



## Grammatical Features and Glocalization of English in Signage on *Koh Lipe, Satun, Thailand*

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### Abstract

Southern Thailand is full of beach tourist attractions in which the linguistic landscape has English as a major medium of text in facilitating foreigners. This is evident on a well-known island called ‘Koh Lipe’ in *Satun* province where signage displays outstanding textual characteristics in English that interact with other local and foreign languages, resulting in a multilingual phenomenon that affects the grammatical construction of English. Thus, this study aims to analyze the grammatical features of English in the signage on *Koh Lipe*. Moreover, it discusses a reflection of the features on the glocalization of English. This study employed 370 photographed signs taken along the three popular beaches on the island. Based on the *Linguistic Landscape*, *Multilingualism*, and *World Englishes* theoretical frameworks, an analysis of the data revealed that the phrasal and sentential structures of the signage are distinctively complex. Moreover, they reflect glocalized English as they are linguistically and communicatively formed in the tourism context of the Deep South of Thailand.

**Keywords:** *English, Grammar, Features, Glocalization, Signage, Linguistic Landscape, Koh Lipe*

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1 Background and Rationale

In Thailand’s Deep South, only *Satun* province is located in the Andaman Sea, and it is distinctive in that its magnificent resort island ‘*Koh Lipe*’ is full of international tourists. The majority of them were Malaysians while others were from Germany, the United Kingdom, and Singapore, respectively (Worrachaddejchai, 2019). This island, home to sea gypsy people ‘*Urak Lawoi*’ who speak local Malay, becomes a multilingual community where English is mainly used to accommodate foreign tourists. Moreover, top-down and bottom-up signage there is written in English, Thai, and other languages, so English comes into contact with diverse languages in the linguistic landscape (LL) of the island. In this regard, Landry, and Bourhis (1997) state that “linguistic landscape is concerned with the issue of language in the written form in the public sphere. It is the language of public road signs, advertising billboard.” (p.25). These LL elements in English are found on *Koh Lipe*, and their grammatical structure is to be pointed out.

Grammatical units contribute to signage texture in which contents are conveyed to the readers. However, a few studies emphasize English grammar in the signage in Thailand. This is evident in Huebner’s (2006) LL work in Bangkok that the Thai-English bilingual signs present the patterns of script, lexicon, and syntax in Thai and English. Furthermore, Sutthinaraphan’s (2016) study of advertising signs on the BTS Sky train, Bangkok, shows the patterns of English-Thai, reflecting code-mixing. Moreover, Thongtong’s (2016) research on the signs along *Nimmanhemmin Road*, Chiang Mai, revealed hybrid syntactic structures and speech acts. Additionally, Vivas-Peraza’s (2020) work about the signs in *Hatyai, Songkhla* showed the use of Thai and English in redundancy and inflection without a verb, among others. Overall, these LL studies present English contact with Thai due to the globalization of English.

The concept of ‘Glocalization of English’, in which ‘global’ and ‘local’ aspects of English are linked together, seems to appear in a few LL studies in Thailand while it is more common in other countries. For instance, Manan, David, Dumanig, and Channa (2017) conducted research in Pakistan where the signs and the business owners’ interview were examined with regard to glocalized English as global English meets the local entrepreneurs’ needs. Furthermore, Peng, Mansor, Ang, and Mohd Kasim (2021) study on Guangzhou, China,

showed that local products and restaurants were advertised in English signs with the mixing of Chinese Mandarin to serve the communicative needs of the local and foreign customers. Additionally, Alomoush's (2019) study in Jordan indicated English as a language of glocalization in the commercial signs for the marketplace and local brands in which it interfaces Arabic. Besides, Sharafutdinov's (2018) work in Kazan, the capital of Tatarstan, Russia, revealed the grammatical interference of the local language in English signage, depicting the locals' creativity of Anglicizing and glocalizing local language forms to use English. This research, thus, attempts to bridge the gap by studying grammatical features of English in the signage on *Koh Lipe*, and their reflection of glocalization in the tourism context of southern Thailand. This study is significant in that the analysis of the grammatical units in the signage on this island can mirror southern Thai identities of English influenced by British and American English that meets other languages in Thai society. The sign writers convey meaningful messages mainly in English to the readers, so the English grammatical elements in the signage on *Koh Lipe* can be beneficial to the visitors who will understand a linguistic phenomenon of this multilingual landscape, leading to their communicative use of English on this island globally and locally.

## 1.2 Literature Review

### 1.2.1 Theoretical framework

Key scholars' theoretical foundations in linguistic landscape (LL), multilingualism, and World Englishes were adopted as a guiding framework of this study. In LL, Spolsky, and Cooper (1991, as cited in Spolsky, 2009) indicated that signs are written in particular languages according to their orthography, and they contain spelling errors if created in foreign languages. According to Huebner (2006), LL researchers can analyze lexical and syntactic patterns of Thai and English scripts in the signage. The syntactic patterns are parallel structure, ellipsis and substitution, incomplete sentences, and phrases. Besides, Backhaus (2007) identified the criteria for analyzing multilingual public signs in Tokyo such as "homophonic is a direct translation or transliteration of all texts in every language that appears on the signs" (p.91). Additionally, Shohamy, and Gorter (2009) stated that language interaction in the cyber space can lead to a linguistic revolution that "allows mixtures of languages, new linguistic rules, new spellings, new syntax,..." (p.3). As for multilingualism, Demska (2019) emphasized 'hybridity' to study the LL in Ukraine. In microtext, hybridization can cause grammatical errors due to the influence of Russian grammar and orthography in English signage. For microtext, 'polyphony' accords with unconscious hybridity. In light of World Englishes, Buckingham (2015) examined structural features in 1,600 commercial signs in Oman using Schneider's (2003) nativization of English. The analysis revealed that certain syntactic features were used for certain purposes, for instance, noun phrase was commonly used to announce service. Moreover, the 'glocalization of English' is based on the mixing of 'global' and 'local' (aspects of English) in the glocalization theory by Robertson (1995) as a business strategy for local products in Japan for the global market. This theory underlines cultural homogenization of a society that may be replaced by cultural heterogenization because of the features of multilingualism and multiculturalism constructed by the locals. According to Friedman (1999, as cited in Oanh, 2012), glocalization of English involves the way English is assimilated into the languages and cultures of non-native speakers through language use and grammar such as code-switching. According to Gorter (2006, as cited in Bolton, 2012), glocalized English concerns linguistic and cultural mixing regarding a bilingual phenomenon where English meets other local languages. Moreover, Sharifian (2016) stressed cultural conceptualization of glocal English of non-native speakers, which are encoded through Nativization of English, Englishization, and Blending of Cultural Conceptualization. These theoretical underpinnings are adopted as the theoretical framework for interpreting grammatical features and glocalization of English in linguistic landscape of the present study.

### 1.2.2 Adapted grammatical categories

The adapted grammatical categories taken from scholarly papers consist of phrase and sentence levels. With regard to phrase, there are four types of phrases. Firstly, noun phrases refer to a group of nouns acting as nouns (Oxford Learner's Dictionary, 2023). Secondly, verb phrases are phrases in which verbs act as the head. Thirdly, adjective phrases involve adjectives that function as the head (Cambridge Dictionary, 2023a). The noun phrases, verb phrases, and adjective phrases possess their pre- and post-modifications. Pre-modification in English consists of six sub-types: (i) general adjectives, (ii) *ed*-participial modifiers, (iii) multiple modifiers, (iv) coordinated modifiers (Biber et al., 1999, as cited in Mutiara, 2019; Greenbaum, & Nelson, 2002; Quirk,

Greenbaum, Leech, & Startvik, 1972), (v) determiners, and (vi) pronominal (Ballard, 2007). Post-modification in English is divided into three sub-types according to Biber et al. (1999) and Greenbaum (1996, as cited in Mutiara, 2019), namely prepositional phrases, appositives, and non-finite post-modifying clauses. Moreover, phrase errors are based on the works on spelling errors by Hoque (2016); grammatical orders, word order, and inappropriate lexical choices in translation by Al-Athwary (2014); ‘mis-ordering’ by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982, as cited in Ma'mun, 2016); and overgeneralization by Richards (2022). Fourthly, hybrid phrases are phrasal forms, in which pre-or post-modifiers of English head nouns, verbs, adjectives, and prepositions are grounded in non-English or vice versa. Finally, Thai English phrases result from English with the influence of Thai structure.

Sentences refer to a set of words containing at least a verb or predication, functioning as a statement, negation, interrogation, and exclamation (Cambridge Dictionary, 2023b). Moreover, omission is a grammatical absence of certain elements in sentences, but it is necessary in advertising discourses. Because of limited space on signs, less important sentences can be simplified and omitted, and only the most crucial ones are shown (Liz, 2011). Furthermore, reduction involves simplification in which grammatical points are omitted, and a newer and much shorter sentence is formed regarding the tense system, but the same meaning of the created sentence remains (Wong, 1983, as cited in Bennui, 2017). In addition, an interplay between omission and reduction refers to their intermingled use. Next, overgeneralization concerns the overuse and misuse of English grammar by interlanguage users (Wong, 1983). In addition, literal translation is the way English expressions are directly translated from their Thai originals. Adapted translation involves English sentences which are grammatically adjusted from their Thai versions. Last, code-mixing takes place at the intra-sentential level in which morphemes, words, phrases, and clauses from two different grammars are mixed within the same sentence and the same speech event. Meanwhile, code switching occurs at the inter-sentential level in which words, phrases and sentences from at least two codes are embedded within the same speech event and across sentence boundaries. Both strategies do not cover lexical borrowing (Tay, 1989). These categories serve as a guiding framework to analyze the grammatical features of the signage on *Koh Lipe*.

## 2. Objectives

1. To examine the English grammatical features used in the signage on *Koh Lipe, Satun*.
2. To discuss the extent to which those features reflect glocalised English in the southern Thailand.

## 3. Materials and Methods

*Koh Lipe* is located in *Koh Sarai* Sub-district, *Muang* District, *Satun* Province. It consists of two villages (*Ban Koh Lipe* and *Ban Lipe Pattana*) (Ratchakitchanubeksa, 2019). It is about 62 kilometers far from *Pak Bara* pier in *Satun* Province. Its area is approximately three-square kilometers (Emagravel, 2021). There are around 1,300 locals on this island; however, there are nearly 4,000-5,000 people who are laborers, entrepreneurs, local officers, and tourists (Rawichaiwat, 2018). Three popular beaches on this island, namely Pattaya Beach, Sunrise Beach and Sunset Beach (Emagravel, 2021) were purposely chosen as key data source for this study were purposely chosen as key data source

While this study was conducted, there were two main types of signs on the island: top-down and bottom-up ones (Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara, & Trumper-Hecht, 2006). The former was of local administrative organizations and public sectors such as schools. The latter belonged to private sectors, for instance, resorts and restaurants. On each sign, the text conveys grammatical forms to enrich the LL of the three beaches. The linguistic features shown on these signs were collected as data of this study by way of photographing

For instruments, firstly, a *realme C3* smartphone with 4000x3000 pixels was used to photograph the signs. Secondly, field notes were taken by the researcher to make notes on the particular features of the signs after the photographing process. Finally, the computer files of the Microsoft Word program were prepared by the researcher to keep and display the pictures of the signs in each category for further analysis.

To collect the data, the researcher firstly asked permission from the Chief Administrator of *Koh Sarai* Sub-district Administrative Organization, *Satun* and the village headmen of *Koh Lipe* to photograph signs. Then, the researcher carried out a linguistic fieldwork which lasted for two days from April 3-4, 2021. During the linguistic fieldwork, the researcher was assisted by the village headmen, the villagers in the adjacent areas along the beaches, the resort staff, vendors, and taxi drivers. These people were helpful to give the researcher information

of the area and direct the way to access the beaches and their surrounding places. Then, all the photos of the signs were transferred into the computer files for data analysis.

In analyzing data, the researcher carefully studied all the pictures of the signs in the computer files and categorized them into three types: monolingual (only English and/or Romanized texts), bilingual (English and the other language), and multilingual (English and two other languages). As there were many signs in Thai, English, and Chinese, the typing process was assisted by the researcher's assistant, a previous student who has background knowledge in Chinese. This data categorization was coded and tabulated. The files of the monolingual, bilingual, multilingual signage were coded with letters 'M', 'B', and 'T', respectively. Table 1 shows the classification of signage on *Koh Lipe*.

**Table 1** Classification of signage on *Koh Lipe*

Type of sign	Monolingual signs	Bilingual signs	Multilingual signs
Number	173	160	37
Percentage	46.76 %	43.24%	10%
<b>Total</b>		<b>370</b>	

According to Table 1, the monolingual signs had the highest number, followed by the bilingual signs whereas the multilingual signs were the least in number.

Next, the proposed categories were validated through a pilot study by the researcher's trial analysis of some parts of the collected data. It was found that the proposed categories yielded positive results; the analyzed linguistic formation generated the proposed sub-grammatical categories. That is, the sub-category 'code-mixing and code-switching' was added, so the related literature was sought to support the analysis of this additional one. Next, the researcher qualitatively analyzed grammatical units according to the adapted categories and discussed them with the previous studies and the study's guiding theoretical framework. Finally, the researcher interpreted the findings of grammatical features with the theories and previous studies to discuss their reflection of glocalised English in the southern Thai context.

Overall, this study was designed as both a quantitative and qualitative study. However, the quantitative study was utilized only in the classification of the collected signage as seen in the number and percentage of the monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual signs. Moreover, the frequency of phrases and sentences found in the collected signage was not the primary focus of this study. This is a limitation, as some of the 370 signs provided a variety of phrases and sentences, yet a corpus study was not carried out. In other words, the focus was more on the qualitative aspect in which a variety of textual formations of grammatical units in the signage were analyzed and discussed, using textual analysis method, as it best suits an analysis of linguistic characteristics or grammatical features.

#### 4. Results and Discussion

The results showed only phrases and sentences according to the adapted categories; the clauses were not included in the study's results.

##### 4.1 Phrases

Phrases found in the collected signage were formed in English phrases, hybrid phrases, and Thai English phrases. English phrases appeared as noun phrases (NPs), verb phrases (VPs), adjective phrases (APs), and errors. Prepositional phrases (PPs) and adverbial phrases (AdvPs) were not found, however.

NPs were divided into *those without translation*, *with translation*, *transliteration*, and *both translation and transliteration*. Single NPs can be categorized into pre-modification, post-modification, and pre-post modification. The data analysis showed that the former two types corresponded to the adapted categories while the last one was in line with Pitaktrairat, Yodchim, and Lieungnapar (2021) work. The pre-modification findings were grouped into six sub-types according to the adapted categories. First of all, *general adjectives* were found to accord with the pattern of 'adjective modifier + head noun'. Figure 1 illustrates this first sub-type.



Figure 1 M52

In Figure 1, the noun ‘bar’ was pre-modified by the adjective ‘easy’ to highlight a relaxing feeling. Other examples included ‘happy life’ (B34) and ‘good friend’ (M106). Additionally, *ed-participial adjectives* were used in this form: “participial adjective modifier + head noun(s)”. For example, ‘mixed smoothies’ (M51) showed that the participial adjective ‘mixed’ pre-modified the noun ‘smoothies’. Next, *multiple modifiers* were found to be used in two patterns – “adjective + adjective modifiers + head noun(s)” and “adjective + noun modifiers + head noun(s)”.



Figure 2 M149

In Figure 2, the NP ‘free American breakfast’ (M149) aligned with the first pattern. The head noun ‘breakfast’ was pre-modified by a string of adjectives ‘free’ and ‘American’.

Moreover, the phrase ‘Thai beach travellers’ (M135) reflected the second pattern. The plural noun ‘travellers’ was pre-modified by a set of adjective and noun – Thai and beach. In addition, Figure 3 illustrates the use of *determiners* to modify noun.



Figure 3 M48

In Figure 3, the article ‘the’ was positioned in front of the noun ‘street’ to modify it. In the phrase ‘my yellow duck’, a shop name (M115), the head noun was pre-modified by a possessive determiner (my) and an adjective (yellow). *Coordinated pre-modifiers* involve the way NPs are pre-modified by coordinating conjunctions. This is illustrated in the following text.



Figure 4 M08

In Figure 4, the NP ‘Thai & Western food’ was structured in the following pattern: “*adjective + coordinating conjunction + adjective + head noun*”. Here, the symbol ‘ampersand (&’) combined the two adjectives ‘Thai and Western’ as pre-modifiers to the head noun ‘food’. Moreover, the NP ‘Bar & Restaurant’ was similarly constructed as “*noun(s) + coordinating conjunction + head noun(s)*”.

*Pronominal modifier* was found to be adapted from Ballard’s (2007) work. ‘Pronominal’ concerns particular adjectives “occurring in place of a noun” (p.332). The head noun after this adjective is normally left out.



Figure 5 M19

In Figure 5, the phrase ‘the green’ was similar to an AP. However, the linguistic and visual features of the sign showed that it was a NP, which can be written in full as ‘The Green Tree’. The head noun ‘tree’ was left out; the pronominal (an adjective in the noun) ‘green’ came after the determiner ‘the’ to fulfil the NP structure. If the full form is considered, the adjective ‘green’ pre-modifies the head ‘tree’. The shorter form ‘The Green’ can present a more strategic advertising discourse towards the customers, however.

On the other hand, the post-modification findings can be classified into three types of the adapted categories. Firstly, *PPs* as post-modifiers appeared in ‘snorkeling equipment for rent’ (M101); the compound noun ‘snorkeling equipment’ was post-modified by the PP ‘for rent’. Secondly, *appositives* provided complex structure as shown below.



Figure 6 M44

Based on Figure 6, the phrase ‘Seventh Boutique Hotel’ was indirectly relevant to the appositive NP. The head noun appeared in the largest fonts and on the first line of the sign to attract customers. Then, the post-modifier located in the head noun could be formed in a full appositive NP – “Seventh, a Boutique Hotel”; a comma and an article were omitted because of the advertising discourse. This phrase could additionally be modified; its post-modification could be italicized as ‘Seventh *Boutique Hotel*’. The head noun created from an adjective of an ordinal number was post-modified by the compound noun ‘boutique hotel’. The other similar examples were “Zodiac See Sun Resort” (M30) and “Sea To Moon Resort & Restaurant” (M42).

Thirdly, non-finite post-modifying clauses reflected the *ed*-clause through the NP ‘towels included’ (B01). This description of the room suits well with the grammar style of advertising; the NP ‘towels’ was modified by the clause ‘which are included’. That is, ‘which are’ was left out, so this NP became ‘towels included’.

The pre-post modifications were found to be used in four patterns. The first pattern, i.e., “*pre-modifier + head noun + post-modifier (NP)*”, was seen in ‘The Key Boutique Hotel’ (M37) (The Key, (a) Boutique Hotel). The head ‘key’ was pre-modified by the determiner ‘the’ and post-modified by the compound noun ‘boutique hotel’. The second pattern, i.e., “*pre-modifier + head noun + post-modifier (PP)*”, was displayed below.



Figure 7 M105

In Figure 7, the head noun ‘way’ was pre-modified by the demonstrative pronoun ‘this’ (Ballard, 2007) and post-modified by the PP ‘to the beach’.

In the phrase ‘top quality equipment in good condition’ (M152), the adjective ‘top’ pre-modified ‘quality equipment’, which was post-modified by the PP ‘in good condition’. The third pattern, i.e., “*pre-modifier + head noun + post-modifier (AP)*”, was illustrated in ‘Thai beach travelers.com’ (M96). The head noun ‘beach travelers’ was pre-modified by the adjective ‘Thai’. Meanwhile, the post-modifier ‘.com’ was the dotcom at the end of the URL standing for commercial (Khartit, 2021), an AP post-modifying the head of a compound noun ‘beach travellers’. The final pattern, i.e., “*pre-modifier + head noun + post-modifier (AdvP)*”, was found in ‘special promotion here!’ (M140). The adjective ‘special’ pre-modified the head noun ‘promotion’ which was post-modified by the AP ‘here’ using an exclamation mark ‘!’ as an advertising strategy.

The NPs with translation findings were divided into those with Thai translation, Chinese translation, and bi/multilingual translation in which Thai and Chinese play roles. An instance is illustrated below.



Figure 8 T24

In Figure 8, the Thai NPs translated in English and Chinese have only pre-modification. In English, it was “Marine Resources Conservation and Tourism Enhancement Multimedia Exhibition”. Two compound nouns ‘marine resources convention’ and ‘tourism enhancement multimedia exhibition’ were combined by the coordinating conjunction ‘and’.

NPs with translation and transliteration were found in “SMAC คลินิกเวชกรรมเซาเทิร์นอันดามัน Southern Andaman Medical Clinic” (T36). The words ‘clinic’, ‘southern’, and ‘Andaman’ were transliterated while ‘medical’ was translated. The head noun ‘clinic’ was pre-modified by a set of multiple modifiers – an abbreviation (SAMC), an adjective (southern), a proper noun (Andaman), and an adjective (medical), respectively.

Verb phrases appeared in ‘chill out’ (M17). It was used as a persuasive language form found in the walking street sign on *Koh Lipe*, so it was not an imperative sentence. This VP was based on the structure that ‘a primary auxiliary’ (do) was embedded in the phrasal verb or the multi-word verb ‘chill out’ (Ballard, 2007). Another outstanding instance is shown below.



Figure 9 B10

In Figure 9, the VP ‘selling ice’ seems to be directly linked to the auxiliary structure from a reduced sentence (*We are selling ice*). The VP structure should be “are selling ice”. The progressive aspect of the lexical verb ‘sell’ was pre-modified by the primary auxiliary ‘are’, and this VP was followed by the NP ‘ice’.

Adjective phrases appeared in “Tonight Live ..... Vs..... Time.....” (M99). This information was used to invite the customers of this restaurant to watch a live football match of English premier leagues which are usually broadcast worldwide. For the AP, only ‘tonight live’ was relevant. It also had a distributive function. The adjective ‘live’ is the head which was pre-modified by the adverb ‘tonight’.

The findings pertaining to errors in NPs were categorized into four types. Firstly, the phrase ‘Long *Tall* Boat for Rent’ (M101) illustrated incorrect spelling of the word ‘tail’ and an omission of a hyphen; the correct phrase should be ‘long-*tail* boat for rent’. Secondly, the error related to translation errors as shown below.



Figure 10 T19

In Figure 10, the phrase ‘Good to Declare’ was incorrectly translated from its Thai original. The correct English translation should be ‘Declaration of Goods’.

Thirdly, mis-ordering was seen in ‘Menu Top Hit’ (T22) which was written by using the Thai language grammar. In fact, the head noun should be placed at the final position – ‘Top Hit Menu’. Finally, overgeneralization was found in ‘Thai ice tea’ (B112). The noun ‘ice’ was transformed into participle forms; the correct one should be ‘Thai iced tea’.

Hybrid phrases were found in hybrid NPs and hybrid PPs only. Hybrid PPs comprised three sub-types. Firstly, *hybrid NPs which are not translated into Thai* cover five aspects: determiners, general modifiers, coordinated modifiers, participles, and the other type (PP). For instance, the phrase ‘The Chic *Lipe*’ (M155) indicated a Romanized local Malay loan in Thai, ‘Lipe’, was pre-modified by a sequence of a determiner ‘The’ and a noun ‘Chic’. For the phrase ‘Plain *Roti*’ (B52), the Hindi/Urdu noun of the Indian food ‘*roti*’ was pre-modified by the general adjective in English ‘plain’. Next, the phrase ‘*Daeng* Kitchen & Resort @ *Lipe*, *Satun*’ (M164) with *coordinated modifiers* was discussed below.





Figure 11 M164

Figure 11 shows the symbol ‘ampersand’ (and) as a pre-modifier and ‘@’ (at) as a post-modifier. The Thai-English hybrid compound noun ‘*Daeng Kitchen*’ and the English noun ‘Resort’ were connected. Further, the hybrid head, ‘*Daeng Kitchen*’, was post-modified by the hybrid PP ‘at Lipe, Satun’; the @ sign meaning the preposition ‘at’ was complemented by the local Malay nouns of toponyms ‘*Lipe*’ and ‘*Satun*’.

The phrase ‘Home Made *Gelato*’ (M46) also showed that an Italian head noun, an Italian-styled ice-cream, was pre-modified by an ‘ed’ participle acting as AP. This phrase ‘home-made’ can also be a compound adjective.

Secondly, *hybrid NPs with transliteration and translation* comprised NPs with only transliteration and those with translation and transliteration. An example is provided below.



Figure 12 B46

According to Figure 12, the phrase “*Long Bay Resort Koh Lipe Satun*” was hybridized because of a Thai-local Malay phrase, ‘*Koh Lipe Satun*’, that should be written as ‘Koh Lipe, Satun’. This information shows that the head NP ‘Long Bay Resort’ acted as a PP ‘in Koh Lipe, Satun’, but the preposition was removed. This hybrid phrase in transliteration post-modifies the NP ‘Long Bay Resort’; the head ‘resort’ was pre-modified by the NP ‘Long Bay’.

Finally, *hybrid NPs with translation and transliteration* refer to those in which grammatical units are translated and transliterated from Thai to English and another language, specifically Chinese. This is illustrated below.



Figure 13 T34

In Figure 13, the hybrid NPs “*ผัดไทยกุ้งสด* 鲜虾炒河粉 *Pad Thai with shrimp*” and “*ข้าวผัดปู* 蟹肉炒饭 *Fried Rice with crab*” (T34) showed that the Thai proper noun ‘Pad Thai’ was post-modified by the PP ‘with shrimp’. This post-modifier showed that the preposition ‘with’ preceded the noun ‘shrimp’. As the Thai post-modifier was ‘*kung-sod*’, the correct English version should be ‘fresh shrimp’.

*Hybrid NPs with errors* were observed in the following text.



Figure 14 B82

In Figure 14, the phrase “Koh Lipe Tambon Health Promoting Hospital Koh Sa Rai Muang District, Satun” was wrongly translated because of mis-ordering and misuse of a Romanized Thai NP. The correct one should be “*Tambon Health Promoting Hospital, Koh Lipe Village, Koh Sarai Sub-district, Muang District, Satun Province*” that was long and punctuated by commas.

Hybrid PPs involve those non-English NPs used in English PPs. Only one sign with the hybrid PPs was found.



Figure 15 M150

In Figure 15, the hybrid PPs are shown in the timetable; that is, “From Lipe-Tarutao..., from Lipe-Pakbara..., from Lipe-Bulone..., from Lipe-Kradan..., from Lipe-Koh Mook..., from Lipe-Koh Ngai, from Lipe-Koh Lanta,...” The preposition ‘to’ was reduced; the use of hyphen instead of ‘to’ signified a destination. The preposition ‘from’ was complemented by mostly local Malay compound nouns. This excludes the phrases “Lipe-Koh Mook, Lipe-Koh Ngai, Lipe-Koh Lanta,...” which were categorized into a hybrid between the local Malay and Thai.

Thai English phrases are used because the local sign writers’ thought patterns and cultural perceptions affect their written English expressions. These phrases comprised Tenglish and creative Thai English. *Tenglish phrases* involve colloquial Thai English, but they can be considered ‘communicative and useful English’ as an advertising strategy in LL. The linguistic messages in the signs with *Tenglish* are understandable to customers. This is evident in the following text.



Figure 16 B12

In Figure 16, the phrases “Milo/Ovaltine Hot and Milo/Ovaltine Iced” were translated from Thai. In fact, the adjectives ‘hot’ and ‘iced’ should be located in front of the head noun; that is, the standard English NPs of these beverage menus should be “Hot Milo/Ovaltine, and Iced Milo/Ovaltine”. Similarly, the VP ‘add topping’ was directly transferred from the Thai phrase as the English term ‘topping’ is often used in Thai communication. The Standard English phrase with a gerund form should be “Adding the topping”.

*Creative Thai English phrases* seem to fit the notion of innovative Thai English because of correct or acceptable morpho-grammar elements in writing or translation. These phrases reflect Thai cultural semantic features of English that differ from the Anglophone culture of Standard English and can only be interpreted from a Thai perspective.



Figure 17 B43

According to Figure 17, the phrase ‘HER ROYAL HIGHNESS PRINCESS MAHA CHAKRI SIRINDHORN’S BUILDING’ was correctly translated. However, this NP reflected a Thai cultural and monarchical norm of English in which Pali-Sanskrit terms and the most formal form for a royal family title were used.

Moreover, ‘Thai Thai Restaurant’ (T18, T35) seems not to be correct due to the reduplicating phrases ‘Thai Thai’ which are not commonly observed in English grammar. Nevertheless, it is semantically based on the Thai spoken expression, ‘Thai-styled food’. Many Thais often informally say ‘food in a Thai-Thai style’.

#### 4.2 Sentences

The sentence findings were consistent with seven adapted categories. The complete sentences were found to serve the following functions: declaration, imperative (command), exclamation and interrogative (interrogation). Declaration is evident in the following text.



Figure 18 B157

In Figure 18, the sentence “We are just No.1.in everything” which is indeed based on “We are No.1 in everything we do” seems to convince the sign readers to rely on this speedboat service due to the key formation ‘No. 1 in everything’. Similarly, the sentence “We’re the best... thank you’ (M93) at the end of the sign of the nail salon could be interpreted as follows: ‘We (a)re the best’ was to inform the act of guaranteeing a good quality and service here and ‘thank you’ was to express gratitude to the customer who comes to use the services.

Imperatives start with ‘infinitive ‘without to verbs or simple verbs that can be followed by complements such as “Close the door’ (Ballard, 2007). An example is shown below.



Figure 19 T20

Figure 19 displays a strong imperative sentence translated from Thai into English and Chinese “กระแสน้ำแรงอันตราย BEWARE OF DANGEROUS RIP CURRENTS 危险暗流指示牌...” The use of the verb ‘beware’ and the adjective ‘dangerous’ conveyed the warning function of this sign.

The findings of this study show that exclamatory sentences do not start with wh-words. According to Aleksandrova, Korableva, and Kharkovskaya (2020), exclamatory sentences in advertisements provide specific moods of messages and imply “the call to use the advertised items in a more abrupt...” (p.81). Moreover, they require narrative sentences to support the exclamatory expression. An example of exclamatory sentence is illustrated below.



Figure 20 M121

In Figure 20, the sentence, “YOU CAN FIND US IN 3 DIFFERENT PLACES ON KOH LIPE!”, uses an exclamation mark (!). Another is the use of supporting narrative sentences “FORRA DIVE RESORT@SUNRISE BEACH (CLOSE TO THE SCHOOL AND HOSPITAL) FORRA DIVE RESORT@PATTAYA BEACH (WEST SIDE) FORRA DIVE@WALKING STREET”. Overall, the sentence is based on the statement “You can find us...” However, its special mood appeared in the use of the VP “find us in three different places on Koh Lipe” to convince the readers to stay at the resorts surrounding the island.

Interrogatives were seen in “Are you ting? tong” (M163) although the question mark is wrongly placed because of its stylistic purpose for advertising the bar.

Additionally, there were 13 types of omission found in the collected signs: expletives, copula, subjects and verbs, main verbs and prepositions, suffix ‘s’ for a main verb, a verb and its partial object complement, an article, coordinating conjunctions, a preposition, a suffix ‘s’ and a preposition, a present perfect verb form, and an object complement and a preposition. Some examples of the omission are described in detail here. First of all, English expletives were seen through the forms ‘It is’ and ‘There (is/are)’. The sentence ‘Open from 10.00 a.m. – 23 p.m.’ (M183) has no expletive form. It should fully be written as ‘It is open from...’; the form ‘It is’ was omitted. The remaining ‘open from...’ is shorter. Also, the absence of the copular *be* does not result in a change of the complement of the sentence as shown in the picture below.



Figure 21 M119

From the expression ‘Rooms (are) Available’ (M100) in Figure 21, the copular *be* ‘are’ was omitted as the adjective ‘available’ was more useful for the customers.

Next, subjects and verbs can be omitted in advertising at times. This can be seen in “Welcome to Benny’s on the beach” (M92) which showed the deletion of a subject (you) and a verb ‘be’ (are) - “(You are) welcome to Benny’s on the beach” (M92). The remaining part was a complement called ‘APs’ which are commonly used to invite the customers to use the service of the place. Besides, the preposition “of” was omitted in the expression “Beware Jellyfish *Obor-Obor* 海蜇 ระวังแมงกะพรุน” (T26). This Thai phrase was translated into Malay and Chinese respectively, in which a preposition is not needed. However, this English expression in fact needs the preposition ‘of’ to make the phrasal verb ‘Beware of’ – (‘Beware of Jellyfish’) grammatically correct.

The finding in type of reduction is based on the simplification and deletion to result in elliptical sentences in advertising signs as illustrated below.

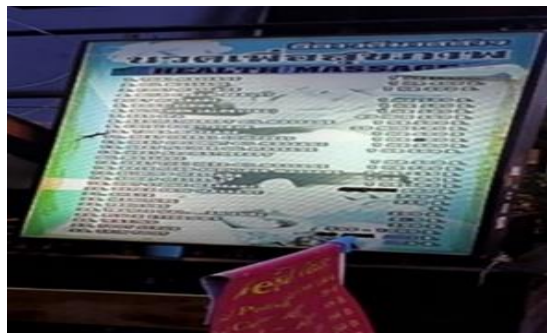


Figure 22 B105

In Figure 22, the reduction involves grammatical removal. The expression “THAI MASSAGE 1HR 300 B” was reduced from ‘THAI MASSAGE *costs* 300 Baht *per hour*’. The subject ‘Thai Massage’ does not have the main verb ‘cost(s)’, but its complement ‘300B’ was kept. Then, the PP ‘per (1) hour’ showed the preposition ‘per’ was missing, and the NP ‘(1) hour’ was omitted before the price ‘300 B’ which was shortened from ‘Baht’. This reduced sentence has structured as such due to the influence of Thai grammar.

An interplay between omission and reduction is illustrated in the following figure.



Figure 23 M104

According to Figure 23, the expression “Room (provides) air condition(er), hot shower, hair dryer, (and) safety box. Mobile (phone number) is...” displays an omission of the main verb ‘provides’ and the coordinating conjunction ‘and’. The object NPs ‘air condition’ and ‘mobile’ showed their reduced forms – (‘air-conditioner and mobile *phone number*’).

Overgeneralization involves overuse and misuse of grammar in sentences. For instance, the sentence “Zanom Sunrise OPEN Restaurant OPEN 7.00 AM To 9.30 PM” (M173) has an error of subject-verb agreement. The verb ‘open’ does not have the suffix ‘s’ to agree with the singular pronoun; the correct one is ‘Zanom Sunrise OPENS Restaurant OPENS’. Another example of translation errors is shown below.



Figure 24 B97

Based on Figure 24, the subject of the English translated sentence was absent, and the Thai English word ‘seven eleven’ was used. The main verb was kept, but English text was not grammatically translated. Moreover, the wrong word-order was found. The correct one should be “Tasneem’s Shop has moved to a place that is 30 meters from the 7-eleven convenience store at the intersection”.

Literal and adapted translations appear in the following examples.



Figure 25 M122

Figure 25 presents Thai word order. In Thai, the measurement unit in the abbreviation ‘Kg’ is normally mentioned before the price. The expression “Receive laundry กิโล 60 บาท sixty baht/kg” (B115) seems to be literally translated from Thai ‘รับ ซักผ้า’. The verb ‘Receive’ paralleled the Thai word ‘Rab’, and the noun ‘laundry’ was equivalent to ‘Sakpa’. Only the phrase ‘Sixty baht/kg’ used the correct word order in English.

Moreover, the sentences “หิวไหม เรามีบริการส่งฟรี โทร/call. 099...Hungry? Call us for free delivery!” (B136) showed an omission of the subject and a copula *be*. The correct sentence should be “Are you hungry?” However, only the adjective ‘hungry’ and the question mark (?) were used. The sentence “call us for free delivery!” does not equivalently fit its Thai version. The correct translation should be “We have a free delivery service”, but the subject and verb ‘we have’ /Rao Mee/ were changed or adapted into ‘call us’. In addition, the noun ‘service’ was omitted as the key word ‘delivery’ was more important.

The findings concerning code-switching and code-mixing are illustrated below.



Figure 26 B81

In Figure 26, the four sentences in Thai started with the four English words – (Face, Arm, Speech, and Time). This code-mixing highlights the key words detailed by Thai phrases of certain symptoms of ‘Stroke’. Another example is “Are You Ting?Tong” (M163). The mixing of the Romanized Thai adjective ‘Ting Tong’ or ‘crazy’ or ‘goofy’ was used to catch the customers’ attention to goofy when coming to the bar. In the text ‘Happy Lipe Tours แสบปีหลีเป๊ะทัวร์ Happy Life ใบอนุญาตเลขที่ ... Tel..307/6 Moo. 7 Koh Sarai (Lipe) Muang Satun” (B34), the

Thai words of toponyms and a village number were excluded in code-mixing because of lexical borrowing. Thus, only the Thai phrases “แฮปปี้หลีเป๊ะทัวร์ ... โบอนุญาดเลขที่” were considered as part of code-mixing.



Figure 27 B84

Figure 27 displays the switching from English to Thai twice. The wrong spacing in the compound noun ‘sunset’ was excluded. The switching was from the English compound noun ‘sunset’ to its translation in Thai ‘อาทิตย์ตก’ and a change into the English sentence “never try never know” and into the Thai sentence with a Romanized Thai particle “ไม่ลอง ไม่รู้ JAH”. This switching was based on an omission (“If you never try, you will never know”) – the forms (‘if you... and you will’) were deleted. This sentence was translated into Thai “ไม่ลอง ไม่รู้ JAH”. The particle ‘jah’ was used to soften the meaning of this sentence.

#### 4.3 Discussion on Grammatical Features of the Signage

In this section, the findings from the data analysis were discussed. Firstly, the three types of NP modification in this study – pre-, post-, and pre-post modifiers – are similar to those found in the study concerning online bag advertisements conducted by Pitaktrairat et al. (2021). The phrase ‘my yellow duck’ is comparable to that of the bag ads ‘the removable strap’ because they are patterned by “determiner (Det) + adjective (Adj) + noun (N)”. Next, the phrase “snorkeling equipment *for rent*” mirrors “Dreamer *with signature canvas blocking*” of the bag ads because they both are constructed with noun (compound noun) that is post-modified by a PP. Additionally, the phrase “*big terrace with hammock*”, appears to accord with that of the bag ads, (“*smooth leather with a brilliant metallic sheen*”) (p.91) because they are pre-modified by adjectives and post-modified by PPs.

Secondly, the notion of apposition is complex. The phrases ‘Seventh (,) Boutique Hotel’, ‘Zodiac (,) See Sun Resort’, and ‘Sea to Moon (,) Resort & Restaurant’ with elliptical commas are somewhat similar to the headline in an ad in an American magazine ‘Cover Girl. Redefining beautiful’ in which a period (.) is used for the apposition. However, it can be modified as ‘Cover Girl *redefines beauty*’ (Rush, 1998).

Thirdly, hybrid phrases are outstanding. The example “Happy Lipe Tours แฮปปี้หลีเป๊ะทัวร์” can partially parallel the expression “บริษัท วี.เค.ที” (V.K.T company) of ‘hybrid syntactic structures’ in the LL of Chiang Mai (Thongtong, 2016) which is Englishized. They are similar in that the use of English phrases is for hybridizing Thai phrase (Thai head บริษัท is modified by English NPs).

Fourthly, the phrase “Milo/Ovaltine Hot and Milo/Ovaltine Iced” is unique Thai English because of word-order. This is similar to what Vivas-Persaza (2020, p.48) found in the LL of Hatyai - “floor 1<sup>st</sup>” – due to the influence of Thai grammar in English phrases in which the adjectives are placed after the nouns. Likewise, overgeneralization such as ‘Thai ice tea’ is somewhat similar to a Thai English phrase in *Hatyai’s* signage ‘cream banana recommend’ (p.51) because the verb-inflection ‘ed’ does not exist in Thai grammar. Also, the example of a creative Thai English phrase (‘Thai Thai restaurant’) is in line with Leech’s (1966) adjective clusters, especially the repetitive use of the same adjective. The adjectives ‘Thai Thai’ can be considered ‘an emphatically emotional effect’ for advertising as they can be similar to the phrase ‘a big big bottle’ in British television advertising (p.129).

Fifthly, it is worth mentioning complete sentences with functions. For instance, the declaration in the nail salon ads (“We’re the best...thank you”) is similar to that in an ad in Russia (“There’s no wrong way to eat a Reese’s”) (Malyuga, & Tomalin, 2020) due to a shared idea of informing the audience of the quality of the place and product. Besides, the exclamatory sentence “You can find us in 3 different places on Koh Lipe!” is comparable to that of Russia’s ads (“I go cuckoo for Cocoa Puffs!”) (p.148) because they used an exclamation mark and evoked specific mood regarding the place and the product.

Sixthly, various grammatical errors are noticeable. The wrong spelling in “long tall boat (long tail boat)” can fit that in a shop sign in Chittagong in Bangladesh, namely “*Faiyerly* Hair Dresser” (*Fairly* Hair Dresser) (Hoque, 2016). Next, the wrongly translated phrase “Good to Declare” (Declaration of Goods) is similar to the translated phrase from Arabic to English in Yemen’s shop signs (Al-Athwary, 2014) – “AL SHARQ FOR FURNITURE CENTER” (Al Sharq Center for furniture / Al Sharq Furniture Center) due to the L1 influence on word order, grammatical errors, and inappropriate lexical use.

Seventh, the grammatical omission stands out. The sentence from a warning sign, “Beware Jellyfish”, is quite similar to that in a public sign translated in English in Bali, Indonesia, “Please Park in accordance line” (Please park in accordance *with* the line) (Ariani, & Artaw, 2021).

Eighth, the literal expression ‘Receive laundry sixty baht/kg’ is similar to the expression “Forbidden Island Glass” in the tourist sign in Thailand (Ngampramuan, 2016), which was an English translation made by Google Translate application and shared on social media. Both present an ordering of English words according to the Thai grammatical sentence structure. This infringes Standard English, but it is considered Thai English in World Englishes.

Ninth, the expression of code-mixing “Are you ting? Tong” can be compared to that found in Si Yan, BKK (Prapobranakul, 2016) that highlights some shop names that use English script, English lexicon and English syntax (for example, “เดอะปริ้นท์ The Print”).

Lastly, the sentence of code-switching (“Sunset อาทิตย์ตก Never Try Never Know ไม่ลองไม่รู้ Jah”) is quite comparable to that from the LL of a senior high school in Yogyakarta, Indonesia (“Pelajar bukan gangster. Stop bullying”) that started with two words in Indonesian, and switched to the English word and another imperative in English (Andriyanti, 2019).

Overall, the study’s findings are consistent with the guiding frameworks. First of all, the syntactic patterns of Bangkok’s LL (Huebner, 2006) can be observed in this study. ‘Ellipsis’ is seen in ‘omission’ while ‘incomplete sentences’ appear in reduction, an interplay between omission and reduction, overgeneralization, and literal and adapted translation. Next, the mixing of Thai-English words regarding a Thai variety of English is seen in ‘code-mixing and code-switching’. ‘Thai English’ is clearly shown at the phrase level through *Tinglish* and *creative Thai English*. For Thai translation of English texts and vice versa, it was found mainly in ‘NPs with translation’ and ‘hybrid NPs with translation’.

Furthermore, the notion of nativization of English structures in Oman’s commercial signs (Buckingham, 2015) is evident. The “structures used to announce the service, especially in noun phrases” was found. The phrase ‘Thai & Western food’ can be related to that in a sign in Oman – ‘sales of fresh & frozen chicken sale’ (p.399) due to their coordinated pre-modifiers using the ampersand. Besides, ‘multiple pre-modifiers’ is common as it is used to pre-modify products and services in *Koh Lipe* such as ‘*fresh fruit* shakes’.

The notion of cultural and linguistic hybridity (Demska, 2019) is also observed. Hybrid NPs are formed in the Thai-English and English-Thai patterns. Some were constructed with *Urdu-English*, *Italian-English*, *Local Malay Loan-English*, among others. Next, the notion of mixing as another form of hybridity is evident in code-mixing and code-switching of English-Thai and vice versa. Additionally, the microtexts of hybridity lead to grammatical errors; Thai grammar and orthography influence the English signage. This appears in ‘errors in NPs’ and omission, reduction, overgeneralization, and literal and adapted translation.

Moreover, the grammatical features found in this study are supported by the first rule of language choices in public signs according to Spolsky, and Cooper (1991, as cited in Spolsky, 2009). The bilingual and multilingual signs in *Koh Lipe* show ‘errors in English NPs’; that is, grammatical elements in sentences were omitted, reduced, and literally translated because of Thai grammar influence on written English.

Backhaus’s (2007) first criterion of LL grammar, “homophonic is a direct translation or transliteration of all texts...” (p.91), is also obvious in ‘literal and adapted translation’. Another key strategy is transliteration as seen in NPs with transliteration, NPs with translation and transliteration, hybrid NPs with transliteration, and with translation and transliteration.

According to Shohamy, and Gorter (2009), the mixing of languages is manifested in hybrid NPs and code-mixing and code-switching. Next, new rules of linguistic forms appear in Thai English phrases, omission, reduction, overgeneralization, and literal and adapted translation in which deviations were creatively constructed to serve the communicative functions and linguistic ideology of the signs. These patterns occur because the grammatical forms of English interact with those of Thai and other languages. Moreover, the new syntactic



structures are apparent in NP structure as a grammar style of advertising, for instance, the pronominal modifier in the phrase of a hotel's name ('The Green') and the appositives for the post-modification which are strategically marketed.

Overall, the English phrases in the signage in *Koh Lipe* are complex as characterized by 'modification layers' and 'unique Thai English'. Meanwhile, the sentences present *functional uses* and *simplification*. Both share common features of cultural and linguistic hybridity, deviation, nativization, grammar styles of advertising discourse, the use of translation and transliteration, and linguistic contact with other languages.

#### 4.4 Discussion on Glocalized English

The findings of grammatical features seem to reflect glocalized English as suggested by Robertson's (1995) following statement: "tailoring and advertising of goods and services on a global or near-global basis...the adaptation to local and other particular conditions through civilization, regional, societal, ethnic, gender of consumers..." (pp.28-29). The business owners on this island who may hire the sign writers or advertising companies to advertise their products and services to attract foreign tourists by using the strategic phrase 'Lipe'. This is obvious in hybrid NPs; many English phrases were combined with 'Lipe'. These are 'The Chic *Lipe*' (M155), 'Daeng Kitchen& Resort @ *Lipe*, Satun' (M164), 'ชาวเลรีสอร์ท *Chawlay Resort Koh Lipe Satun Thailand*' (B25), and "พีพี เบเกอรี่ ทำเอง *Pee Pee Bakery Restaurant (Lipe) Home Made*" (B122), among others. Likewise, the sign writers tend to use this key vernacular phrase in combination with English phrases to disseminate information to the global community. This appears in the phrase "Ban *Koh Lipe* Tambon Health Promotion..." (B82). Other examples of hybrid NPs can mirror the ethnicity of consumers embedded in the signage there. The noun phrase, '*Pad Siew* fried noodle' (T23), a Teochew loan word in Thai ('Siew') is combined with the Thai word 'Pad' and the English NP 'fried noodle'. This phrase is originally derived from a Chinese ethnic group in Thailand. This kind of fried noodle is common to the local consumers. It can also be targeted to Chinese-speaking customers. Next, in the phrase '*Chawlay food center street Koh Lipe Satun Thailand*' (B23), the local Thai word 'Chawlay' reflects the ethnic identity of the primitive group. The hybridization of this phrase brings a local taste to the foreign customers who read the sign and can perceive the local cuisine.

Considering cultural glocalization of Kirkpatrick (2007, 2008, as cited in Oanh, 2012) which parallels that of Friedman (1999), glocalized English can involve English syntactic features in that Similar to Friedman's description of glocalization, some aspects of the local language that are different to English are also embraced within the context of their difference, enlivening and enriching communication in the region (with the use of code-switching) and offering the potential to contribute to international standard English (through loanwords for new concepts and ideas, etc.). At the same time, these glocal varieties of English run the risk of assimilating far too much of the local vocabulary and syntax, rendering these varieties incomprehensible to international speakers of English. Some of these influences have been researched extensively.

Glocalized English is reflected in the expression "sunset อาทิตย์ตก never try never know ไม่ลอง ไม่รู้ JAH" (B84). This mirrors the way English syntactic elements can be embraced with Thai syntactic elements. According to Gorter (2006, as cited in Bolton, 2012), glocalization of English involves "the process of 'glocalization' in the international arena that leads to new expressions of cultural mixture in music, food and clothing,..." This statement is observed in code-mixing. Cultural mixture is seen in food through the expression "ฮาลาลเซ่ม by Sri Lipe ฮ่า ฮ่าคาลือ *SRILIFE Halal Thai Food*" (B78). The mixing of Thai and Romanized Thai words and phrases in the English phrase and sentence is a result of the glocalization process in which English and Thai grammatical elements are interacting.

Sharifian's (2016) glocal English on nativization of English regarding 'cultural categories' can be extended to a specific form of English with Thai cultural and monarchical norms of English representing the Kingdom of Thailand. This is found in the example of 'creative Thai English' – 'Her Royal Highness Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn's Building'. It mirrors the way Pali-Sanskrit, which is grounded in the Thai language, is nativized in English. Every lexical item used in this phrase (except the word 'building') reflects the cultural aspect of the monarchical system of Thai society.

Jocuns (2018) raises the notion of Thai English as part of the glocalization of English by examining the Geosemiotics of tourism. The signs show the influence of Thai grammar in English expressions such as 'pork garlic' and 'lemon gass juice' (p.70); they are based on direct translation and spelling errors. The correct ones

should be 'garlic pork' and 'lemon grass juice'. This is similar to the literally translated expression 'Receive laundry sixty-baht/kg', which is similar to the phrase 'pork garlic' because the English phrases are ordered according to the Thai grammar. This can also relate to 'errors in NPs', particularly the phrase 'Menu Top Hit'. In this regard, the phrase 'lemon grass juice' can be linked to 'Manu Thai Food' (Thai Food Menu) in this study because of the incorrect spelling of 'grass' and 'menu'.

According to Peng et al. (2021), the glocalization of English in code-mixing and code-switching of English and Chinese is obvious in the signage in *Koh Lipe*. The mixing of Thai and Romanized Thai words in English sentences and vice versa in the signs indicate an opportunity for the glocalization in which Thai as a local language can interact with global English. Likewise, the switching from English to Thai in the signage can present this glocalized English. These strategies contribute to the modern and cosmopolitan lifestyle of English users on this island.

In summary, the grammatical features of glocalized English found can imply particular notions, namely communicative needs for local and international purposes, linguistic and cultural hybridity, ethnic identities, nativization of Thai English, and modernity. The phrases and sentences in the signage are functionally formed by the local government sector as well as local and foreign entrepreneurs to advertise tourism services and products. Because of a multilingual contact between English and other eastern and western languages in the signage, the phrases become complex because they are hybridized, and the sentences interface mixing and idiosyncrasies. Moreover, they are constructed with the grammatical and semantic segments that reflect the ethnic identities of people living in the south of Thailand, namely Thais, local Malays, and Chinese. Besides, an expression is nativized; Pali-Sanskrit elements of the Thai language influence the textual formation in English. Additionally, the use of Thai-English code-switching in the sentence for an advertising function of tourism indicates that English as a linguistic vehicle can contribute to the modernized linguistic landscape of this island in that grammatical creativity is more important than errors.

## 5. Conclusion

The signage on *Koh Lipe* conveys distinctive phrasal and sentential features in English. English and hybrid NPs seem to provide the most complicated structures with grammatical, syntactic and stylistic strategies in advertising discourses. The English NPs differ from the traditional ones because they were recreated by the sign writers considering the modification elements, the advertising styles, and persuasive functions. Meanwhile, the hybrid NPs were formed in many aspects because English meets other languages. In light of sentences, omission seems to be the most common feature as it can save the space of the signage. The grammatical features of English in the signage imply glocalization. English phrasal and sentential forms were influenced by Standard Thai grammar as there is no southern Thai grammar form. Thus, the local identity and southern *Thainess* in the grammatical features found can be apparent through the way Thai words and local Malay loans were mixed and hybridized in English phrases and sentences. Additionally, these grammatical units were constructed as the language of local products and services presented in the signage on the island to serve the tourists' communicative needs. Overall, the features represent the use of English as a glocal language that contacts diverse languages in a tourism context of southern Thailand.

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