THE MIXING OF ENGLISH AND THAI IN THAI TELEVISION PROGRAMS

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Abstract

This study set out to systematically observe and describe the mixing of English with Thai-based discourse, often termed code-mixing, in Thai television programs. Data came from 100 hours of programming randomly sampled from five genres of Thai television programs – Thai drama, talk or variety shows, academic or hard talk shows, game shows and sports programs.

Findings showed that code-mixing is common, with sports programs producing the most. A great number of code-mixing were single nouns. English mixes occurred even when Thai equivalents existed. A few were used for emphasis or clarification, but most were not. Celebrities produced the most code-mixing, followed by experts and authorities. Most of the code-mixing came from program hosts.

Results suggest that code-mixing serves more than a simple utilitarian purpose: the majority of code-mixing displayed neither an emphatic function nor a linguistic need function. It may instead fall into other functional categories, such as a prestige motive or expressive functions observed in earlier studies of code-mixing of English in other languages. Many of the English words embedded into the Thai language have undergone modification: truncation, hybridization, conversion, semantic shift, reduplication, or syntactical change. These processes of nativization of English words into Thai discourse appeared similar to those reported in other parts of the world.

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Introduction

English is neither a national language nor an official language in Thailand; however, it is certainly considered the most important foreign language. The prestigious status of English is reflected in the emphasis that the education system and the job market place on English. A good knowledge of English is required for many well-paid job positions. English is recognized as an important language in international trade, diplomacy and tourism. It is also essential in the fields of science, technology and medicine. English is symbolic of education, sophistication, and prestige. It seems that anyone who can use this language will be associated with people who have prestige and good education.

English first came in contact with Thai under the reign of King Rama III. During the reigns of King Ramas IV and V the English language was almost exclusively used by the royals and the elites (Prasithrathsint, 2002). Later thanks to the expansion in education and economic

development, many have acquired a knowledge of English. Moreover, within the past decade, Thai society has begun to experience globalization in almost all aspects of life. Globalization has been accompanied by the use of English as a means of communication. It is the practical need for English which has given it an important role. The domain of English has gradually expanded to daily interactions among Thai people. As in other parts of the world, such as Germany, Brazil, Taiwan and Hong Kong, new patterns of behavior, such as the desire to use English in some daily life activities, listening to and watching foreign media, and pursuing higher studies in the West, have been observed in Thailand. This facilitates the increase in use of Thai-English code-mixing or the insertion of English words, phrases, and sentences in Thai.

Generally defined, code-mixing involves intrasentential switching, and code-switching intersentential switching. Code-switching, involving linguistic units above the clause level, is rare in Thailand, hence the term 'code-mixing' is used in this study (cf. Chen, 1996). Research on the functions of code-mixing and code-switching has shown that employing these strategies aims at conveying linguistic and semantic information. (e.g., Gumperz, 1971; Hoffman, 1971; Gal, 1979; and Scotton, 1976). Furthermore, the use of code-mixing underlines speakers' intentions. It functions as 'a conversational strategy used to establish, cross, or destroy group boundaries; to create, evoke or change interpersonal relations with the accompanying rights and obligations' (Gal, 1988: 247). Grosjean (1982) summarized the functions of using the communicative strategy as follows: 1) filling a linguistic need for lexical items,

2) specifying the addressee or excluding someone from a conversation, 3) changing the role of the speaker or the speaker's involvement, 4) emphasizing group identity or quoting someone, and 5) qualifying a message or conveying emotions. Thus, switching from or mixing one language with the other(s) in a speech community embodies the assumption that use of one particular language is more appropriate in a special social context than another. And because of the importance of English as a world language in science and technology, as well as in international trade and commerce, the use of English for discussing such topics will always give an impression of authority, credibility and authenticity. It is not surprising that this language is popular and often mixed in the mass media because of the positive attributes associated with English. Masavisut et al. (1986) have found that in Thailand, English is very often used in advertisements placed in magazines. Even a glance at Thai advertising nowadays shows how ingrained English has become.

Foreign words are present in any language, and often for good reasons. However, there has been a sense of fear in many countries where the people perceive that their language(s) are being influenced by English. In Brazil, for example, Mr. Rebelo, a member of Congress, was alarmed by the use of English-language terms in business and technology when "there are perfectly adequate Portuguese-language substitutes."[3] (*New York Times International*, Tuesday 15 May 2001) Another example comes from Germany where many young people mix their language with English so freely that their speech has acquired a name; Denglish

(Deutsch and English). For fear of German being infected by English, Hermann Dieter, leader of the Association of German Language, is fighting a war against English words.[4](*USA TODAY*, May 2001) These are only some examples to show the fear of the use of unchecked English in one's language.

In many languages that have come in contact with the English language, researchers have found several common characteristics of language change. One phenomenon of language change due to the influence of English has been termed Englishization. This is a phenomenon in which the local language undergoes linguistic assimilation with features of the English language. The other phenomenon of language change occurs, not in the local

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[3] Mr. Rebelo was sponsoring legislation that would outlaw the use of foreign words in Brazil. The proposal was approved by the lower house of Congress on March 29, 2001. Business and advertising groups were lobbying intensely to defeat it in the Senate. (Rohter, Larry. English Is Spoken Here ... Too Much, Some Say, *New York Times International*, Tuesday 15 May 2001)

[4] Mr. Hermann Dieter and his groups of 8,500 Germans have vowed to actively monitor and protect their mother tongue. He warned that if the trend of using Denglish was unabated, German would be ruined or die. He suggested Germany should appoint an expert panel to develop appropriate German words, similar to what is being done in France, a country that in 1635 established specifically to protect the purity of the French language. (Komarow, Steven. Some Germans fear language is being infected by English. *USA TODAY*, 16 May 2001).

language, but in English. This is the phenomenon that has been labelled 'nativization' of English. The discussion in this study deals with nativization, since there is no available study on the nativization of English in Thailand.

Nativization of English

To date there have been many studies done on the processes of nativization of English in various parts of the world, for example, Bobda (1994); Cheshire (1991); Kachru (1982, 1986); and Shim (1994). The researchers have found several common characteristics of the phenomenon. Some of them are described below:

1. Truncation. The process occurs when an English word is borrowed and truncated to a shorter form. For instance, in Korean the word 'super' is shortened from an English word 'supermarket' (Shim, 1994). 'Bath' in Cameroon English refers to 'bathroom' and 'spare' to 'spare tyre' in English. Thai people uses the word 'com' when referring to the word 'computer' in English.

2. Hybridization. Shim (1994) refers to the hybridized forms when English nouns and adjectives are joined with the Korean predicative *–hata*, adjectival *–han*, and adverbial *–hake*. The word 'liberal' in English, for example. When it is used with *–hata* (*libŏlŏl-hata*), it means 'to be liberal'; with *–han* (*libŏlŏl-han*) meaning '(x) who is liberal' and with *–hake* (*libŏlŏl-hake*) meaning 'liberally'.

3. Conversion. This occurs when a word changing from one class to another. For example, a noun '*a chairman*' is converted into a verb '*to chairman*', or an adjective

'*pregnant*' into a verb '*to pregnant*'

4. Semantic shift. Many English words are brought into other languages with a semantic shift. For example, 'condominium' or /*khonto*/ in Korean refers to membership housing at resorts; 'vila' or /*pila*/ in Korean refers to privately owned apartment (Shim, 1994). The word 'deadline' is replaced by 'date line' in Cameroon English (Bobda, 1994).

5. Reduplication. This refers to repeating a word consecutively. The word categories such as numerals, intensifiers, and quantifiers generally undergo this process (Bobda, 1994). Here are some examples from Cameroon English:

> *Your team played **very very** well. There are **many many** Cameroonians who can no longer make ends meet.*

While the process of nativization is a natural phenomenon of language contact, it is unwelcome to Singaporean government, which most of its people from all walks of life speak Singlish, a term for the English language spoken with the Chinese grammar. The evidence is revealed from the fact that Singapore restricted young people under the age of seventeen to viewing the movie: *Talking Cock*, which is a comedy film without violent or pornographic content. The 15-second spot for the movie was also banned. The reason for the restriction and the banning was due to the use of Singlish in the movie.[5] (*Krungthep Thurakit*, 30 July 2002)

It is a common perception that the trend of inserting English words in Thai-based interactions, as in any language, has been reinforced by the mass media which employ both languages in TV shows, advertising, popular songs, and newspapers. Moreover, like in many countries such as Germany, Brazil, French, there has been a sense of fear among the Thais that the use of English has brought new cultural ideas and western norms and deteriorated the Thai language. Strong criticism has often been made against the mixing of English in the mass communication in Thailand for fear that the spread of Thai-English code-mixing has had an effect on the attitudes, behavior and thoughts of Thai people, their language, culture and national identity (Khanitthanan, 1983; Mantrasutra, 1982; Sangpolsitha, 1981).

Thus, the present study is an attempt to determine the extent to which Thai-English code-mixing is used in Thai television programs. In other words, it is to describe the phenomenon of mixing English in Thai-based discourse observed from television programs. In addition, the processes of nativized features of English mixed in the Thai language are observed as well.

Methodology

Data for the study came from 100 hours of programming randomly sampled from five genres of Thai television programs

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[5] According to Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong, Singlish has spoiled Singapore's image as a country of international trade and financial center. Speaking Singlish makes Singoreans look less smart and less sophisticated. As a result, the government initiated a campaign, Speak Good English Movement (SGEM) as one of its measures to encourage the use of standard English among Singaporeans. (Singlish Singapore: Image or Language Deterioration, *Krungthep Thurakit*, 30 July 2002)

– Thai drama, talk or variety shows, academic or hard talk shows, game shows and sports programs. Each genre consisted of 20 hours of television programs. Since the length of each program episode varied, the number of the program episodes for each genre was not equal. The total of the sample was 123 program episodes which were distributed as follows: 1) 21 drama episodes, 2) 26 talk show or variety show program episodes, 3) 26 hard talk program episodes, 4) 23 game show episodes, and 5) 27 sports program episodes.

Before the coding was conducted, a coding scheme had been developed based on several related studies (e.g. Chen, 1996; Gibbons, 1987; Grosjean, 1982; Li, 2000; Yau, 1993). The coding scheme consists of eight variables needed for the data coding. They include:

1. Level of mixing:
1.1 word
1.2 phrase
1.3 clause/sentence
1.4 abbreviation
1.5 expression (i.e. hi, hello, thanks, Oh, my god).

2. Function of code-mixed items:
2.1 emphasis or clarification (referring to when a speaker speaks a Thai word followed by an equivalent English word or vice versa
2.2 jargon (referring to a technical term)
2.3 both emphasis/clarification and jargon
2.4 quotation
2.5 none of the above.

3. Grammatical category:
3.1 noun
3.2 compound noun
3.3 verb
3.4 adjective
3.5 adverb
3.6 others

4. Nativized feature of code-mixed items:
4.1 hybridization
4.2 conversion
4.3 semantic shift
4.4 reduplication
4.5 word order
4.6 truncation

5. Existence in Thai dictionaries:
5.1 No (not appearing in the dictionaries)
5.2 Yes (appearing in the dictionaries)

To code the variable, the coders needed to look up whether the mixed codes appeared in four standard Thai dictionaries. The titles are listed in the coding manual provided in the appendice.

6. Thai equivalence:
6.1 No (without any equivalent)
6.2 Yes (with Thai equivalent)

The coders looked up the meaning of the English mix in a *New Model English-Thai Dictionary* compiled by So Sethaputra to determine whether the mixed code has any equivalent meaning in Thai. Only precise meanings in Thai were accepted as equivalents. Paraphrasing was disregarded. The intercoder reliability among the coders (English graduate students and the first author) ranged from 94%-97% which deemed very high. This ensured that the judgements among the coders were highly consistent.

7. Speaker's role:

7.1 Program host
7.2 Guest or program participant

8. Speaker's gender:
8.1 Male
8.2 Female

Proper names such as product brand names, companies, organizations or other places were not considered code-mixing. Thus they were omitted from the coding. A coding scheme and more details for coding are provided in the appendice.

Four graduate students were hired to assist in coding. All of them had been trained to use the coding scheme before the actual coding. The coding manual and procedures were provided and explained to the coders. To ensure high intercoder reliability, all the coders met with the first author at the end of each week for the first two weeks after the coding to discuss and resolve certain questions or issues that were encountering during the coding. Thus, the intercoder reliability was satisfactory, ranging from 94%-97%. Incidents of disagreement among the coders were subsequently resolved via discussion.

Results

The analysis of the data showed that the sports programs tended to use Thai-English code-mixing more often than other genres. The study found that 47.4% of code-mixing came from sports, 20.4% from academic talk or hard talk programs, 15.2% from game shows, 13.0% from talk shows or variety shows and 4.0% from Thai drama (see Table 1). The magnitude of lexical mixing was evident. That is, 88.0% of the code-mixing involved single words, followed by phrases (7.1%), abbreviations

(3.0%), idiomatic expressions (1.6%) and clauses (0.3%) respectively (see Table 2).

Table 1 Number of occurrences of code mixed items

Program type	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Drama	306	4.0
Talk show	990	13.0
Academic /hard talk	1,560	20.4
Game show	1,157	15.2
Sports program	3,622	47.4
Total	7,635	100.0

Table 2 Number of occurrences of code mixed items categorized by levels of mixing

Level of mixing	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Word	6,722	88.0
Phrase	540	7.1
Clause/ sentence	22	0.3
Abbreviation	229	3.0
Expression	122	1.6
Total	7,635	100.0

The examination of the distribution of the code-mixed elements by grammatical category revealed that the majority of the code-mixing in the data were at the level of single nouns. That is, 77.4% of the total number of occurrences of code-mixed items were single nouns (e.g. 'course', 'trainer', 'dinner'); 8.1% verbs (e.g. 'support', 'cancel', 'promote'); 4.9% compound nouns (e.g. 'matching fund', 'love scene', 'mini series'); 5.1% adjectives (e.g. 'crazy', 'serious', 'special'). It also revealed that expressions & others (e.g. 'alright', 'bye', 'of course') and single adverbs (e.g. 'exactly', 'sincerely') showed a

very low tendency for mixing, at 4.3% and 0.1% respectively (see Table 3).

Table 3 Number of occurrences of code mixed items   categorized by   grammatical categories

Grammatical category	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Noun	5,910	77.4
Compound noun	376	4.9
Verb	619	8.1
Adjective	392	5.1
Adverb	9	0.1
Expression & others	329	4.3
Total	7,635	100.0

The study found that the English mixed in Thai discourse took place even when equivalents in Thai existed with 64.3% of the total number of occurrences (e.g. 'balance', 'designer', 'confirm') and 47.3% of them appeared in Thai dictionaries as loanwords (e.g. 'gas', 'film', 'microphone') (see Tables 4 and 5).

Table 4 Number of occurrences of code mixed items with Thai equivalents

Thai equivalent	Number of occurrences	Percentage
No	2,726	35.7
Yes	4,909	64.3
Total	7,635	100.0

Table 5 Number of occurrences of code mixed items existing in Thai dictionaries

Existing in Thai dictionaries	Number of occurrences	Percentage
No	4,024	52.7
Yes	3,611	47.3
Total	7,635	100.0

As regards the function of the code-mixing, Table 6 revealed that 9.8% involved jargon or terms in scientific, academic, and technical registers. A number of jargon words had no Thai equivalents (e.g. 'mouse', 'internet', 'web' in computer technology; and 'birdy', 'touchdown' in sports). Although a few of them had Thai equivalents (e.g. 'cut', 'scene' in filming; and 'copy', 'click', 'save' in computer usage), these were the terms with which speakers were more familiar in English than in Thai. The use of jargon was motivated by a linguistic need for lexical items or a 'need-filling motive' (Hockett, 1958:405). Speakers used embedded English jargon in Thai-based conversation to express ideas, concepts, or objects to which they had had much exposure through English books, mass communication, or the speech of others.

Table 6 Number of occurrences of code mixed items categorized by functions

Function	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Emphasis or clarification	306	4.0
Jargon	750	9.8
Both	31	0.4
Quotation	25	0.3
Others	6,523	85.4
Total	7,635	100.0

In addition, only 4.0% of the total number of occurrences of code-mixing was used for emphasis or clarification. Some examples are illustrated below:

extra phí sè:t
discount sùan lót
du: læ: take care
thank you kh ɔ:p khun

9.8% was considered jargon. However, the majority of the occurrences of code-mixing were identified as serving neither emphatic/clarificatory functions nor linguistic need functions (jargon). Those items could possibly fall into other functions such as the prestige motive, or the expressive function observed in some earlier studies of code-mixing of English in other languages (Grosjean, 1982; Chen 1996). This type of description was beyond the scope of this study. Yet, it has already explored in another study by the same authors. The study found that the language mixing between Thai and English was motivated by pragmatic reasons such as filling lexical gaps, expediencies, and the principle of linguistic economy as well as by ulterior motives such as satisfying certain psychological needs relating to such as prestige and image making. (Kannaovakun and Gunther, 2002).

Under closer examination, the study revealed that the sports programs tended to use more jargon than other genres (78.7%), followed by academic talk or hard talk programs (10.4%), talk show or variety shows (5.7%), game shows (4.9%), and Thai dramas (0.3%) (see Table 7).

The processes of nativization of English words mixed into Thai discourse were in many ways similar to the processes of nativization that had been reported in other parts of the world (e.g. Shim, 1994; Bobda, 1994). The localized characteristics of English words mixed to Thai-based conversation are reported below. The percentage of occurrences of each feature is shown in Table 8.

    1. Truncation. The English words in the study were truncated to shorter forms (4.0%): com(puter), stu(dio), air(conditioner).

    2. Hybridization. The hybridized words took English words (noun/adjective) and joined them with a a Thai prefix or noun (2.8%), for instance, 'ka:n'-, 'nák'-, 'khwa:m'-. Some examples are as follows: 'ka:nba:lá:n' (= balance), 'nák-kɔ́:p' (= golf player), 'khwa:msinsia' (= sincerity), 'samùt nó:t' (= notebook),, 'thɔ̂:ká:t' (= gas pipeline), 'fi:m krɔ:ŋ sæ:ŋ' (= sun-filtering tape).

    3. Conversion. Conversion refers to a word changing from one class to another (one part of speech to another)(Bobda, 1994). Only 1.3% of the samples observed this feature. Miscellaneous cases of conversion are illustrated below:

Table 7 Relationship between program types and functions of code-mixed items

Program type	Function of code-mixed items					
	Clarification or emphasis	Jargon	Both	Quotation	Others	Total
Drama	8 (2.6%)	2 (0.3%)	-	-	296 (4.5%)	306 (100%)
Talk/variety show	58 (19.0%)	43 (5.7%)	2 (6.5%)	2 (8%)	885 (13.6%)	990 (100%)
Academic/hard talk	102 (33.3%)	78 (10.4%)	2 (6.5%)	-	1,378 (21.1%)	1,560 (100%)
Game	48 (15.7%)	37 (4.9%)	3 (9.6%)	-	1,069 (16.4%)	1,151 (100%)
Sport	90 (29.4%)	590 (78.7%)	24 (77.4%)	23 (92%)	2,895 (44.4%)	3,599 (100%)
Total	306 (100%)	750 (100%)	31 (100%)	25 (100%)	6,523 (100%)	7,606 (100%)

3.1 Noun --> Verb
to success : as in
/ thâː raʊ sáksés/…
= If we *success*…
to action: as in
/raʊ ǽkchân diː/
= We *action* well.

3.2 Verb --> Noun
nominate : as in
/thɔː pen nɔːminèːt/.
= She is *nominate*.
(Note that in Thai there is no article in front of a noun).

3.3 Noun --> Adjective
happiness : as in
/chán rúːsʉ̀k hǽpines/
= I feel *happiness*.

4 Semantic shift. Some English words mixed to Thai conversation with a semantic shift (1.2%). Some examples are as follows:
queue: as in
/miː khiu/
= having an appointment, not available
mouth: /máʊ/
= talk
checkbill: /chék bin/
= bill, please.
act: as in /khîːǽk/
= arrogant
lock: as in /khâʊ lók/
= as expected, as planned

5. Reduplication. Reduplication refers to the repetition of a word consecutively (Bobda, 1994). The category of words which generally undergoes this kind of process is an adjective and the duplication suggests emphasis. The data found only 0.8% of reduplications. Some examples are:
/khǎʊ hót hót/

= He is hot hot.
/chán haî khun friː friː /
= I give you this free free.
/an níː phiaw phiaw /
= This is pure pure.
/phûak khǎʊ bík bík bík/
= They are big big.

6. Word order shift. Another area of nativization of English is a syntactical change or a change in word order. In Thai, the modifier comes after the noun it modifies whereas in English, the modifier comes before. The results showed that when some English compounds were mixed to Thai, the modifiers came right after the nouns they modified (0.7%). Some examples are as follows:

> tour concert = concert tour
> team football = football team
> tapevideo = videotape.

Table 8 Number of occurrences of code-mixing by nativized features

Nativized feature	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Hybridization	210	2.8
Conversion	96	1.3
Semantic shift	88	1.2
Repetition	60	0.8
Word order	57	0.7
Truncation	314	4.0
None of the above	6,810	89.1
Total	7,635	100.0

The majority of the occurrences of code-mixing found in the study did not show that the English items had undergone any lexical changes in order to be assimilated into Thai. In other words, the Thai speakers mixed the English items in their conversation without modifying their original features.

The study showed that 44.3% of the code-mixing speakers were celebrities, 12.8% experts, and 3.5% authorities. 74.0% of the total mixing came from program hosts, and 26.0% from program guests or participants. 77.4% was produced by male speakers and 22.6% by female speakers. The study does not suggest the results in a comparative manner since each speaker was not given the same amount of time for talk. The figures here are meant simply to reflect the demographics of the code-mixing speakers in the study.

Conclusion

This study was to understand the phenomenon of the mix of English with Thai. The data of the study came from the Thai-based conversation in 100 hours of television programs. Code-mixing is a natural impact of language contact. There have been numerous studies of the mix of English with other languages around the world. Thai, like any language, has come in contact with English for over a very long period. Thai-English code-mixing should be systematically observed in order to understand the scope of the influence of English on Thai both in terms of quantity, characteristics of mixing, functions, situations and speakers' profiles as well as the nativized features of English mixed items.

The findings showed that sports programs used code-mixing the most and Thai drama the least. This may reflect the popularity of western sports among Thai audience and its impact on the language used for sports in the Thai language. Furthermore, most of the mixes were loanwords and jargon easy to understand and familiar among Thai sports fans. On the contrary, the target

audience for the Thai drama, most of which were soap operas, was wider than a group of sports fans and consisted of people from all walks of life. The use of Thai was probably the most accessible to the greatest number of audience.

Most of the occurrences of English mixed items were at the level of single word. They were more nouns than verbs, adjectives or other grammatical categories. The result is consistent with the findings in Mustafa and Al-Khatib, 1994; and Yau, 1993. The most obvious explanation could probably be derived from the fact that as a society has to keep pace with the advance of technology, more new objects rather than actions or attributes are created and introduced into our daily life activities. The Thai language also has a constant need for new words for those objects, in part to accommodate technology and other innovations introduced over the past centuries. Using English words as a source for new words is very convenient because much exposure to innovations or new objects is through English books and mass communications and most people in the world understand English words.

As regards the function of the code-mixing, a few number of occurrences of code-mixing were used for emphasis or clarification, but most were not. The findings also revealed that English mixes occurred even when Thai equivalents existed. The evidence suggested that code-mixing served more than a simple utilitarian purpose or a linguistic need for lexical items, but may rather serve expressive functions such as prestige motive.

However, one could wonder whether Thai equivalents could compete with English words used in high-technology fields and in the electronic world. To use the word 'computer,' for example, is better than using a Thai word 'samongkon' or wasting a whole line giving its definition as "an automatic and electronic machine used for solving simple and complicated problems by mathematical procedures". This is the definition appearing in the 1982 Thai Royal Academy. However, using the word 'computer' is more practical because almost everybody in Thailand understands the English word. One cannot deny that there are not good Thai equivalents for "home page" or "e-mail".

The results also demonstrated nativized features of English when mixed into Thai conversation. The process of nativization of the English words into Thai discourse appeared similar to those reported in other parts of the world. From the data, Thai people have proven creative in adapting English into their own needs. It would not be surprising if native speakers of English are baffled by the usages they encounter in Thailand. Although the nativization of English may not be damaging when used to communicate among Thai people, learners or users of English with foreigners should be conscious of the adaptations and avoid using them for effective communication.

Any language is a living organism that is evolving. What we need to do is not to control the evolution of the language, but to avoid abuses. The Thai language has shown the capacity to accept the foreign words it wants and to reject the ones it does not want. Whether the Thai-English code-mixing is the ruination of the Thai language is a

question of great complexity and should be a matter for public debate.

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Appendice

Coding scheme for the analysis of Thai/English code-mixing in Thai-based conversation in television programs

[1]Genre ....

Program title .... Tape no. ....

Coder's name ....

[2]Code-mixed item	[3]Level of mixing	[4]Role	[5]Status	[6]Gender	[7]Function	[8]Grammatical category	[9]Existence in Thai dictionaries	[10]Thai equivalence	[11]Nativized features

Coding Mannual

[1]Genre refers to the type of a program. Use the following numbers for coding:
1   = drama
2   = talk show or variety show
3   = academic talk or hard talk program
4   = game show
5   = sports program

[2]Code-mixed item refers to the mix of English and Thai in conversation. When encountering a code-mixed item, write down the item in the first column.

[3]Level of mixing refers to the English language item mixed in Thai. Use the following numbers for coding:
1   = word
2   = phrase
2   = clause/sentence
3   = abbreviation
4   = expression (i.e. 'hi', 'hello', 'thanks', 'Oh, my god', 'wow!').

[4]Role refers to the role of the speaker of Thai/English code-mixed items. Use these numbers for coding:
1 = program host
2 = guest or program participant

[5]Status refers to the status of the speaker of Thai/English code-mixed items. Use these numbers for coding:
1 = celebrities (referring to famous people in entertainment or media business, i.e. movie stars, singers, models)
2 = experts (including scholars, university faculties, activists, elites, etc.)
3 =   authorities (referring those carrying authoritative roles regarding the topic of the conversation, i.e. government authorities, officials or politicians)
4   = others

[6]Gender refers to the speaker's sex. Use the numbers below for coding:
1   = male
2   = female

[7]Function of code-mixed items refers to the speaker's underlining intention of using the Thai/English code-mixing. Details for coding the functions are described below. Use the following numbers for coding each function.
1   = emphasis or clarification (referring to when a speaker speaks a Thai word followed by an English equivalent or vice versa.
2   = jargon (referring to a technical term used in special fields for example 'cut' in filming, 'backhand' in tennis or other racket sports, 'scoop' in newspapers)
3   = both emphasis/clarification and jargon
4   = quotation (referring to when a speaker quotes Thai/English mixed item from other speakers)
5   = others (when a speaker does not appear to use the mixed item for any of the above functions)

[8]Grammatical category refers to the English grammatical categories. Use the following numbers for coding:
1   = noun
2   = compound noun
3   = verb
4   = adjective
5   = adverb
6   = expressions and others (referring
to
    the expressions such as 'wow!', 'hello', 'hi', 'thanks', or any of the combination from 1 to 5 such as adjective + noun/compound noun, adverb, verb + adjective/adverb, adjective + adverb, noun + verb, and others)

[9]Existence in Thai dictionaries refers to the borrowed words from English. Most of these loanwords have been assimilated into Thai and appeared in many Thai Language dictionaries. Use these numbers for coding:

0 = no (not appearing in the dictionaries)
1 = yes (appearing in the dictionaries)

To code the variable, the coders need to look up whether the mixed codes appear in the following four standard Thai dictionaries:

    The 1982 Thai Royal Academy's Dictionary (6th ed.: 1996)

    The King Bhumibol's Royal Jubilee Thai Dictionary (10th ed. : 1991)

    The Thai Royal Academy's Dictionary for Computer, Revised Edition (5th ed. : 2000)

    The Thai Royal Academy's Dictionary for Information Science (1st ed. : 1999)

[10]Thai equivalent refers to the equivalent meaning of the English mix in Thai. Use these numbers:

0 = no (without any equivalent)
1 = yes (with Thai equivalent)

The coders look up the meaning of the English mix in a widely used dictionary for Thai students, *New Model English-Thai Dictionary* compiled by So Sethaputra to determine whether the mixed code has any equivalent meaning in Thai. Only precise meanings in Thai were accepted as equivalents. Paraphrasing was disregarded.

[11]Nativized features of code-mixed items refer the characteristics described below. Use the following numbers for coding:

1 = hybridization (occurring when a speaker joins an English word with a Thai word or a prefix: i.e. 'khan'-, 'nak'-, 'khwam'- as in 'khanbalance', 'nakgolf', 'khwamsincere')

2 = conversion (occurring when an English mixed item changes its original part of speech in English to another: i.e. use a noun 'success' as a verb, or a verb 'nominate' as a noun)

3 = semantic shift (occurring when an English item mixed to Thai carries a new meaning: 'mouth' = 'talk')

4 = reduplication (referring to the repetition of an English word consecutively: 'free free', 'pure pure')

5 = word order shift (referring to the use of an English compound noun with a shift in word order, that is, a modifier comes after the noun it modifies: i.e. 'tour concert' *not* 'concert tour,' or 'team football' *not* 'football team')

6 = truncation (occurring when an English item is cut into a shorter form such as 'com' for 'computer' or 'stu' for 'studio')

Proper names such as product brand names, companies, organizations or places were not considered code-mixing. Thus, they were omitted from the coding