </pvc> bag leave in the boat
F397f you mean shoes and bags leave in the boat

Another shift of the final consonant sound was noticed in these following utterances. That is, the final consonant sound [-t] was shifted into [-t3]. TH48f often produced [-t3] of the words ending with the final sound [t] e.g. *'boat'* and *'bit'* in U10 and U11, respectively. Like TH48f, TH53m produced the final consonant sound of the words e.g. *'light'* in U4 and *'fight'* into [-t3], as seen in U12.

U10 (345) TH48f @ because i have a trip with the boat or you rent a kayaking or you have time a little <pvc> **bɪtʃ {bit}** <pvc> just walking
U11 (335) TH48f go to the around the mangrove forest with the boat the (package) private only two people for one <pvc> **boatʃ {boat}** </pvc> one thousand baht for two people
U12 (392) TH53m but . they some time the <pvc> **faɪʃ {fight}** <pvc> fighting fighting for bird nest soup . and have the many people die in here also.

The next phonological variant is the **addition of a consonant sound;** that is, a consonant sound is added into the standard form. In U13. TH46m added a consonant sound [l] into the initial consonant sound [b-] and merged into the cluster [bl-] when he pronounced the word, *'bag'.* At this point, TH46m's non-standard pronunciation triggered a problem in understanding. F352f, therefore, initiated other-rephrasing to ensure understanding in the following turn.

U13 (350)	TH46m	excuse me sir is the <pvc> **blæg {bag}** </pvc> and the shoe you leave in the boat
	F352f	we leave the bag

The further distinctive phonological form is a **shift of final consonant clusters.** TH46m in U14 shifted the final consonant cluster [-ft] into the sound [-p] and also shifted the vowel sound [e] into [æ] when he pronounced the word *'left'.*

U14 (352)	TH46m	kayaking about one kayak two people . you can make the kayak . know we have the . you want to go the kayak . you go to and the kayak and the <pvc> **læp {left}** </pvc> . you can make and the paddle in the right . you we go the kayak in the right . you can make the paddle in the <pvc> læp {left} </pvc>

Speakers of ASEAN ELF commonly reduce a consonant cluster into a single consonant sound (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, pp.74–75). U15 and U16 illustrates **reduction of consonant clusters** found in this study.

In U15, an initial consonant cluster, [br-] of *'brought'* was reduced into [b-] by TH55m. In this case, his pronunciation of the word, *'brought'* sounded like the word, *'boat'.* It seemed that this non-standard pronunciation did not cause non-understanding. Alternatively, it is possible that F410f used the let-it-pass strategy to allow TH55m to carry on his talk.

U15 (421)	TH55m	this is ah . this boat this is <pvc> **bɔ:] {brought}** </pvc> this boat this this <pvc> bɜ:] </pvc> from the this boat from the <pvc> 'mɜs.lɜm {muslim} </pvc> people you know
	F410f	the muslim {'mɜzlɜm}

However, U16 shows that the listener's understanding was affected by reduction of the sound consonant cluster.

U16 (394)	TH53m	and from from here have like a <pvc> **pɔ:n {prawn}** </pvc> like walk walking . look looking
	F388f	<L1>
	F389m	where ?

TH53m reduced a consonant sound [r] in a consonant cluster [pr-] when talking about a *'prawn'.* The word, *'prawn'* was pronounced [pɜ:n] which sounded similar to *'porn'* [pɜ:(r)n]. F388f spoke her first language and F389m initiated a single-word question in the following turn. As a matter of fact, it is impossible to estimate if the listener understands what they have heard. But, in this case it could be assumed that TH53m's pronunciation [pɜ:n] more or less caused mismatched understanding.

U17 is another sample of reduction of consonant clusters which caused non-understanding. Initially, TH54m made use of his English with non-standard lexicogrammatical features in

terms of word order, *'small a baby'.* F405m seemed not to understand and then signalled with an unfocused question, *'what?'* in the following turn. In response, TH54m shifted the word, *'baby'* into *'child'.* At this point, he reduced the final consonant cluster [-ld] and pronounced only [-l]. TH54m pronounced the word, 'child' as [tɜɜl]. This variant of pronunciation more or less caused F405m to be unable to ascertain the meaning. As a result, F405m responded in the form of silence.

U17 (408)	TH54m	small a baby ah
	F405m	what?
	TH54m	another <pvc> **tʃɹl {child}** </pvc> and that's (x) monkey is <pvc> tɜɜl {child} </pvc>
	F405m	{silence}

Apart from the Thai participants' linguistic knowledge of standard English, phonological variants are influenced by cultural factors. The influence of foreign loanwords existing in the Thai language more or less reflects the distinctive pronunciation in English. Some of foreign loanwords e.g. English and French loanwords, are transliterated to match the Thai pronunciation by using the alphabet equivalent in Thai phonology (Boonyapaluk, 2004).

In U18, the French loanword, *'capitaine'* was transliterated in Thai phonology into [ka-pi- tɜn], and also codified into the Dictionary of Thailand's Office of the Royal Society (Office of the Royal Society, 2001). It could be assumed that TH48f ascertained this word in Thai and pronounced it using Thai phonology, [kɜp pi tɜn] when she made use of English. Despite that, this deviant pronunciation did not trigger the problem in understanding. The context of this talk possibly helped the listener ascertain the word, *'captain'* and understand TH48f's meaning, at last.

U18 (335)	TH48f	the long tail boat have the roof <pvc> boatɜ {boat} </pvc> and the <pvc> **kʌp pi tʌn {captain}** </pvc> stop everywhere (the) for you but and the- and you go now because and the <pvc> kɜp pi tɜn {captain} </pvc> can speak English

Moreover, the pronunciation of *'problem'* noticed in this study is interesting to discuss here. A number of Thai participants pronounced this word as [pʰlɜm pʰlɜm]. This phonological variant can be premised on a linguistic influence into three aspects. Firstly, the bilabial plosive consonants: [p] and [b] in English are shared with the bilabial plosive consonants: [p], [pʰ] and [b] (Kanokpermpoon, 2007). Secondly, in Thai, the consonant 'ร' is produced in three varying sounds: [ɜ], [r] and [l] whereas the consonant 'ล' is pronounced as [l] and [ɜ]. Given that, the consonant sounds [ɜ], [r] and [l] are used interchangeably in Thai (Charoensuk, 2014). When Thai people speak English, these Thai consonants are more or less transferred into English. Lastly, as a type of sonorant consonant, a nasal sound [m] is inserted in the middle of syllables to function as the syllable nucleus. More significantly, the pronunciation [pʰlɜm pʰlɜm] is widespread under the influence of music. In 1999, Carabao, the most well-known Thai country rock band at that time launched a piece of music entitled, "No Plom Plam" (Kruthawong, 2016; Limlawan, 2005; "*โนพลอมแพลม* (No Plom Plam)," n.d.). This noticed variant can be considered more or less as a phonological coinage. Despite that, the deviant pronunciation [pʰlɜm pʰlɜm]

does not cause difficulty in understanding, as seen in U19 to U22.

U19 (053)	TH7f	yeah they have same (x) but you can use the pool no <pvc> **pʰlɔm pʰlɛm {problem}** </pvc>
U20 (084)	TH16f	hello how many person you have? . two three four five@ no <pvc> **pʰlɔm pʰlɛm {problem}** </pvc> yeah here two here two here two and one more @
U21 (356)	TH46m	here <Lth> ni {here} </Lth> about three people have the: have the baby it's okay . no <pvc> **pʰlɔm pʰlɛm {problem}** </pvc> yeah no <pvc> pʰlɜm pʰlɜm {problem} </pvc> yeah
U22 (417)	TH55m	you have something <pvc> **pʰlɔm pʰlɛm {problem}** </pvc> on the body . they have the insurance everyone pay for you . but n the cave they not including

Lexicogrammatical features of ELF

A number of previous ELF researches discuss the lexicogrammatical features shared by ELF speakers, mainly in academic and business contexts (see Section 3.1). Here are some of variants of lexicogrammatical features emerging in touristic ELF.

Plurality is one common lexicogrammatical feature found in ASEAN ELF, "the plural marking of uncountable nouns on the one hand and the non-marking of plural countable nouns on the other" (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p.106). The exemplified findings (U23 to U25) show non-marking the plural on the noun. In spite of following *'three',* the word, *'hour'* was not marked with the plurality in U23 and U24. Likewise, the word, *'man'* in the existential construction *'there are'* (U25) was not changed to the plural form, *'men'.*

U23 (45)	TH2f	<pvc> **three hour** </pvc>
U24 (215)	TH1f	by van take quite long time like have to wait long time <pvc> **three hour three and a half hour** </pvc>
U25 (237)	TH34m	you know when <pvc> **a new people** </pvc> come . <pvc> **there are big big big man** <pvc> in the school

U25 additionally presents **"usage of articles"** which is another non-standard lexicogrammatical feature in spoken ELF (Björkman, 2008). TH34m used an indefinite article, *'a',* followed by the plural noun, *'people'.*

The further non-standard lexicogrammatical form found in this study is **confusing the personal pronouns** (Seidlhofer, 2004). In U26, TH17 used the subject pronoun *'she',* instead of *'her'* to modify a sense of possession of the word, *'hotel'*. The word orders were misplaced. In addition, the predicate of this sentence, 'is' was dropped.

U26 (110)	TH17f	-here here many <pvc> do:mm {dorm} </pvc> and many bungalow and then cheap . maybe she live at the [place] you

know hotel you check teh: <pvc> **hotel she {her hotel}** </pvc> very cheap

In a similar vein to previous ELF research (Björkman, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2010a), **non-standard forms of verb tenses and subject-verb disagreement** are also seen in U27 and U28. Subject-verb disagreement was seen in U27. That is, a singular subject, *'minivan'* was followed by a singular verb in the present tense, 'leave' rather than the plural verb form of present.

U27 (295) TH2f <pvc> **minivan leave** </pvc> every hour . last one five o'clock

In U28, the verb forms in TH34m's utterance were invariant. TH34m used an auxiliary verb, *'does not'* in the negation with the 3rd person plural subject pronoun, *'they',* instead of using *'do not'.*

U28 (235) TH34m because that's mistake what you do you put people in the same area it's that that that and they making like a oh . that's (mine) so they put here so (x) they feel like swedish there they are there they try to get (in) what what they think <pvc> **they doesn't** </pvc> think about your helping them

Furthermore, the confusion of tense forms can be seen in U29 during phatic talk between TH34m and the guests. In this exemplified utterance, the verb forms e.g. *'we have gun'* and *'my friend got shoot'*, were distinctive. The verb form should have been used in the past tense as TH34m shared his experience of when he was a youngster and was in Sweden. The confusion of verb tense forms in English could be due to the fact that the feature of verb tenses does not exist in the Thai language.

U29 (237) TH34m before <pvc> **we have gun** <pvc> we have everything . <pvc> **my friend got shoot** </pvc> on the month

The further non-standard lexicogrammatical form is **word-order misplacement.** In U30, TH17f misplaced word order between the adjective, *'thai'* and the noun, *'music',* instead of *'thai music'.* U31 exemplifies the misplacement of the noun modifier; that is, TH4m misplaced the noun modifier, *'bed'* after the word *'sheet'* which is the head noun.

U30 (109) TH17f I'm sorry (.) one moment i have little bit ah erm <pvc> music english </pvc> and i have many <pvc> **music thai** </pvc>

U31 (132) TH4m the same bed and not same <pvc> **sheet bed** </pvc>

U32 provides evidence of non-standard syntactic usage. TH17f dropped the subject of the sentence and used *'have'* with a sense of the existential construction *'there is'* followed by the word, *'rain'* with the invariant tense form. The word *'yesterday'* was used as a time adverbial in this utterance. In this sense, she attempted to negotiate meaning that it rained yesterday.

U32 (134) TH17f yesterday have- yesterday <pvc> **have rain** {it rained} </pvc> . rain

Given that, the findings support the previous studies of ELF in the way that the user of ELF transfers L1 norms into how s/he makes use of English. These deviant structural utterances spoken by the Thai participants were transferred from the norms of the Thai language into how they used English in lingua franca situations.

Regarding **variants of negation,** the Thai locals used *'no have'* with a sense of meaning in the negative existential constructions: *'there is'* and *'there are'* as seen in U33 and U34. Additionally in U34, an auxiliary verb and a verb were dropped in the negative sentence when TH1f attempted to negotiate meaning that her Vespa scooter did not have a register book anymore.

U33 (060)	TH1f	<pvc> **no have** </pvc> no problem <Lth> kha </Lth> . i change you three hundred eighty four . three hundred and eighty four baht <Lth> kha . kob khun kha </Lth>
U34 (219)	TH1f	<pvc> **this one no book** </pvc> anymore

Some omissions and reductions of grammatical structures are discovered in spoken ELF (Björkman, 2008, 2013; Seidlhofer, 2004). U35 presents **the lack of inversion in the wh-question** found in this data set.

U35 (385)	TH53m	excuse me <pvc> **where you from?** </pvc>

The Thai locals used affirmative sentences to function as interrogative sentences, followed by a rising intonation (U36 and U37), and the distinctive usage did not contribute to the trouble in understanding for the listener.

U36 (143)	TH17f	<pvc> **holiday?** </pvc>
U37 (174)	TH27m	<pvc> **and you see blacktip already?** </pvc>

Nevertheless, the non-standard grammar used in making a question occasionally triggers non-understanding, as seen in U38. TH17f's structural question caused F164m to initiate a minimal response, *'er:'*, without the answer. At this point, it is assumed that he might have struggled to understand.

U38 (144)	TH17f	<pvc> **you come here first time?** </pvc> . first time or many time here?
	F164m	er:

U39 illustrates a distinctive and double use of the comparative adjective. To compare the speedboat trip to the long-tail boat trip, TH13f formed the comparative form of a one-syllable adjective, *'fast'* with *'more'.* She also formed with the superlative, *'-est',* instead of forming the comparative adjective into *'faster'.*

U39 (065)	TH13f	the sixth they do the same but speedboat <pvc> **they more fastest** </pvc>

Previous ELF studies reveal that ELF speakers commonly use redundant words for explicitness in spoken ELF (Björkman, 2008, 2013; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Seidlhofer, 2004). U40 to U42 provide evidence of **overdoing explicitness** in this study. In U40, TH55m overdid by adding *'colour',* rather than uttering only *'black'.*

U40 (416) TH55m small you see small <pvc> **black colour** </pvc>

In U41, the word, *'time'* was redundant in an interrogative sentence with a question word, *'how long'.* Unlike U40, U41 more or less established a problem in understanding. Following TH54m's deviant question, F405m responded in the form of an unfocused question used to signal the presence of the problem in understanding.

U41 (407) TH54m <pvc> **how long time** in koh lanta </pvc> . hah papa?
F405m what?

Another sample of overdoing explicitness is in U42. TH16f used the word *'walk',* together with *'feet'* when she attempted to negotiate the meaning of *'on feet'.* Interestingly, it can be premised that she might have translated the utterance in Thai when making use of English.

U42 (079) TH16f two two kilometre or something you want to <pvc> **walk feet** <pvc> or you take ah: tuk-tuk'

Lexical items were coined and noticed in this investigation. For example, *'a good lunch'* in U43 was coined by a foreign tourist. In this context, *'a good lunch'* referred to a place where she could find things to eat, rather than having a good meal at lunchtime.

U43 (107) F118f where is <pvc> **good lunch {restaurant}** </pvc> ?

A coinage of *'checkbill'* is noticed in this study, as seen in U44.

U44 (050) F55m <pvc> **checkbill** @ </pvc>

As the matter of fact, *'checkbill'* does not have any matches in https://corpus.byu.edu/; althought, this word is used widely in Thailand. It can be premised that this coined word is a mixture of words asking for the bill. One is *'check'* from American English and the other is *'bill'* from British English. Once again demonstrating the influence of music, '*checkbill'* was the title of Carabao music released in 1998 (Kruthawong, 2016). Given that, the wide use of this coinage is probably due to the influence of media at that time.

In this study, the Thai locals had experienced studying English as a compulsory subject in school, to some extent they actually acquired English in their own way from available sources e.g. learning from tourists or senior locals working in similar jobs or services. In this sense, the Thai locals had a low level of English language competence. Apart from the findings discussed above, some Thai locals made use of their smattering of English in fragments and word-level utterances.

The findings of this study are descriptive in order to present the phonological and lexicogrammatical features of ELF which were produced by the Thai locals. Some features are shared with the features emerging in ASEAN ELF. Despite that, it is difficult to say that variant forms of English found in this study are variations of linguistic features of ELF in the tourism context. In the future, this study can be developed to explore the linguistic features of ELF in the tourism contexts in different ASEAN nations.

CONCLUSION

The force of globalisation has accelerated the increasing demand of English use, not only in metropolitan cities but also in local areas. This paper has highlighted that the Thai local people with restrictive access in learning English put their effort in making use of their limited knowledge of English when interacting with foreign tourists. It was evidential that the Thai locals paid much attention on making and negotiating meaning, rather than standard forms of English in these lingua franca situations. These variants and coinage in this study are the shared linguistic features emerging in ASEAN ELF (Kirkpatrick, 2010a) that more or less did not cause serious problems in understanding.

However, it is difficult to say that variants of English produced by the Thai locals in this study are variations of linguistic features shared by ELF speakers, due to a small number of utterances analysed. Having said that, more empirical studies on distinctive forms of linguistic features produced by Thai people in other contexts are more needed in order to signify characteristics of common variants of ELF in Thailand.

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APPENDIX
Abbreviation and selected VOICE Transcript conventions

F	Foreigner
f	female
m	male
TH	Thai local person
U	Utterance
?	rising intonation
.	falling intonation
(.)	pause in speech (less than 3 seconds)
(…)	pause in speech (longer than 3 seconds)
:	lengthened sounds
-	word fragments, a part of the word is missing
@	laughter or laugher-like sounds (x) words cannot identified or intelligible utterances
<1> </1>	the overlaps are marked with numbered tags
<pvc> </pvc>	variations on the phonological and lexicogrammatical levels, including coinages
<L1> </L1>	Non-English speech, assumed as the first language of tourists.
<Lth> </Lth>	Utterances in Thai, transliterated into the Roman alphabet
<spel> </spel>	spelling-out words
[ ]	anonymization of names of places and persons
{…}	contextual information, including Thai utterances, translated into English
WORD	Words written in capital letters give prominence