การเลี่ยงการใช้คุณานุประโยคลดรูปประเภทใช้รูปกริยาขยายในภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียนที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่ง

นายศุภกิตติ์ เทียมตะวัน

AVOIDANCE OF THE USE OF ENGLISH PARTICIPIAL REDUCED RELATIVE CLAUSES
AMONG L1 THAI LEARNERS

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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
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ศุภกิตติ์ เทียมตะวัน : การเลี่ยงการใช้คุณานุประโยคลดรูปประเภทใช้รูปกริยาขยายใน ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียนที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่ง. (AVOIDANCE OF THE USE OF ENGLISH PARTICIPIAL REDUCED RELATIVE CLAUSES AMONG L1 THAI LEARNERS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: รศ. ดร.ณัฐมา พงศ์ไพโรจน์, 164 หน้า.

งานวิจัยนี้สำรวจพฤติกรรมการเลี่ยง อันเป็นปรากฏการณ์ที่ผู้เรียนภาษาที่สองเลี่ยงใช้ โครงสร้างในภาษาที่สองที่ไม่ปรากฏในภาษาที่หนึ่ง หรือโครงสร้างในภาษาที่สองที่แตกต่างจาก โครงสร้างเทียบเคียงในภาษาที่หนึ่ง (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 2002) งานวิจัยนี้ดัดแปลง แบบทดสอบของไคลน์มานน์ (Klienmann, 1978) โดยมุ่งศึกษาพฤติกรรมการเลี่ยงโครงสร้าง คุณานุประโยคลดรูปประเภทใช้รูปกริยาขยาย (Participial Reduced Relative Clause) ใน ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียนที่ใช้ภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่ง สมมติฐานของงานวิจัยนี้คือ ผู้เรียนภาษาที่ สองที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่งมีแนวโน้มเลี่ยงการใช้คุณานุประโยคลดรูปประเภทใช้รูปกริยา ขยายเนื่องจากความแตกต่างระหว่างภาษาไทยกับภาษาอังกฤษ ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยนี้เป็นนักศึกษา ระดับปริญญาตรีชาวไทยจำนวน 20 คน เครื่องมือวิจัยประกอบด้วย แบบทดสอบความเข้าใจเพื่อ ยืนยันว่า ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยมีความรู้ความเข้าใจในโครงสร้างดังกล่าว และแบบทดสอบประเมิน ความพึงใจทางอ้อมเพื่อศึกษาความพึงใจระหว่างคุณานุประโยคประเภทลดรูปกับประเภทไม่ลด รูป แบบทดสอบประเมินความพึงใจทางอ้อม ประกอบด้วยแบบทดสอบประเภทเติมคำในช่องว่าง และแบบทดสอบแปลภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ผลการวิจัยพบว่า ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยมีแนวโน้มใช้ โครงสร้างดังกล่าว ผู้วิจัยสันนิษฐานว่า ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยใช้คุณานุประโยคลดรูปประเภทใช้รูป กริยาขยาย เนื่องจากปัจจัย 3 ประการ ได้แก่ ความคุ้นเคยที่ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยมีต่อโครงสร้าง ดังกล่าว ความที่โครงสร้างนี้ง่ายต่อการใช้ และลักษณะเฉพาะของแบบทดสอบในงานวิจัยนี้ ดังนั้น ผู้วิจัยได้เสนอสมมติฐานปัจจัยของการไม่เลี่ยงภาษาที่สอง (Factors of L2 Non-Avoidance Hypothesis) คือ ผู้เรียนภาษาที่สองอาจไม่แสดงพฤติกรรมการเลี่ยงโครงสร้างในภาษาที่สองที่ไม่ ปรากฏในภาษาที่หนึ่ง หรือโครงสร้างในภาษาที่สองที่แตกต่างจากโครงสร้างเทียบเคียงในภาษาที่ หนึ่ง อย่างไรก็ตาม ปัจจัยอื่น ๆ ควรได้รับการพิจารณาประกอบด้วย

ภาควิชา   ภาษาอังกฤษ   ลายมือชื่อนิสิต ....

สาขาวิชา   ภาษาอังกฤษ   ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก ....

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The research examined avoidance behavior, i.e. a phenomenon where L2 learners avoid producing either an L2 structure which is non-existent in their L1 or a TL form differing from the L1 equivalent (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 2002). By semi-replicating Klienmann's (1978) tests, the study aimed to determine whether L1 Thai learners would avoid producing the English participial reduced relative clause structure (PRRC). It was hypothesized that L1 Thai learners tended to avoid using the PRRC structure as a result of differences between their L1 and the L2. The research participants were twenty Thai undergraduate students. The research instruments consisted of a comprehension test, i.e. a test ensuring the subjects' knowledge of the PRRC structure, and two indirect preference assessment tasks. Two tasks, a cloze test and a Thai-English translation test, were employed to investigate the participants' preference between PRRCs and relative clauses (RCs). Results showed that the L1 Thai subjects tended not to avoid the PRRC structure. It is assumed that three possible factors were involved: the L2 learners' familiarity with the PRRC structure, simplicity of the participial reduced relative clause, and the nature of the tasks. The Factors of L2 Non-Avoidance Hypothesis (FNAH) was proposed to account for the participants' tendency of L2 non-avoidance. The essence of the FNAH is that L2 learners do not always avoid using an L2 structure which is non-existent in their L1 or a TL feature which is different from the L1 equivalent. Other factors have to be taken into consideration.

Department:	English	Student's Signature ....
Field of Study:	English	Advisor's Signature ....
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CONTENTS

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has been a subject of linguistic research for decades, and most researchers in this field have focused their studies on language output by L2 learners. In the SLA literature, it has been widely claimed that the learners' production is crucial, particularly to their L2 development (Izumi, 2003). Swain (1985) confirmed that linguistic output might function as "the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning" (p. 249). That is to say, language output might provide opportunities for L2 learners to develop fluency and accuracy in language use.

There are a number of issues related to language learners' production of L2 forms, and one aspect the researchers have paid considerable attention to is problems in production, i.e. errors (Loewen, 2007). Concerning language development, it is important for L2 learners to be aware of their errors and how to rectify them because this might enable them to combat those deviant forms, and thus, result in their language improvement (Brown, 1980). Moreover, to understand

the causes of the incorrect forms is vital. You (1999) demonstrated that the reasons why the errors are committed might provide researchers and language teachers with the understanding of how the learners' internal processes can influence their L2 acquisition. For this reason, a number of different languages have been studied with a great focus on L2 learners' production of erroneous output (e.g. French in Chevrot & Fayol, 2001; Chinese in Di, 2005; Korean in Lee, 2010; Japanese in Chawengkijwanich, 2011).

So far, the most extensively studied L2 has been English (e.g. Corselli-Nordblad & Bistreanu, 2011). Nowadays, English is used worldwide as an international language. Kitao (1996) stated that "It [English] is used not only for communication between native speakers and nonnative speakers of English but between nonnative speakers… and it will be used by more people in the future." Because of this, English has been widely taught as either a second or foreign language, and thus, has long been a major subject in academic institutions in many countries. Yet, it has been observed that a large number of L2 learners of English are experiencing problems in producing several English structures, including relative clauses (e.g. Park, 2000; Phoocharoensil, 2009), passive voice construction (e.g. Chotiros & Pongpairoj, 2011; Pojprasat, 2007), and functional morphemes, i.e. the morphemes which perform a

grammatical function such as articles (e.g. Pongpairoj, 2007; Sarko, 2008; Trenkic, 2007) and inflectional affixes (Campos, 2009). Therefore, the problems of output production in L2 English have been strongly emphasized in several empirical research studies (e.g. Loewen, 2007; Maicusi, Maicusi, & Lopez, 2000; Oller & Redding, 1971; Parrish, 1987; Prevost & White, 2000; Thomas, 1989).

However, the strong emphasis on language output and errors made by L2 learners of English has been questioned. Schachter (1974) pointed out the significance of identifying and investigating the L2 forms that L2 learners frequently avoid, as well as those that they produce or use incorrectly. Conducting a study to explore English relative clauses (RCs) produced by native speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Arabian, and Persian, Schachter found that the number of errors regarding the structure committed by the Chinese and Japanese learners was lower than that of the Arabic and the Persian learners. Interestingly, it was also found that the Chinese and Japanese subjects produced fewer RCs than the Arabic and Persian ones did. This is because the difference between Chinese/Japanese RCs and English ones is greater than that between Arabic/Persian and English. That is to say, in Chinese and Japanese, the RCs occur to the left of head nouns, whereas, in Arabic and Persian, they occur to the right of head nouns, as in English. Accordingly, Chinese and

Japanese speakers might have more difficulties acquiring English RCs, and therefore, they are more likely to avoid employing this English structure, leading to a lower number of errors. It was then concluded that a small number of errors produced by a learner might sometimes indicate that they have such a significant problem using an L2 structure that they avoid using it. This has been referred to as avoidance behavior (Schachter, 1974).

Avoidance behavior is a phenomenon in SLA which occurs when L2 learners, in speaking or writing a second or foreign language, often try to avoid using a word or structure that they find difficult, and turn to a simpler one (Mattar, 2003). The phenomenon primarily results from differences between the learners' L1 and L2. To be said to avoid producing a particular L2 structure or form, the learners must have knowledge of it (Klienmann, 1978). To understand learners' avoidance behavior is essential to language teachers because when the phenomenon occurs, the L2 instructors who are unaware of such a behavior tend to be lured into believing that their students have mastered a structure when, in fact, they have not. As Kleinmann (1978) pointed out, "Our effectiveness in teaching a second language, consequently, depends partly on our recognizing and dealing with the phenomenon of avoidance" (p. 166). Hence, a number of SLA studies on avoidance behavior were conducted.

They suggest that there are many English structures and items which are frequently underused by L2 learners, including phrasal verbs (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993; Liao & Fukuya, 2002), RCs (Schachter, 1974; Li, 1996), and participial reduced relative clauses (Mattar, 1997).

Participial reduced relative clauses (PRRCs) are a reduction of RCs. They modify a noun or a noun phrase. Lee (2007) stated that PRRCs are non-finite clauses because they contain a participle, i.e. a type of non-finite verbs or verbs whose form does not change based upon any noun in the sentence, and thus, cannot function as the main verb in the predicate of a sentence. An English participle is a verb form in either of the two participial forms, namely the present participle (verb + 'ing') and the past participle (usually verb + 'ed'). Azar (1999) viewed PRRCs as RCs whose relative pronouns, including 'who,' 'which,' and 'that,' and, in some cases, the verb 'be' are omitted (See detailed discussions of the English PRRC structure in 2.4.1). For example, in Table 1, RCs in sentences (a), (b), and (c) can be reduced into their PRRC form, as in (d), (e), and (f), respectively:

Table 1: Reduction of Relative Clauses to Participial Reduced Relative Clauses

Relative Clauses	Participial Reduced Relative Clauses
(a) The man *who is talking to John* is from Korea.	(d) The man *talking to John* is from Korea.
(b) The ideas *which are presented in that book* are good.	(e) The ideas *presented in that book* are good.
(c) Anyone *who wants to come with us* is welcome.	(f) Anyone *wanting to come with us* is welcome.

Adapted from Azar (1999: 290)

Granger (1997) confirmed that there is a statistically significant underproduction of the PRRCs with both present and past participles by L2 learners. It can be claimed that the given structure might be confusing to L1 Thai learners of English as well. The reason is probably because of three characteristics of Thai language: fewer possibilities of relative pronoun omission, the lack of an inflectional affix system, and the more restricted RC reduction which requires the omission of relative pronouns only (See detailed discussions of the Thai reduced relative clause structure in 2.4.2). The confusion caused by the differences between Thai and English might cause serious problems to the L1 Thai learners since it has been revealed that the PRRC structure frequently appears in written narratives and academic papers (Granger, 1997).

Despite its significance as mentioned above, the English PRRC structure has been given little attention in SLA research on the avoidance behavior among L2 learners, compared to other avoided structures. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there has been only one study on the learners' avoidance of the structure (Mattar, 1997). Besides, none of the previous SLA studies have explored L1 Thai learners' avoidance of the use of PRRCs. The only existing study of avoidance behavior among native speakers of Thai is on English passive voice structure (Chotiros & Pongpairoj, 2012). Consequently, the present research aims to bridge the gap by examining the avoidance of English PRRCs with an emphasis on L1 Thai learners. By doing this, the study hopes to contribute to SLA studies on the phenomenon of avoidance behavior.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were:

1. To compare and contrast the use of English PRRCs between L1 Thai learners and native speakers of English.

2. To investigate whether participle types (the present participle form ('-ing') and the past participle form ('–ed')) could influence degrees of avoidance of English PRRCs by L1 Thai learners and native speakers of English.

3. To explore whether verb types (dynamic and stative verbs) could affect

degrees of avoidance of the two participle types in English PRRCs by L1 Thai

learners and native speakers of English.

1.3 Statement of hypotheses

The formulated hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis 1: L1 Thai learners tend to avoid PRRCs and use RCs instead.

Hypothesis 2: L1 Thai learners are likely to show a higher level of avoidance of

PRRCs with past participles, compared to those with present participles.

Hypothesis 3: L1 Thai learners are expected to show a higher degree of avoidance of

PRRCs with present participles when dealing with stative verbs.

The thesis is organized as follows. Chapter 2 presents literature review of

major areas related to the present study: language transfer, Contrastive Analysis, Error

Analysis, Interlanguage, English PRRCs and Thai RCs, and previous studies on L2

avoidance. Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology of the study. Chapter 4

reports the findings and discusses the results. Finally, Chapter 5 gives conclusions,

pedagogical implications, limitation of the study, and recommendations for further

studies.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a literature review concerning major areas which are related to the present study. Section 2.1 provides information about Language Transfer. Section 2.2 concerns Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA). Section 2.3 discusses Interlanguage (IL). Section 2.4 describes English PRRCs and Thai RRCs. Section 2.5 deals with previous studies on avoidance behavior in L2 acquisition.

2.1 Language Transfer

Language transfer is probably one of the most commonly discussed topics in SLA studies (Alonso, 2002). Odlin (1989) defines language transfer as "the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired" (p. 27). Jacobsen (2000) clarified the term by stating that, when two languages come into contact, cross-linguistic influences might occur, leading to

language varieties[1]. Language transfer can occur in all linguistic subsystems, including phonological, morphological, syntactic, pragmatic, and discoursal levels (Odlin, 1993).

Language transfer can be primarily classified into two types according to the language which takes part in the interference process: substratum transfer and borrowing transfer.

Substratum transfer is the process in which language learners' first language (L1) affects their acquisition of a second language (L2). According to Lado (1957), L2 learners are likely to transfer the forms and meanings from their native language (NL) to the target language (TL). Similarly, Corder (1971) stated that such transfer means "the learner is carrying over the habits of his mother-tongue into the second language" (p. 158). That is to say, L2 learners employ their established knowledge of their L1 in order to learn an L2. A number of SLA researchers would agree that the learners' L1 plays an important role in their acquisition of an L2. Tawilapakul (2003) confirmed that, "In the respect to the performance, production and comprehension of English by L2 learners, it is apparent that they rely heavily on their L1" (p. 2). The reason is that L2 learners are not starting from "point zero",

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[1] Cross-linguistic influences are the influences in which either L1 or L2 has on language learners' performance or development of another language (Jacobsen, 2000).

as a child learning his first language, but have their first language to turn to (Roth, 1998, p. 6). Thomason (1981) pointed out that substratum transfer tends to appear in the phonological level because pronunciation is possibly the most difficult part of a target language for L2 learners to excel in. To demonstrate, instead of pronouncing the word 'van' as /væn/, many L1 Thai learners of English might pronounce this word as /wæn/ because their L1 possesses the phoneme /w/ only, and not the /v/ phoneme.

Odlin (1989) classifies substratum transfer into the following two types:

a) Positive transfer: A transfer occurring when features of language learners' L1 and the L2 are identical or similar. Positive transfer could facilitate or promote L2 acquisition.

b) Negative transfer: A transfer occurring when features of language learners' L1 and the L2 are different, but relevant in some ways. Negative transfer could impose a difficulty in L2 acquisition, and even worse, the misuse of L2.

The second type of language transfer is borrowing transfer. This refers to the influence an L2 has on a previously acquired language which is usually one's mother tongue. Unlike substratum transfer, which often manifests itself in pronunciation, borrowing transfer is more likely to occur at the lexical level, and

might result in L1 lexical attrition or the loss of a particular lexicon in the native language (Odlin, 1993). For instance, some L2 learners might have a given concept about technology on the tip of their tongue, and it will come out in their L2 only.

Language transfer is associated with the avoidance phenomenon in a certain way. Ellis (2008) claimed that investigating L2 learners' avoidance is one of the ways of measuring their L1's effects on their L2 acquisition, and further explained that "Learners are likely to avoid structures they find difficult. One cause of this difficulty may be a lack of correspondence between the target language and mother tongue structures"(p. 293). In other words, in cases of avoidance, the impact of the L1 is shown in what L2 learners do not do, i.e. omissions, not in what they do, i.e. errors.

2.2 Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis

It has been shown that avoidance is closely related to Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA). As Klienmann (1978) asserted, the combination of CA and EA can predict the learners' avoidance behavior better than either one alone can. Therefore, the concepts of CA and EA will be discussed in this section.

Contrastive Analysis is a comparison and contrast between the linguistic features of two languages. CA has been proven to be useful for language teaching. Fries (1945) expressed an opinion about effective English teaching documents that "The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (p. 9). CA also claimes to be able to predict the areas of difficulty with which L2 learners might be confronted in learning their L2 or the target language (TL). In the preface of his book entitled *Linguistics across Cultures* (1957), Lado stated that "we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and the culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student" (p. vii). Whitman (1970) identified four steps in the procedure of CA. The first step concerns writing descriptions of two languages: the learners' native language and the target language. In the second and third steps, researchers select forms or structures from the descriptions, and make a contrast of the selected forms or structures, respectively. Finally, a prediction of problem areas is made through the contrast.

Lado (1957) explained that, in CA, it is assumed that where the L1 and L2 are similar, difficulty will rarely occur; however, where there are differences between the two languages, learners are more likely to encounter a difficulty, and this can lead them to make L2 errors. Stockwell, Bowen, and Martin (1965) suggested that when there are similarities between the forms of the learners' L1 and L2, positive transfer is likely to take place. In contrast, negative transfer tends to occur where the structures are different. It can then be said that learners' L1 is considered the major source of errors in L2 learning.

In accordance with Schumann and Stenson (1974), there are two versions of CA: a strong version and a weak version. Basically, the strong form predicts difficulties of language learning in terms of a contrastive analysis between two languages before an actual learning situation occurs, whereas the weak form aims to account for already discovered deviations by using differences between two linguistic systems. Yang (1992) stated that the strong version makes four claims: (i) the interference of the learners' L1 is the main obstacle to L2 acquisition; (ii) the greater the difference between the L1 and the L2; the greater the problem will be; (iii) the problem areas can be predicted through a systematic analysis of the two languages; and (iv) the result of CA can help language teachers prepare teaching

materials, plan courses, and improve classroom techniques. As DiPietro (1971) pointed out, the weak version does not require what the strong version does, i.e. the prediction of the difficulties of learning points. Instead, it is an attempt to explain and analyze observed errors by using characteristics that differ between the L1 and the L2. Similarly, Waudhaugh (1970) believed that, in the weak version, a greater focus is given to the explanatory power of observed errors, rather than the predictive power of the difficulty. Waudhaugh also gave an opinion on these two versions that the strong version is impracticable and unrealistic while the weak one is beneficial for foreign language teaching and learning.

In the early 1970s, the error predictability of CA came under criticism because it was found that some errors predicted by CA did not arise in actuality and, in contrast, some real errors had never been predicted. As Chomsky (1959) stated, learners' errors were not only caused by the differences between the L1 and the L2, but by other factors as well. This disadvantage of Contrastive Analysis gave rise to Error Analysis.

Error Analysis is the study of the actual errors made by language learners. In contrast to CA, where the L2 is compared to the learners' L1, EA aims at a comparison between the TL form and the errors occurring in the production (Ellis &

Barkhuizen, 2005). According to Corder (1974), the procedure for EA consists of two steps. Firstly, a language corpus is chosen. Researchers have to decide on the sample size and homogeneity, and the sampled medium. Secondly, the learners' written or oral errors in the corpus are identified and categorized into types. After this, possible causes of the errors are explained. Ellis (2008) noted that the seriousness of each error type should be evaluated in order that L2 teachers and syllabus developers will be able to know which types of error should be emphasized in the teaching materials.

Richards (1974) classified errors into two types: interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Interlingual errors are errors which result from the interference of the language learners' L1 into the L2. In contrast, intralingual errors are those "which reflect the general characteristics of (L2) rule learning" (p. 174). This type of error includes four subcategories, as follows:

a) Overgeneralization: Overgeneralization errors might occur due to the L2 learners' attempt to simplify their language task. Jacobovitz (1969) defines overgeneralization as "the use of previously available strategies in new situations. In second language learning… some of these strategies will prove helpful in organizing the facts about the second language, but others, perhaps due to superficial similarities, will be misleading and inapplicable" (p. 6). For

example, since pastness can be lexically indicated (e.g. 'yesterday'), L2 learners might consider the past tense marker '-ed' unnecessary, and thus, omitting the suffix. Besides, such errors might be caused by the L2 learners' inability to realize exceptions to the general rules. To demonstrate, in order to form past tense, some learners might add the '–ed' suffix to all verbs, including irregular verbs which are exceptions of the rule.

b) Ignorance of rule restrictions: This phenomenon is similar to overgeneralization in that both of them are related to L2 learners' indifference towards the limitations of the rules. This error occurs when the rules are extended to contexts where, in target language usage, they do not apply (Richards, 1974; Hasyim, 2002; Tawilapakul, 2008). For instance, some L2 learners of English might assume that the verb 'make' is used along with infinitives, leading them to produce the ungrammatical 'make him to do it,' instead of the grammatical 'make him do it' (Heydari & Bagheri, 2012).

c) Incomplete application of rules: Incomplete application of rules indicates L2 learners' failure to learn the more complex rules because the learners find they can communicate with others effectively by employing simpler rules. As a result, the phenomenon can reflect the extent to which the learners acquire the rules. As Richards (1974) explained, the incomplete rule application error is "the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances." For example, the learners might omit a functional morpheme or forget to do the subject-verb inversion, as in (1) and (2), respectively:

(1) *The venue of the World Economic Forum will be *announce* soon.

(2) *What *you are* doing?

d) False concepts hypothesized: This phenomenon is caused by faulty understanding of target language distinctions. As an illustration, the verb 'is' may be treated as a general marker of the present tense, as in (3):

(3) *He *is speaks* French.

As far as the relationship between CA and EA is concerned, Schumann and Stenson (1974) noted that if the weak form of CA is compared to EA, it will be found that both are specific forms of linguistic analysis, and depart from the target language. They also suggested that CA in the weak version should be considered as one aspect of EA. Svartvik (1973) confirmed that there is no conflict between the two approaches, and EA is regarded as a more general term, incorporating CA for the explanation of the language learners' own L2 system. Yang (1992) claimed that EA derives from the weak version of CA, and that CA is a theory, whereas EA is an evaluation tool.

Although EA is useful in language pedagogy, some limitations have been observed. Firstly, EA accounts for learner language solely in terms of TL norms. This is probably because EA seeks to compare learner language and the L2. However, in reality, EA ignores the fact that learners create their own unique rule systems in the process of learning a second language. Such entire systems, commonly known as

interlanguage, should be analyzed (Selinker, 1972). Secondly, EA cannot explain the learners' avoidance behavior. In accordance with Els, Bongaerts, Extra, Os, and Dieten (1984), "some L2 learners phenomena cannot be captured at all by EA… since avoidance does not lead to errors, but to under-representation of words or structures in L2 elements for various reasons" (p. 63). In other words, exploring only the produced errors in L2 learning, EA seems to be unable to adequately account for many communication strategies employed by the learners, including avoidance behavior which results in non-errors. As discussed above, EA focuses on only errors. Yet, it does not necessarily mean that non-errors imply that language learners have no or minor difficulty using a particular structure in the L2. Sometimes, a few number of errors might indicate that the learners have such a serious problem with the L2 structure that they avoid employing it, and therefore, might be more serious than a large number of errors.

In short, CA and EA are employed to analyze causes of L2 learners' problems in SLA. The next section discusses interlanguage, the learner's unique linguistic system developed during a period of L2 target language learning.

2.3 Interlanguage

Interlanguage (IL) refers to the knowledge of an L2 which differs systematically from both learners' L1 and the L2, but is related to both languages. That is, it is neither the system of the native language (NL) nor the system of the target language (TL), but instead falls between the two (Selinker, 1972).

Regarded as a characteristic of L2 learners' language only, IL is shown when the learners attempt to express meanings in the target language. Through a gradual process of hypothesis forming and testing, L2 learners slowly succeed in establishing closer approximations to the system employed by native speakers of the target language.

One important concept of IL is the fossilization or the cessation of L2 learning. It has been shown that most L2 learners are unable to fully reach TL competence. As Selinker (1992) pointed out, fossilization might result from the fact that the learners stop acquiring TL when their IL contains some rules different from those of the TL system. Fossilized structures are often regarded as errors when learners have reached a stage in which their produced structure is different from that in the target language (Ellis, 1985).

There are five central cognitive processes related to L2 learners' IL. Selinker (1992) mentioned that these processes account for how the learners' interlanguage develops; consequently, an investigation of them might enable the researchers and language teachers to see a much more complete picture of the learners' language, both errors and non-errors. The five cognitive processes are as follows:

a) Native language transfer: The learners' L1 has some impact on IL development. The transfer might either facilitate or impede L2 learning.

b) Overgeneralization of TL rules: Learners may extend the use of a grammatical rule or linguistic item beyond its accepted uses.

c) Transfer of training: Learners apply a rule which they have learned from teachers or textbooks. This rule application is sometimes successful when the produced IL rule is identical to the TL rule. Yet, errors can result from previous training if the textbook or the instruction contains incorrect information.

d) Strategies of L2 learning: It is assumed that strategies of L2 learning are consciously employed in an attempt to master a TL. For instance, mnemonics, i.e. learning techniques that aid information retention, may be used to help L2 learners memorize vocabulary in the TL. Although these strategies are useful to language learning, they might sometimes bring about errors. To illustrate, an L1 English learner of L2 Spanish might use the word 'pot' in English to memorize that the Spanish word for 'duck' is 'pato,' but might end up employing 'pot' to refer to a duck instead (Tarone, 2006).

e) Strategies of L2 communication: When learners find that the linguistic item necessary for their communication in the target language is unavailable, they might employ a number of strategies of communication in order to express the meaning. The produced linguistic forms resulting from the use of these strategies might become permanent in the learner's IL.

Clearly, the interlanguage perspective assigns L2 learners an active role of rule-creator. As a whole, IL is systematic, and is always changing, and is affected by the learners' exposure to the L2 input and the subsequent restructuring of the whole system.

IL is associated with the avoidance phenomenon to a certain extent. In analyzing L2 learners' IL, apart from their production of L2 structures, the learners' underproduction is of equal importance. Liao and Fukuya (2004) confirmed that "the learner's avoidance behavior is a manifestation of interlanguage development" (p. 193). That is to say, avoidance is one of the L2 communication strategies that language learners, in their IL development, tend to employ when dealing with TL structures or items they find difficult or complicated.

2.4 English Participial Reduced Relative Clauses and Thai Reduced Relative Clauses

This section provides a comparison between English participial reduced relative clauses (PRRCs) and their closest counterpart in Thai, namely Thai reduced relative clauses (RRCs). 2.4.1 and 2.4.2 concern English PRRCs and Thai RRCs, respectively.

2.4.1 English Participial Reduced Relative Clauses

In order to discuss the English participial reduced relative clause, its integral part, namely the participle, should first be mentioned. According to Lee (2007), a participle is basically a non-finite verb or a verb whose form does not change based upon any noun phrase (NP) in the sentence, and thus, cannot function as the main verb in the predicate of a sentence. In English, a participle is a verb form in either of two inflectional affixes, i.e. '–ing' or '–ed', that is derived from a verb, modifies an NP, and corresponds to the tense form of the verb in terms of meaning (Gove, 1965). Despite its form as a verb, an English participle is considered adjectival because it describes a head NP, both in the subject position and the object position. As Shoemaker (1952) claimed, "the function of a participle is that of an adjective, the sense is that of a verb."

Loberger and Shoup (2009) stated that there are two basic types of English participles: (i) past participles, i.e. verbs in their base form with the '–ed' suffix (e.g. talked, consulted, and implied), and (ii) present participles or those with the '–ing' suffix (e.g. kicking, walking, and doing). Past participles are derived from passive voice constructions in which the recipient of the verbal action is the modified NP, whereas the present ones are derived from active voice constructions where the modified NP is the initiator of the verbal action. The participles usually appear in one type of non-finite clauses, i.e. participle clauses[2].

Generally, participle clauses function exactly as do adjectives or adverbs (Azar, 1999). They can modify NPs as adjectives, like in (1) and (2), or indicate the idea of "during the same time," "reason" or "cause and effect" in modifying adverbial clauses, as in (3), (4), and (5), respectively:

(1) The people **waiting for the bus in the rain** are getting wet. (Reduced from "The people who are waiting for the bus in the rain are getting wet" by omitting "who are")

2
Non-finite clauses are clauses which contain a non-finite verb. There are two types of non-finite clauses: infinitive clauses or clauses which include either the full infinitive (e.g. 'to walk') and the bare infinitive (e.g. 'walk'), and participle clauses, i.e. those which contain participles (Granger, 1997).

(2) Our solar system is in a galaxy **called the Milky Way. (**Reduced from **"Our solar system is in a galaxy** that is called the Milky Way" by omitting "that is")

<div align="right">(Azar, 1999: 291)</div>

(3) **Walking down the street**, I ran into an old friend. (Reduced from "While I was walking down the street, I ran into an old friend" by omitting "While I was")

<div align="right">(Azar, 1999: 376)</div>

(4) **Obscured by the hedge**, Grover was not detected by the police officer. (Reduced from "Because he was obscured by the hedge, Grover was not detected by the police officer" by omitting "Because he was")

(5) Bert tripped, **dropping the jug of milk**. (Reduced from "Bert tripped, so he dropped the jug of milk" by omitting "so he" and adding –ing suffix to the verb "drop")

<div align="right">(Loberger & Shoup, 2009: 213)</div>

One main context in which English participle clauses can occur is adjectival clauses, more widely known as relative clauses (RCs), i.e. dependent clauses that describe or provide information about the head noun within an NP. Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2005) claimed that an RC "is one type of nominal modifier which takes the form of a clause" (p. 243); accordingly, it can be stated that RCs are similar in function to adjectives. English RCs begin with a relative pronoun, i.e. a pronoun which connects the RC to an independent clause, and usually comes after the NP they

modify (Parrott, 2000)[3]. There are two types of English RCs: restrictive and non-restrictive RCs (Azar, 1999; Greenbaum & Nelson, 2009). Restrictive RCs are required to identify the NP they modify; however, the non-restrictive ones are not required as they offer additional information. One clear difference between the two types of RCs is that no commas are employed in the restrictive RCs, whereas, in the non-restrictive ones, commas are used.

To demonstrate, in (6), the RC is required to identify the lecturer who is referred to. In contrast, in (7), the listeners have been given the lecturer's last name, i.e. Wilson, and thus, assumed to know who he is; therefore, the RC is not required to identify Professor Wilson because it merely gives additional information.

(6) The professor **who teaches Chemistry 101** is an excellent lecturer.
(7) Professor Wilson, **who teaches Chemistry 101**, is an excellent lecturer.

(Azar, 1999: 281)

One crucial characteristic of English RCs is that they can be shortened by omitting relative pronouns (Azar, 1999; Parrott, 2000). The RCs can be curtailed in two ways. Firstly, some RCs can be shortened by omitting the relative pronoun only. Such

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[3] English relative pronouns include 'who,' 'which,' 'that,' 'what,' 'whom,' 'whose,' 'where,' 'when,' and 'why' (Parrott, 2000).

reduction is possible in the contexts where the relative pronoun is the object of an RC, and the verb in the RC has a subject (Parrott, 2000).

The relative pronouns 'which,' 'that,' and 'that' in sentences (8), (9), and (10) can be omitted because (i) they are objects of the RCs 'my brother bought,' 'Joe loves,' and 'you gave to Ralph' and (ii) 'my brother,' 'Joe,' and 'you' are subjects of the verbs 'bought,' 'loves,' and 'gave,' respectively.

(8) Susan is reading a book (which) my brother bought yesterday.
(9) Japan is a country (that) Joe loves.
(10) I love the cat (that) you gave to Ralph.

The second way of shortening English RCs requires other changes, apart from the omission of relative pronouns. Such reduction involves participle clauses. Specifically, the RCs which are reduced in this way are called "participial reduced relative clauses" (PRRCs) (Sleeman, 2006, p. 1). There are two ways of reducing English RCs to PRRCs. The first way is called whiz-deletion, where PRRCs are derived by omitting the relative pronoun and the verb 'be' (Aniya, 1989). As an example, in (11), the RC contains the verb 'present' in the past participle form with the NP, 'The ideas,' as the head NP and the recipient of the action 'are presented in that book':

(11) The ideas **which are presented in that book** are good.

(Azar, 1999: 290)

In (12), the verb 'talk' in the present participle form modifies the head NP 'The man' which is the initiator of the action 'talking to John':

(12) The man **who is talking to John** is from Korea.

<div align="right">(Azar, 1999: 290)</div>

The RCs in (11) and (12) can be reduced to be PRRCs by omitting the relative pronouns 'which' and 'who,' and the verb 'be,' as in (13) and (14), respectively:

(13) The ideas **presented in that book** are good.
(14) The man **talking to John** is from Korea.

The second way of shortening RCs into PRRCs applies to only relative clauses which do not contain verb 'be'. Azar (1999) demonstrated that such RCs can be reduced by omitting the relative pronoun and changing the verb into the present participle form. For example, (15) can be curtailed into (16) by deleting the relative pronoun 'who', and adding the '–ing' suffix to the present tense form of the verb 'want' in the RC:

(15) Students **who want** to enter the school must pass the IELTS tests.
(16) Students **wanting** to enter the school must pass the IELTS tests.

Since PRRCs are derived from RCs, they have the same meaning. Consequently, the meanings of sentences (11), (12), and (15) are identical to those of sentences (13), (14), and (16), respectively.

The reduction to the PRRC form applies to both types of English RCs: restrictive and non-restrictive RCs (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2009). Contrast the restrictive RC in (17) and the non-restrictive one in (18):

(17)   The study **concerning Second Language Acquisition** was written by John Hubert.

(18)   Her new study, **concerning Second Language Acquisition**, is on the desk.

However, there are some exceptions to the reduction of English RCs to PRRCs. Hewings (2000) pointed out that there are three cases where an RC cannot be shortened into a PRRC with present participle:

a) When there is an NP between the relative pronoun and the verb in the RC:

(19)   The man **who Tim is meeting for lunch** is from Taiwan. (*not* The man Tim meeting...)

(Hewings, 2000: 148)

The RC in (19) cannot be reduced into PRRC because there is an NP, i.e. Tim, between the relative pronoun 'who' and the VP 'is meeting for lunch' in the RC.

b) When the event or action discussed in the RC precedes the event or action discussed in the main clause, except when the second event or action is caused by the first one.

To illustrate, the RC in (20) cannot be shortened into PRRC as the action of 'falling' of the head NP 'The snow' comes before the second action 'turning to ice'. Yet, the RC in (21) can be reduced because the event discussed in the main clause, namely the traffic chaos, is the consequence of the first event, i.e. the falling snow.

(20)   The snow **which fell overnight** has turned to ice. (*not* The snow **falling overnight**…)

(21)   The snow **which fell overnight** has caused traffic chaos. (*or* The snow **falling overnight** has caused traffic chaos.)

(Hewings, 2000: 148)

c) When a single completed action in the RC is discussed, rather than a continuous action. Compare (22) and (23):

(22)   The girl **who fell over on the ice** broke her arm. (*not* The girl **falling over**…)

(23)   I pulled off the sheets **which covered the furniture**. (*or*… sheets **covering the furniture**.)

(Hewings, 2000: 148)

For example, the RC in (22) cannot be shortened into PRRC because the action of 'falling' of the head NP 'The girl' is a single completed action; however, the RC in (23) can be reduced as the action of 'covering' of the head NP 'the sheets' shows a continuous action.

Hewings (2000) further stated that there are two exceptions to the reduction to PRRCs with the past participle:

d) When there is an NP between the relative pronoun and the verb in the RC:

The RCs in (24) and (25) cannot be reduced into PRRC because there are NPs, i.e. 'decisions' and 'club members', between the relative pronouns 'which' and 'that' and the VPs 'are made in the company' and 'are being asked to vote on at tonight's meeting' in the RCs.

(24)   The speed at **which decisions are made in the company** is worrying. (*not* The speed **made**...)

(25)   The issue **that club members are being asked to vote on at tonight's meeting** is that of a fee increase... (*not* The issue **being asked to vote on**...)

(Hewings, 2000: 148)

e) When the RC includes a modal verb:

(26)   There are many people **who should be asked**. (*not*... many people **asked**.)

(Hewings, 2000: 148)

In addition, Marvin (2002) demonstrated that PRRCs with the past participle are possible only with participles of passive (25), but not transitive active verbs (26).

(25)   The book **bought by John** is red.

(26)   *The man **bought the book** is John.

<div align="right">(Marvin, 2002: 141)</div>

Marvin also observed a restriction concerning the state of the modified NP. He claimed that the state which is shown by the past participle in PRRCs must hold at the time of utterance. For instance, (27) is unacceptable because, at the time of the utterance, the NP 'The apples' is not in the state 'fallen from the table' expressed by the participle in the PRRC:

(27)   *The apples **fallen from the table** are back on the table.

<div align="right">(Marvin, 2002: 151)</div>

Discussed above are the main characteristics of the English PRRC structure. The next subsection presents Thai reduced relative clauses.

2.4.2 Thai Reduced Relative Clauses

There is no Thai equivalent of the English PRRC. The closest Thai structure is the reduced relative clause (RRC) or the RC without a relative pronoun (Yaowapat & Prasithrathsint, 2006). In this subsection, the Thai RC structure will be discussed first.

Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2005) stated that Thai and English RCs are similar in that the RC follows a head NP, and that a relative pronoun such as /thîi, sîŋ, and

ʔan/, immediately precedes the RC[4]. Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom also categorized Thai

RCs into two types: subject RCs, i.e. the RCs whose head NP is the subject of the verb

in the RCs, and object RCs or those in which the head NP is the object of the verb in

the RCs. Examples of the subject RC and the object RC are shown in (28) and (29),

respectively:

(28) khon   [thîi   duulɛɛ]   níi | pen   acaan   lə̌
      person   Rel   take care PP[5] COP[6]   teacher   QP[7]

      'Is the person who takes care of the students (in the dorm) a teacher?'

                                                    (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005: 243)

(29) wíchaa   nǎy   [thîi   kháw   tham   dâay   dii   thîi-sùt]
      subject   which Rel   3[8]   do   get/ASP[9] good   SPR[10]

      'Which subject is it that she is best in?'

                                                    (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005: 244)

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[4] According to Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2005), /thîi, sîŋ, and ʔan/ are equivalent to 'that' in

English. /thîi/ is the most common, and is employed in several contexts, while /sîŋ/ and /ʔan/

appear more often in formal and literal texts.

[5] PP = Pragmatic particle (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

[6] COP = Copula (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

[7] QP = Question particle (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

[8] 3 = Third-person pronoun (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

[9] ASP = Aspect auxiliary (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

[10] SPR = Superlative (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

As mentioned, there is no Thai counterpart of the English PRRC. This is probably because of three main differences between these two languages.

The first difference concerns the conditions under which the relative pronouns in RCs can be omitted. In English, the relative pronouns 'which,' 'who,' and 'that' in RCs can be deleted in most cases, whether in the subject or object positions; however, Thai subordinate clause markers can be omitted under much fewer conditions. According to Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2005), there are only two cases where relative pronouns in Thai RCs can be omitted.

First of all, it is possible to delete a relative pronoun from a subject RC that gives a general description of the head NP:

In (30), the RC, /pay sayǎam/ 'going to Siam' offers a general description of the head NP /rót-mee/ 'bus', which is the subject in the relative clause. Hence, the relative pronoun /thîi/ in this example can be omitted.

(30) rót-mee [(thîi) pay sayǎam] còɔt pâay níi máy khráp

      bus   (Rel)   go Siam Square stop   board this QP SLP[11]

'Does the bus that goes to Siam Square stop at this bus stop?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005: 250)

Similarly, in (31), the RC, /rian kèŋ/ 'studying well' indicates the general

character of the head NP /dek/ 'child', which is the subject in the subordinate clause.

As a result, /thîi/ can be deleted.

(31)   èk   pen   dek   [(thîi)   rian   kèŋ]

    (name)   COP   child   (Rel)   study   well

'Ek is a child who studies well'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005: 250)

Secondly, a Thai relative pronoun can be omitted in cases where the head NP

modified by an RC can be considered "a definable category of people with a specific

role" (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005). Consider (32) and (33):

(32)   khon   [(thîi)   tham   kàp-khâaw mûa-waan-níi] pen   khray

    person (Rel) make   dishes   yesterday   COP   who

  'Who is the person who cooked yesterday?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005: 250)

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[11] SLP = Speech level particle (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

(33)   khon   [thîi   yɯɯn   troŋ   nán]   pen   khray

        person   Rel   stand   right   there   COP   who

'Who is the person who stood over there?'

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005: 250)

The reason why /thîi/ is optional in (32) is because it is possible to consider

/khon tham kàp-khâaw/ 'a person who fixed a meal' a definable category of a person

with a particular role, i.e. a cook. In contrast, /thîi/ in (33) cannot be omitted as it is

impossible to take into account /khon thîi yɯɯn troŋ nán/ 'a person who is standing

there' as a definable category with a specific role.

Clearly, compared to English, there are many fewer conditions under which

relative pronouns can be deleted in Thai RCs. Furthermore, despite the possibilities for

deleting subordinate clause markers in their L1, Thais usually do not omit them. As

Lekawatana, Littell, Scovel, and Spenser (1969) asserted, "Relative pronouns are never

deleted in Thai" (p. 102). This can lead to confusion for L1 Thai learners when learning

English PRRCs.

In addition to the fewer conditions under which Thai relative pronouns can be

omitted, Thai's lack of inflectional affixes accounts for why the English PRRC structure

does not have any Thai counterpart. That is to say, English has the inflectional affixes '–ing' and '–ed' to express the active and the passive states, respectively. On the other hand, Thai does not possess such affixes (Lekawatana et al., 1969). Instead, separate words are employed to indicate the aspects. Specifically, /yùu/, /yaŋ/, which mean 'still,' or /kamlaŋ/ which means 'presently,' is used for the continuous aspect, whereas /thùuk/, /doon/ or /dây-ráp/ can express the passive (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005). Since Thais add any significant information to an utterance by employing an independent word, inflectional affixes in English, including '–ing' and '–ed', may possibly lead to confusion for them.

The last difference is about how RCs in English and those in Thai are shortened. In English, PRRCs reduced from their RC form involve not only the relative pronoun omission, but also other changes, either deleting a verb 'to be' or adding the '–ing' suffix to the verb in the RCs. Conversely, the reduction of Thai RCs requires the omission of Thai subordinate clause markers only.

Therefore, because of the three characteristics of Thai: (i) the fewer conditions under which Thai relative pronouns can be deleted, (ii) a lack of the inflectional affix system, and (iii) the more restricted RC reduction which requires the omission of

relative pronouns only, L1 Thai learners may be likely to employ an English RC, rather

than its reduced form with participles.

2.5 Avoidance Behavior

In Second Language Acquisition, avoidance behavior is a phenomenon

where an L2 learner frequently avoids employing either a difficult L2 structure or a

TL form which is non-existent in their L1, and turns to using a simpler structure or

form which exists in their mother tongue (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 2002)[12]. It should

be noted that such behavior was also introduced as a category of communication

strategies (Pazhakh, 2007; Prapobratanakul & Kangkun, 2011). Tarone (1980) pointed

out that communication strategies are two conversation participants' endeavors to

agree on a meaning in situations where they do not share common understanding

of certain linguistic structures or items. That is, when the speakers aim to

communicate a particular meaning, but find that they lack linguistic or

sociolinguistic knowledge to do so, they may need to employ certain strategies,

including refusal to communicate that meaning. Tarone, Cohen, & Dumas (1983)

proposed and developed a taxonomy of communication strategies, which included

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[12] Avoidance behavior is also referred to as 'the low representation' (Levenston, 1971), 'the play-it-safe behavior' (Hulstijin & Marchena, 1989) or 'the escape route' (Ickenroth, 1975).

avoidance behavior. In their taxonomy, there are two types of avoidance strategies: topic avoidance and message abandonment. Topic avoidance is L2 learners' refusal to discuss concepts for which the TL vocabulary or structure is not known. The second type is message abandonment where L2 learners may cut short the discourse or stop in mid-sentence due to their lack of the TL knowledge (Prapobratanakul & Kangkun, 2011).

However, in the present study, a greater emphasis is placed on the avoidance behavior as an SLA phenomenon. As stated earlier, avoidance behavior is a phenomenon where L2 learners avoid using a particular L2 structure or word, but employ a simpler one instead. For example, Dušková (1969) examined Czech learners' L2 English, and found that his subjects did not show problems about producing one English structure because they avoided using it, and turned to employing paraphrase, or near-equivalents instead.

According to Odlin (1989), avoidance manifests itself in two ways: (i) underproduction, the situation where language learners might produce very few or no examples of an L2 structure or item, and (ii) overproduction, the situation in which a particular L2 structure is overused as a result of the underproduction of another structure the learners found complicated or difficult.

Regarding the L2 items or structures which tend to be avoided, Pazhakh (2007) stated that there are two factors that should be considered: simplicity and order of the taught items or structures. Firstly, Pazhakh found that the research participants in his study were likely to avoid producing complicated structures, and turn to employing simpler ones. The researcher observed that the participants preferred simple sentences to compound ones, and compound sentences to complex ones. To illustrate, the majority of subjects wrote two simple sentences "We can see there was a man. He was attacking a woman," rather than the more complex RC "We can see a man who was attacking a woman" (p. 6). The second factor which might determine what L2 learners tend to avoid is the order of the taught items or structures. In other words, learners are more likely to employ words or structures which were taught to them earlier in their educational career, and avoid those which were taught more recently. For instance, to refer to the man climbing over the window into the room of a man at night, most of Pazhakh's participants used the word "thief" which was taught in high school, but the more appropriate word "burglar" which was learnt during their university studies was used by only one participant.

Classification of the phenomenon of avoidance has been made in two ways. First of all, Blum and Levenston (1978) grouped avoidance into two types by whether the learners have knowledge about the avoided items: apparent avoidance and true avoidance. Apparent avoidance results from the learners' lack of vocabulary or linguistic knowledge. In other words, they do not know the word or form being avoided. In contrast, true avoidance occurs in situations where the learners have knowledge about the word or form they avoid, but choose not to use it. Secondly, Kellerman (1992) divided avoidance among language learners into three types. Type 1 occurs when learners realize the existence of a problem and have at least an idea of what the target form is like. Type 2 occurs when the learners know what the target is, but find it too complicated to employ (e.g. L1 Chinese learners' use of two English simple sentences instead of an RC which is more complex). Type 3 occurs when the learners know what and how to say the form, but they are unlikely to use it because it is against their own norms of behavior.

Pazhakh (2007) classified causes of avoidance behavior into two types: objective and subjective causes. Objective causes are beyond the L2 learners' control. This type of cause mainly includes external factors such as L1-L2

differences, and the learners' low exposure to comprehensible input involving the avoided L2 items. Conversely, subjective causes are internal factors, including the teachers and the L2 learners' attitudes toward errors as well as the learners' fear of difficulties. For instance, Moghimizadeh (2008) observed that the participants in his study were likely to employ avoidance strategies to prevent them from making errors, particularly in moments of anxiety such as during exams.

As mentioned, avoidance behavior refers to a phenomenon where an L2 learner avoids using either a difficult L2 structure or a TL form which is non-existent in their L1, and employs a simpler structure or form which exists in their mother tongue instead. However, it must be ensured that the learners have knowledge of a particular structure before they are said to be avoiding it. As Klienmann (1978) stated, "avoidance presupposes choice" (p. 158). If the learners lack the knowledge, their non-production will not be considered avoidance, but negligence. As an example, Tarone, Frauenfelder, and Selinker (1975) claimed that young learners of French often avoided talking about concepts for which their vocabulary was lacking. Yet, the observed non-use in this study is not the case because the subjects lacked vocabulary about those concepts. In his study examining four English grammatical structures (i.e. passive construction, present progressive, infinitive complement, and

direct object pronouns) produced by two groups of intermediate learners of L2

English (i.e. Arabic speakers and Spanish/Portuguese learners), Klienmann (1978)

proposed a way of determining whether the learners have knowledge of what they

are avoiding. In the first place, he gave his participants a comprehension test,

namely a test to ensure they had knowledge of the given structures. Then, indirect

preference assessment tasks, i.e. tests investigating the subjects' preference

between choices, were administered to them in order to see whether they would

avoid actual production of those structures. The results showed that the subjects

for whom CA predicted the structures would be difficult avoided producing those

structures and, thus, produced fewer errors.

Furthermore, it has been claimed that L2 learners' underproduction of a

particular structure in an L2 does not necessarily mean avoidance. Carrying out a

study on Hebrew-speaking learners' avoidance of English passive voice construction,

Kamimoto, Shimura, and Kellerman (1992) stated that simply demonstrating

knowledge of an L2 structure is inadequate. Participants might know how to use the

structure in the L2, but their infrequent use of it might indicate their preference for

active voice over passive voice in L1 Hebrew, rather than avoidance. Consequently,

in cases where the underproduced structure exists in the L2 learners' mother-

tongue, it is important to show that the structure is not underused because the L1

equivalent structure is rarely used in the NL.

The study of avoidance behavior among L2 learners is of fairly recent

origin. It was first brought to light by Schachter (1974). Schachter conducted a study

to explore restrictive RCs produced by native speakers of Chinese, Japanese,

Arabian, and Persian. Fifty English compositions by the ESL learners were compared

with those of a group of native speakers of American English. The results showed

that the number of errors regarding the structure the Chinese and the Japanese

learners committed was lower than that of the Arabic and the Persian learners.

Interestingly, it was also found that the Arabic and Persian speakers produced RCs

at similar rates to the native speakers of American English (154 RCs in the Arabic

group, 174 RCs in the Persian group, and 173 RCs in the American group), whereas

the Chinese and Japanese speakers produced fewer RCs (76 RCs in the Chinese

group, 63 RCs in the Japanese group). This was consistent with a contrastive analysis

of these four languages. The CA prediction was that, because in Chinese and

Japanese, the RCs occur to the left of head NPs, whereas, in Arabic and Persian,

they occur to the right of head NPs, like in English, the difference between

Chinese/Japanese RCs and English ones is greater than that between Arabic/Persian

and English. Accordingly, Chinese and Japanese speakers might have more difficulties acquiring English RCs. This is why they are more likely to avoid employing this English structure, accounting for the lower number of RCs produced. Schachter explained this phenomenon as 'avoidance behavior'.

Schachter claimed that avoidance is caused by negative transfer because L2 learners are likely to avoid employing L2 forms that do not exist in their L1, and thus, provide them with no pattern for transfer. She concluded that "if a student finds a particular construction in the target language difficult to comprehend it is very likely that he will try to avoid producing it" (p. 213). She also confirmed that error analysis, which is prevalent in previous language transfer studies, would not have been able to detect that learners have a problem with a particular structure in the L2 because it emphasizes actual errors produced only, but never adequately accounts for the L2 learners' linguistic systems and communication strategies they might use, including avoidance. Schachter pointed out that it is important to investigate not only the L2 forms that were actually produced by the learners of a foreign language, but also those they might consistently avoid employing. This study has been regarded as a milestone in the study of avoidance behavior in SLA, and since then, the phenomenon has attracted a considerable amount of interest

among researchers and language teachers concerned with the process of acquiring a second language.

As a result of the findings of several studies on avoidance behavior, it has been proposed that the best predictor of the phenomenon is L1-L2 differences (Laufer & Eliasson, 1993). As Mattar (2003) claimed, "avoidance is due to lack of correspondence between the target language structures and those of the learner's mother tongue" (p. 104). In their study, Dagut and Laufer (1985) looked at the performance on English phrasal verbs of L1 Israeli learners, who do not have phrasal verb equivalents in their L1. Three groups of Hebrew learners took three tests: a multiple-choice test, a verb-translation test, and a verb-memorization test. The results showed that most subjects avoided using English phrasal verbs because of differences between the L1 and the L2. Due to the lack of Hebrew translation-equivalents for the English, the Hebrew subjects probably found such verbs confusing. Therefore, they avoided what they did not properly understand, preferring one-word verbs instead. Dagut and Laufer then concluded that the Hebrew learners' difficulty in producing English phrasal verbs could not be explained by any intralingual factors such as "faulty internalization of rules," "fossilization," and "overgeneralization" (See detailed discussions of error analysis

in 2.2). Instead, it could only be understood by an interlingual approach, that is, structural differences between Hebrew and English. Hence, this study provides strong evidence that the differences between the learners' L1 and the L2 could result in the avoidance behavior.

In a subsequent study of the avoidance of English phrasal verbs, Laufer and Eliasson (1993) gave two tests: a multiple-choice test and a translation test, to the research participants, i.e. advanced Swedish learners of English, whose native language has a phrasal verb structure. The results of the study were compared with those of Dagut and Laufer (1985) and the researchers observed that phrasal verbs in the L2 were avoided by learners whose L1 lacked such verb type (Hebrew), but were produced by those who possessed the verb category in their L1 (Swedish). This led Laufer and Eliasson to conclude that the best predictor of avoidance was L1-L2 differences.

The statement that L1-L2 differences lead L2 learners to avoid certain structures or items in the target language is also substantiated by Moghimizadeh (2008). The researcher found that Persian university students majoring in TEFL tended to resort to avoidance strategies when they had to produce RCs and PRRCs in written work. It was shown that the avoidance resulted from grammatical

differences between English and Farsi with respect to these two structures, and that

these structures were difficult because of the complex grammatical rules

surrounding the structures. Likewise, Maniruzzaman (2008) found that their L1

Bengali research participants demonstrated a tendency to avoid using RCs, the

passive construction, the present progressive, and the infinitive complement mainly

because of differences between the learners' L1 and the L2.

In spite of a number of studies with similar results, the statement that

avoidance is caused by either differences between the learners' L1 and L2 or non-

existence of a particular L2 structure in their mother tongue has been contradicted

by some researchers studying the phenomenon. As shown in the following

empirical research, there are other possible factors that can influence L2 learners'

avoidance behavior.

Irujo (1986) carried out a study to explore L1 Spanish subjects' avoidance

of English idioms. The findings show that the participants who were highly proficient

speakers of English did not avoid using idioms when they were asked to translate

Spanish paragraphs containing idioms into English. Yet, Ijuro noted that, although

the participants produced the idioms in the written translation task where "it was

obvious to them that an idiom was expected" (p. 213), it did not necessarily mean

that they would produce such expressions in other contexts or other types of elicitation tasks. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the nature of the elicitation task could affect the subjects' avoidance.

In addition, similarities between language learners' L1 and L2 might be a possible cause of their avoidance behavior. Hulstijn and Marchena (1989) followed up on Dagut and Laufer's (1985) study. They explored performance on phrasal verb tasks of Dutch learners, whose L1 has such verbs. The subjects were given three tests: a multiple-choice test, a memorization test, and a translation test. The researchers found that the participants avoided the figurative phrasal verbs that were translation equivalents of Dutch verbs. For instance, they avoided the idiomatic verb 'go off', which corresponds to the Dutch word 'Afgaan' in terms of meaning. This indicates that the subjects avoided the phrasal verbs that they perceived as too "Dutch-like" (p. 241), suggesting that similarities between the L1 and the L2 might give rise to the learners' avoidance.

Mattar (2003) also confirmed the influence the similarities between the learners' L1 and L2 has upon their avoidance. He examined L1 Arab learners' avoidance of the adversative subordinating conjunctions 'despite/in spite of' and the complex preposition 'because of' in English across various levels of language

proficiency. The subjects took two translation tasks: Arabic-English and English-Arabic translation tests. The findings revealed that the aforementioned conjunctions and prepositions were frequently avoided, and replaced by the conjunctions 'although' and 'because', respectively. Although structures of Arabic are linguistically similar to those of English, the Arabic-speaking participants of this study avoided them. The results suggest that, despite similarities between the learners' L1 and L2, avoidance might still exist.

In her study investigating the avoidance of English phrasal verbs by three groups of L1 Korean learners with different backgrounds, You (1999) claimed that the causes of the phenomenon should not be restricted to only structural differences between L1 and L2, but should be explained from several perspectives. In order to test her claim, the researcher asked her subjects to do three tests, i.e. a verb elicitation test, a verb translation test, and a verb multiple choice test. It was found that the educational methodology, natural settings in L2 learning, and the major fields of their study were significant factors accounting for differences in the avoidance behavior among the different groups of subjects. Consequently, to account for the phenomenon among different groups of L2 learners, the use of

linguistic factors only might be inadequate, but other several factors, including the learners' environments should be also considered.

Besides this, it has been proposed that the L2 learners' proficiency level is a significant factor determining the extent to which they resort to avoidance strategies. Mattar's (2003) results showed that less advanced learners relied on avoidance behavior more greatly than their more advanced counterparts did. It has been assumed that more advanced participants are more competent, and thus, more confident when communicating in the L2. Liao and Fukuya (2004) explored the avoidance of English phrasal verbs among Chinese learners, and assumed that the learners' proficiency levels might have an impact on their underproduction of the verbs. The subjects were divided into two groups according to their proficiency levels: intermediate and advanced. The participants took one of three tests: a multiple-choice test, a translation test, and a recall test. The findings indicated that the intermediate learners tended to avoid producing phrasal verbs, whereas the advanced learners did not. Pazhakh (2007) also confirmed that language proficiency has a direct effect on L2 learners' avoidance. Conducting an intensive study to examine Iranian EFL learners' use of avoidance strategies in their writings, the

researcher found that the subjects of lower proficiency were likely to employ

avoidance strategies more frequently than those of higher proficiency.

In her study regarding the avoidance of phrasal verbs by Korean EFL

learners of English, Kweon (2006) compared the participants with Liao and Fukuya's

(2004) Chinese ESL learners. Two tests, i.e. a multiple choice test and a translation

test, with two types of phrasal verbs, i.e. literal and figurative phrasal verbs, were

administered to two groups of Korean EFL learners, namely intermediate and

advanced groups. It was observed that, apart from differences between first and

second languages and the semantic difficulty of the phrasal verbs, the L2

environment (English as a Second Language (ESL) vs. English as a Foreign Language

(EFL)) might have an influence over avoidance behavior[13]. The findings show that

the Chinese ESL learners employed phrasal verbs more frequently than the Korean

EFL ones did. This suggests that the degree of avoidance among the L2 learners

might depend on the environment in which they live. That is to say, the ESL

environment seems to facilitate phrasal verb usage better than the EFL

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[13] ESL refers to studying English in a place where English is the native language, whereas EFL is studying English in a location where English is not the mother tongue (Al-Hashash, 2007).

environment does because the learners in the first context are more likely to be

exposed to spoken English than those in the latter context.

As previously seen, most avoidance behavior studies examined L2 learners'

underproduction of English phrasal verbs or RCs, with little attention given to the PRRC

structure. Yet, Granger (1997) found that, among L2 learners of English, the PRRC is one

of the most frequently avoided structures. The researcher conducted a study to

compare the use of participle clauses, including the PRRCs, in the academic writing of

native speakers of English, and that of three groups of advanced EFL learners from

different L1s: French, Swedish, and Dutch. The reason why the use of the PRRC

structure in the formal academic writing context was examined is that the structure

has been found to appear more frequently in such a context than in the context of

spoken narratives, which is less formal (Granger, 1997). The produced participle clauses

were analyzed in terms of frequency, syntactic pattern, and discourse function. The

results showed a statistically significant underproduction of the PRRCs with both

present and past participles by the L2 learners, compared with the use of the native

speakers of English. A lack of the PRRCs in the academic writing of the EFL learners was

explained through two reasons. The first reason concerned the lack of emphasis given

to the PRRC structure in EFL teaching material. That is, the PRRC has been

inadequately explained in EFL grammars; therefore, the L2 learners might be unsure about how and when the structure should be employed. The second reason involved language transfer. Specifically, the PRRC is either non-existent or much less frequently used in the participants' native languages, i.e. French, Swedish, and Dutch, resulting in their tendency to avoid the structure.

L2 learners' avoidance of English PRRCs might be related to the fact that the structure can give rise to ambiguity or difficulty of understanding sentences in which it appears. Parrott (2000) demonstrated that, "comprehension is a problem particularly when relative pronouns are left out. Learners may not only fail to understand the message, but may be baffled by the structure of the sentence if they try to analyze it" (p. 356). It is possible that, if the L2 learners have trouble understanding the PRRC, they probably have problems producing the structure as well. Such difficulty, coupled with the availability of a more easily understood equivalent structure, namely the RC, might lead the learners to avoid using the PRRC. The problem is more likely to occur when the learners are faced with PRRCs with past participles, than when they deal with present participles. Carroll (2008) claimed that English PRRCs, particularly those with past participles, are momentarily difficult to comprehend as the same form of a verb can be interpreted as either the

past tense form (e.g. 'The florist <u>sent</u> the flowers to the widow') or the past

participial form (e.g. 'The florist <u>sent</u> the flowers was very pleased') of the verb. On

the other hand, PRRCs with present participles are usually more easily recognized

because the present participial form (e.g. 'The man <u>standing</u> in front of the school')

is different from other related forms, i.e. the present progressive (e.g. 'The man <u>is</u>

<u>standing</u> in front of the school'), i.e. 'verb + ing' and 'be' + verb +ing', respectively.

Accordingly, it can be concluded that the participle types ('-ed' or '–ing') can affect

L2 learners' avoidance of English PRRCs.

Moreover, in spite of many studies on avoidance behavior among L2

learners, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, only two existing studies

investigated the phenomenon among L1 Thai learners (Chotiros & Pongpairoj, 2012;

Thiamtawan, 2012). Chotiros and Pongpairoj examined whether two groups of L1

Thai-speaking subjects from different levels, namely 9th grade and 11th grade

students, would avoid employing the passive construction in English. The

researchers hypothesized that, despite the existence of the passive in their L1, the

participants tended to have difficulty using the structure in English due to its

complexity. Semi-replicating Klienmann's (1978) methodology, the research

instrument for this study consisted of two tests: a comprehension test and an

indirect preference assessment task. In the latter test, the participants were asked

to look at pictures and to answer questions designed to elicit the passive voice.

Surprisingly, it was found that, although neither group of subjects had mastered the

English passive construction, as supported by a great number of errors in their

production, they were unlikely to demonstrate avoidance behavior of the passive

construction. The participants' lack of avoidance behavior was attributed to

similarities between the passives in Thai and English and the increased use of this

structure in Thai.

Thiamtawan (2012) explored whether L1 Thai learners would avoid

producing English PRRCs with present participles. His subjects were given a

comprehension test and an indirect preference assessment task, in this case, a Thai-

English translation test. The participants were shown to avoid using the given

structure. Their underproduction of English PRRCs with present participles was

possibly caused by verb types, i.e. stative and dynamic verbs[14]. That is to say, many

participants said that stative verbs (e.g. 'want,' 'love,' and 'have') can be used with

the RC structure only because they were taught that stative verbs cannot be used

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[14] Stative verbs are the verbs which are not usually used in continuous tenses, whereas dynamic verbs are those employed in progressive tenses (Sinclair, 1997).

with the suffix '–ing' in the present progressive tense, whereas dynamic verbs (e.g. 'sleep,' 'lie,' and 'stand') can be used with both the RC and PRRC structures. This explanation suggests that verb types can affect use of the PRRCs with present participles.

As mentioned earlier, the English PRRC structure has been given little emphasis in SLA studies on the avoidance behavior among L2 learners (e.g. Mattar, 1997). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is only one study of avoidance of PRRCs among L1 Thai learners (Thiamtawan, 2012); however, the study deals with the PRRCs with present participles only. Besides, Carroll (2008) suggested that the participle types might have an impact on L2 learners' avoidance of English PRRCs, and Thiamtawan (2012) found that L2 learners' underproduction of the structure might be affected by verb types. Thus, the present study aims to bridge this gap by examining whether or not two factors: the participle types and the verb types, could influence the avoidance of English PRRCs with present and past participles among L1 Thai learners.

Discussed above are the main areas relevant to the present study. The next chapter provides the methodology employed in this thesis.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology used in the present study. Section 3.1 discusses research instruments. Section 3.2 is concerned with research participants. Sections 3.3 and 3.4 deal with data collection and data analysis, respectively.

3.1 Research Instruments

The research instruments used in this study were a comprehension test and two indirect preference assessment tasks.

3.1.1 Comprehension Test

The comprehension test in this research study was a semi-replication of Klienmann's (1978) instrument. The L1 Thai subjects were given a test of twenty multiple-choice questions to check whether they comprehend the English PRRC structure or not. Eight of the items tested the participants' comprehension of the structure, and were interspersed with twelve distracters. Among the test items, four included the PRRC with present participle, and the other four involved the PRRC

with past participle. The lead sentences of four test items showed the PRRC, whereas, for those of the other four, the RC was given.

The researcher employed Klienmann's score calculation method. That is, the subjects were asked to rate their confidence in each answer on a five-point scale ranging from "completely unsure" (0) to "completely sure" (4). Their score was a comprehension score for the PRRC structure which took the participants' confidence ratings into consideration by weighting the score on each answer depending on the degree of their confidence. Specifically, when a participant answered an item correctly, the score for the item ranged from 0, if their reported confidence was "completely unsure," to +4, in case their confidence was "completely sure". Confidence ratings of "mostly unsure," "half sure-half unsure," and "mostly sure" led to a positive score of +1, +2, and +3, respectively. Conversely, if the item was answered incorrectly, the research participant got a score ranging from 0, in cases where they stated "completely unsure," to -4, if they were "completely sure". In short, the subject's score for each item was affected by whether their answer was correct, and their degree of confidence.

Below shows an example question from the comprehension test:

(34)   <u>The children attending that school</u> receive a good education.

What does the underlined part refer to?

a.   The school which is famous for giving students a good education
b.   The children who attend that school
c.   The children who want to receive a good education
d.   A and B are correct.
e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4

Completely Unsure   Mostly Unsure   Half-sure/ half-unsure   Mostly Sure   Completely Sure

To illustrate, for the given item, if an informant chose the correct answer, namely choice B, their score for the item would range from 0 to +4, depending on their reported confidence about the answer. On the other hand, if they answered the item incorrectly, their score would range from 0 to -4.

The highest score for each item was +4, and there were eight test items; therefore, the maximum score for the comprehension test was +32. Subjects who scored lower than 80% of the total score, namely 25 points or below, were excluded from the study, as their comprehension of the English PRRC structure seemed uncertain. Only those participants whose score was 25 or higher were included in the analysis (See the comprehension test in Appendix A).

3.1.2 Indirect Preference Assessment Task

The indirect preference assessment task (or the IPA task) consisted of two tests: a cloze test and a Thai-English translation test. Test items in these two tasks had two properties in common. Firstly, the test items involved four sentence forms which resulted from combinations of the two factors: the participle types ('-ed' and '-ing') and the verb types (dynamic and stative verbs). Each sentence form was given four items, totaling sixteen test items per test. The four sentence forms are shown in Table 2:

Table 2: Four Sentence Forms from Combinations of Two Factors: Participle Types and Verb Types

No.	Participle Types	Verb Types
1	-ed	Dynamic Verb
2	-ed	Stative Verb
3	-ing	Dynamic Verb
4	-ing	Stative Verb

Secondly, to keep the variables constant, all NPs which were modified by the RC/PRRC structures were singular, countable, and concrete NPs only such as 'a city,' 'the man,' and 'a book.'

3.1.2.1 Cloze Test

For the cloze test, the participants were given forty items, all of which contained a blank. Two structures or forms which were identical in terms of meaning were given for each blank. Sixteen test items were given a pair of RC and PRRC structures, and were interspersed with twenty-four distracters. In order to investigate the subjects' preference, they were asked to choose the choice they preferred.

An example question from the cloze test is provided below:

(35)   A hot air balloon consists of two parts. The first part is an envelope _____ heated air and a passenger carrier.

    a) which contains
    b) containing

(See the cloze test in Appendix B)

3.1.2.2 Thai-English Translation Test

After the research participants had taken the cloze test, the Thai-English translation test was immediately administered to them. The test contained twenty-four Thai sentences and their English equivalents. Three blanks were given for each English item. Two structures or forms which were identical in terms of meaning

were provided for each blank. Sixteen test items contained a pair of the RC and

PRRC structures, and were interspersed with eight distracters.

A sample question from the Thai-English translation test is shown below:

(36)   "**มีคนชื่นชมคุณนายจอห์นสันเยอะนะครับ** เธอเคยบอกกับผมว่า เธอเป็นเพียงผู้หญิงคน
          หนึ่ง**ที่เชื่อ**ในคำกล่าวที่ว่า ความพยายามอยู่ที่ไหน ความสำเร็จอยู่ที่นั่น ตอนนี้ธุรกิจ
          ส่งออกของเธอ**ประสบความสำเร็จ**มาก"

"(a) _____. She told me that she is just a woman (b) _____ in the
statement "Where there's a will, there's a way". Now, her export business
is very (c) _____."

(a) Many people admire Mrs. Johnson; Mrs. Johnson is admired by many
     people
(b) believing; who believes
(c) successful; prosperous

(See the Thai-English translation test in Appendix C)

It should be noted that the Thai-English translation tests given to the L1

Thai research participants included the Thai sentences, whereas those administered

to the native speakers of English did not.

3.2 Research Participants

There were three groups of research participants in the present study: a

native control group, an L1 English-speaking group, and an L1 Thai-speaking group.

The first one was the native control group which comprised three native speakers of English who were English lecturers at the Faculty of Arts, Department of English, Chulalongkorn University. They were to confirm whether the tests were appropriate in examining the participants' preferences between the PRRC and RC structures. The native speakers substantiated that the instruments were appropriate for this purpose.

The second group was the L1 English-speaking group. This group consisted of twenty native speakers of English who were living in Thailand (eleven Americans, four British, three Australians, and two Canadians). Among this group, there were fifteen English teachers, two piano instructors, two researchers and one IT customer support officer. Thirteen participants had achieved a Bachelor's degree with the rest obtaining a Master's degree. The age range among this participant group was between 20 and 64, and the mean age was 41. Information about the English subjects is summarized in Table 3:

Table 3: Information about the L1 English Research Participants

Nationality	Occupation	Education	Age Range	Mean Age
Americans (11)	English teachers (15)	Bachelor's degree (13)	20-64	41
British (4)	Piano instructors (2)	Master's degree (7)		
Australians (3)	Researchers (2)			
Canadians (2)	IT customer support officer (1)			

The third group was the L1 Thai-speaking group. This group consisted of twenty intermediate Thai EFL students, including ten undergraduate students from the Faculty of Economics, Chulalongkorn University, and the other ten from the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University. The participants' English proficiency levels were determined by the Oxford Placement Test or the OPT Test (Allan, 2004). The present study included only intermediate learners of English because a number of previous studies on avoidance behavior found that, among L2 learners, the intermediate students are most likely to demonstrate L2 avoidance (e.g. Mattar, 2003; Liao & Fukuya, 2004; Pazhakh, 2007). As shown in Table 4, the L1 Thai research participants' ages ranged between 19 and 23, and the age mean was 21. The subjects' OPT scores ranged between 122 and 148. The mean of the OPT scores was 135. All the L1 Thai participants had formal instruction of English in their

native country. They have been studying English for at least 11 years. Among the

group, three participants had lived in an English-speaking country (two of them in

the United States for 3 months, and the other one in Canada for 3 weeks).

Information about the Thai subjects is summarized in Table 4:

Table 4: Information about the L1 Thai Research Participants

OPT Score Range	OPT Score Mean	Length of Formal Instruction of English	Period of Formal Instruction of English Mean	Age Range	Mean Age
122-148	135	11-19 years	16 years	19-23	21

There were two groups of research participants in the present study

because the researcher aimed to make a comparison between the use of the

English PRRC among native speakers and among L1 Thai learners whose native

language contains reduced RCs which are dissimilar to those in English.

3.3 Data Collection

The data collection in this study consisted of two steps:

1. The collection of data from the native control subjects was first conducted.

The participants were given the cloze test, followed by the Thai-English translation

test. They were asked to choose the first answers coming to their mind. They took

the tests in their workplace (i.e. the Faculty of Arts, Department of English, Chulalongkorn University) and were given 30 minutes to complete each task. The use of PRRCs and RCs among the native controls was examined in order to find out what factor could affect English native speakers' use of the two structures. It was shown that, among the two factors, the verb types seemed to be the only factor influencing the subjects' employment of the PRRC and RC structures (See detailed discussions of the results concerning the native control subjects in 4.1).

2. After gathering the data from the native control subjects, the researcher administered the research instruments to the L1 Thai-speaking group and the L1 English-speaking group. Unlike the native speakers of English, the L1 Thai subjects were first given the OPT test and the comprehension test to determine their English proficiency level and to ensure their knowledge of the PRRC structure. The L1 Thai/L2 English learners who passed these two tests were asked to do the cloze test and the Thai-English translation test later. The native speakers of Thai were instructed to select the first answers coming to their mind. The experiment was conducted at the subjects' universities after their class.

3.4 Data Analysis

In terms of data analysis, 1) the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures, 2) the frequencies of these two structures in relation to the verb types, and 3) the frequencies of the PRRC with respect to the participle types, were separately calculated into percentages applying the following formula and then tabulated.

$$\frac{N x\ 100}{T}$$

N = Number of frequencies of each structure

T = Total number of all possible outcomes which resulted from multiplying the numbers of subjects and those of the test items

To illustrate, a calculation sample is given in Table 5:

Table 5: A Sample of Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the Native Controls

IPA Task	PRRCs	RCs
Cloze Test	22/48 (46%)	26/48 (54%)

Table 5 reports the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the native controls in the cloze test. The total number of all possible

frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the native control group was 48, and thus, represents T. The number is derived from multiplying the number of native controls and the test items, i.e. 3 and 16, respectively. The frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the native controls were 22 and 26, respectively. These numbers were multiplied by 100 and divided by 48 to obtain the percentages, i.e. 46% for 22 and 54% for 26.

Described above is the methodology of this study. The next chapter shows the results and discussions on the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the three groups of research participants, and the frequencies of these two structures with respect to the two factors, namely the verb types and the participle types.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents the findings and discussions of the use of English

PRRCs and RCs among the three groups of research participants: the native control

group, the L1 English-speaking group, and the L1 Thai-speaking group. Section 4.1

provides the results of the present study and Section 4.2 shows the discussions of

the findings.

4.1 Results of the Study

Section 4.1.1 provides the frequency rates of the PRRC and the RC structures

among the native control subjects. Section 4.1.2 shows the frequencies of the two

structures among the L1 English participants and Section 4.1.3 presents the

frequencies of the two structures among the L1 Thai subjects.

The overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures, and the frequencies

of these two structures in relation to the two factors, i.e. the verb types and the

participle types, are shown. More emphasis was given to the frequencies of the

PRRC structure in relation to the two factors because the researcher aimed to

explore the influence these factors have on the participants' use and non-use of

the structure. Moreover, in the results concerning the participle types, the frequencies of the PRRC structure only are discussed in order to examine the second hypothesis, i.e. L1 Thai learners are likely to show a higher level of avoidance of PRRCs with past participles, compared to those with present participles.

4.1.1 The Frequency of the PRRC and RC structures among the Native Controls

This section presents the frequency rates of the PRRC and the RC structures among the native control subjects. 4.1.1.1 provides the overall frequencies of the two structures among the participants, and 4.1.1.2 shows the frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures with respect to the verb types and the participle types.

4.1.1.1 Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the Native Controls

The native control subjects' use of the PRRC and RC structures in the indirect preference assessment tasks, i.e. the cloze test and the Thai-English translation test, was analyzed to find out the overall frequency of each structure. Table 6 shows the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures in both indirect preference assessment tasks. The percentage of the frequencies was also calculated.

Table 6: Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the Native Controls

IPA Tasks	PRRCs	RCs
Cloze Test	22/48 (46%)	26/48 (54%)
Thai-English Translation Test	25/48 (52%)	23/48 (48%)

In order to give a clearer overview of the results, the percentages of the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the native controls are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the Native Controls
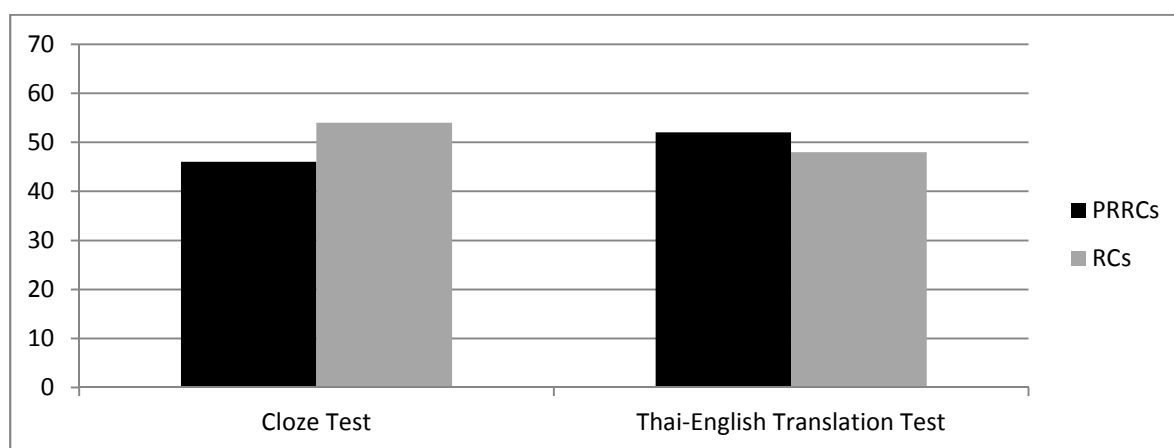
As shown in Table 6 and Figure 1, in the cloze test, the frequency of the PRRC structure is close to that of the RC structure (i.e. 46% and 54%, respectively). Similarly, in the Thai-English translation test, the frequency of the PRRC structure approximates that of the RC structure (i.e. 52% and 48%, respectively).

4.1.1.2 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in Relation to Verb Types and Participle Types among the Native Controls

To figure out specifically the extent to which each of the two factors, i.e. the verb types and the participle types, affected the subjects' use of PRRCs and RCs, frequencies of the two structures in relation to the two factors in the cloze test and the Thai-English translation test are shown in 4.1.1.2.1 and 4.1.1.2.2, respectively.

4.1.1.2.1 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in the Cloze Test

The percentages of the frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the verb types in the cloze test among the native controls are shown in Table 7 and Figure 2.

Table 7: The Native Controls' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Cloze Test

Verb Types	PRRCs	RCs
Dynamic Verbs	20/24 (83%)	4/24 (17%)
Stative Verbs	2/24 (8%)	22/24 (92%)

Figure 2: The Native Controls' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Cloze Test
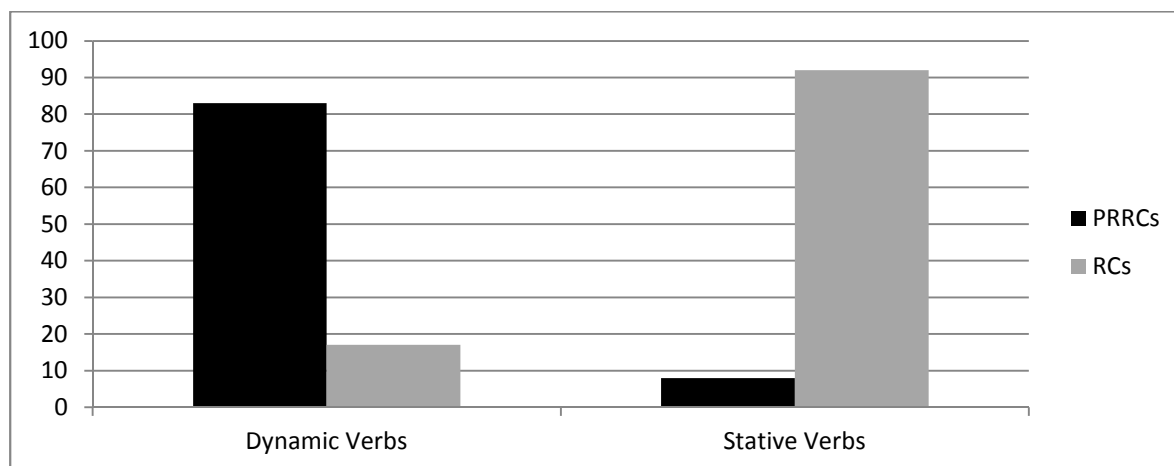
It can be seen that, in the items with dynamic verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is greatly higher than that of the RC structure (i.e. 83% and 17%, respectively). Conversely, in the items with stative verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is dramatically lower than that of the RC structure (i.e. 8% and 92%, respectively).

It is worth noting from Table 7 and Figure 2 that, for the items with the dynamic verbs, the native controls tended to use the PRRC structure, whereas, for those items with the stative verbs, they were more likely to employ the RCs.

The percentages of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the participle types in the cloze test among the native controls are shown in Table 8 and Figure 3.

Table 8: The Native Controls' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle
Types in the Cloze Test

Participle Types	PRRCs	RCs
Past Participles	10/24 (42%)	14/24 (58%)
Present Participles	12/24 (50%)	12/24 (50%)

Figure 3: The Native Controls' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle
Types in the Cloze Test
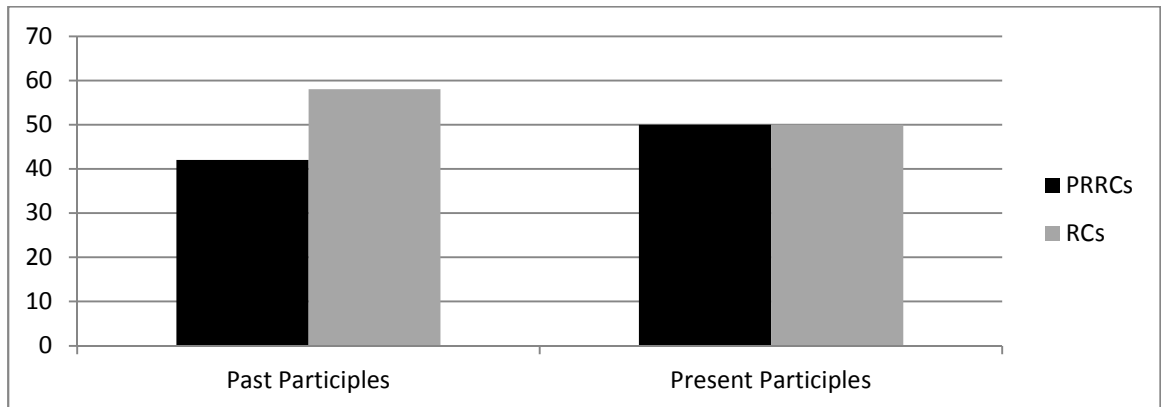
Table 8 and Figure 3 reveal that the frequency of the PRRC structure with

past participle is close to that of the PRRC with present participle (i.e. 42% and 50%,

respectively). Table 8 and Figure 3 therefore suggest that the participle types did not

affect the subjects' use of PRRCs as much as the verb types did.

4.1.1.2.2 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in the Thai-English Translation Test

The percentages of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the verb types in the Thai-English translation test among the native controls are shown in Table 9 and Figure 4.

Table 9: The Native Controls' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Thai-English Translation Test

Verb Types	PRRCs	RCs
Dynamic Verbs	20/24 (83%)	4/24 (17%)
Stative Verbs	5/24 (21%)	19/24 (79%)

Figure 4: The Native Controls' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Thai-English Translation Test
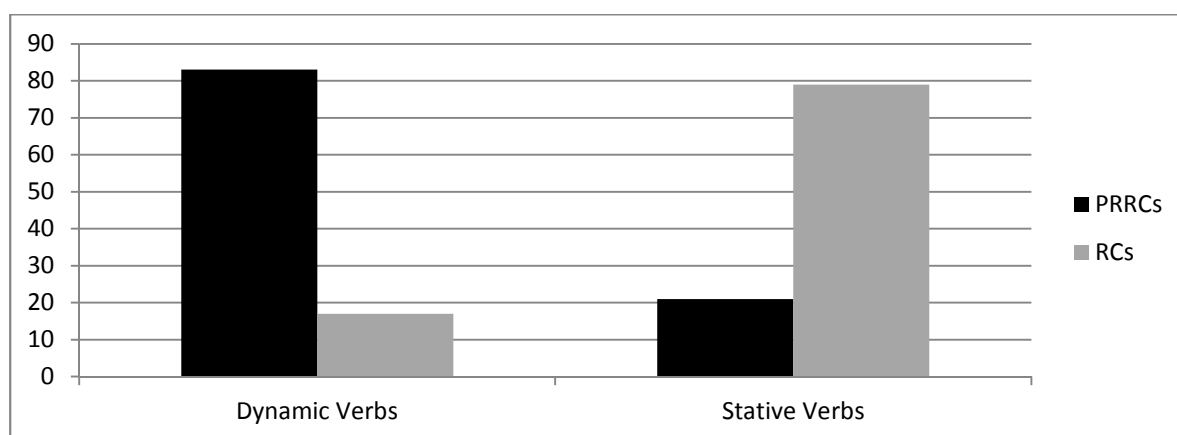
Table 9 and Figure 4 reveal that, in the items with dynamic verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is much higher than that of the RC structure (i.e. 83% and 17%, respectively). In contrast, in the items with stative verbs, the

frequency of the PRRC structure is greatly lower than that of the RC structure (i.e.

21% and 79%, respectively).

As seen in Table 9 and Figure 4, for the items with the dynamic verbs, the

native controls were more likely to use the PRRC structure, whereas, for those items

with the stative verbs, they tended to use the RCs.

The percentages of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the participle

types in the Thai-English translation test among the native controls are shown in

Table 10 and Figure 5.

Table 10: The Native Controls' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Thai-English Translation Test

Participle Types	PRRCs	RCs
Past Participles	13/24 (54%)	11/24 (46%)
Present Participles	12/24 (50%)	12/24 (50%)

**Figure 5: The Native Controls' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Thai-English Translation Test**
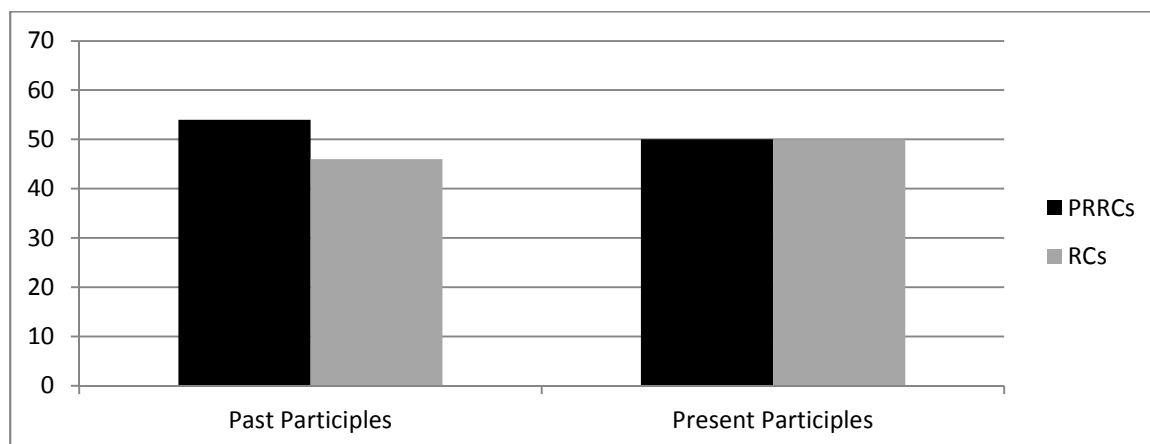
Table 10 and Figure 5 show that the frequency of the PRRC structure with past participle approximates that of the PRRC with present participle (i.e. 54% and 50%, respectively). So, Table 10 and Figure 5 indicate that the participle types did not seem to affect the subjects' use of PRRCs in the Thai-English translation test.

Overall, the findings concerning the native control group showed that, among the two factors, the verb types seemed to be the only factor that affected the subjects' use of English PRRCs and RCs. As clearly demonstrated in both indirect preference assessment tasks, for the items with the dynamic verbs, the native controls were more likely to employ the PRRC structure, whereas, for those items with the stative verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is much lower than that of the RC structure. However, their use of the PRRC structure tended not to be influenced by the participle types. That is, in both indirect preference assessment

tasks, the frequency of the PRRC with past participle is very close to that of the PRRC with present participle.

4.1.2 The Frequency Rates of the PRRC and RC structures among the L1 English Participants

This section presents the frequencies of the PRRC and the RC structures among the L1 English participants. Section 4.1.2.1 presents the overall frequencies of the two structures among the participants. Section 4.1.2.2 provides the frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the verb types and the participle types.

4.1.2.1 Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the L1 English Participants

Table 11 and Figure 6 show the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the L1 English research participants in both indirect preference assessment tasks.

Table 11: Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the L1 English Participants

IPA Tasks	PRRCs	RCs
Cloze Test	147/320 (46%)	173/320 (54%)
Thai-English Translation Test	173/320 (54%)	147/320 (46%)

Figure 6: Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the L1 English Participants
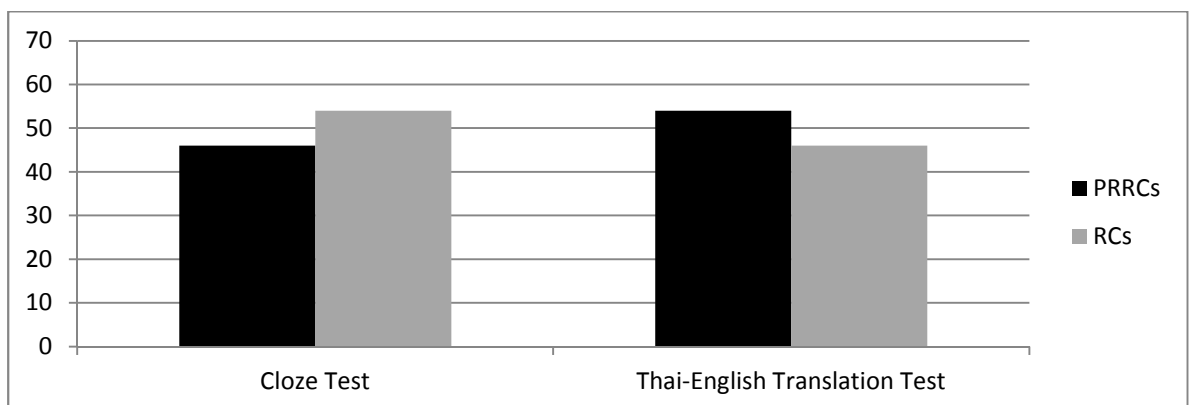
As shown in Table 11 and Figure 6, in the cloze test, the frequency of the PRRC structure approximates that of the RC structure (i.e. 46% and 54%, respectively). Similarly, in the Thai-English translation test, the frequency of the PRRC structure is close to that of the RC structure (i.e. 54% and 46%, respectively).

4.1.2.2 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in Relation to Verb Types and Participle Types among the L1 English Participants

Frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the verb types and the participle types among the L1 English participants in the cloze test and the Thai-English translation test are shown in Section 4.1.2.2.1 and Section 4.1.2.2.2, respectively.

4.1.2.2.1 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in the Cloze Test

The percentage frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the verb types in the cloze test among the L1 English participants are shown in Table 12 and Figure 7.

Table 12: The L1 English Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Cloze Test

Verb Types	PRRCs	RCs
Dynamic Verbs	112/160 (70%)	48/160 (30%)
Stative Verbs	35/160 (22%)	125/160 (78%)

Figure 7: The L1 English Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Cloze Test
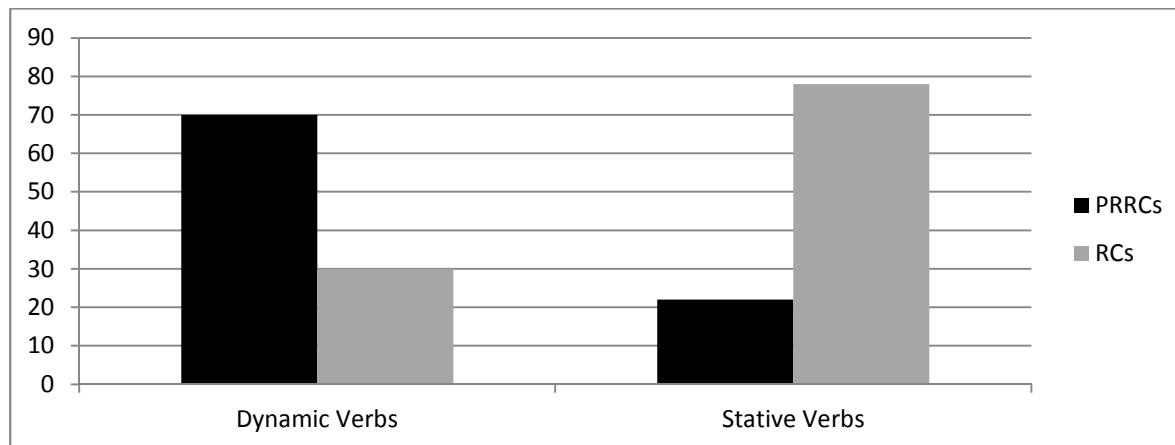
Table 12 and Figure 7 show that, in the items with dynamic verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is greatly higher than that of the RC structure (i.e. 70% and 30%, respectively). Conversely, in the items with stative verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is considerably lower than that of the RC structure (i.e. 22% and 78%, respectively).

From Table 12 and Figure 7, it can be concluded that, for the items with the dynamic verbs, the L1 English participants tended to employ the PRRC structure, whereas, for those items with the stative verbs, they were more likely to use the RCs.

The percentages of the PRRC and the RC structures in relation to the participle types in the cloze test among the L1 English participants are provided in Table 13 and Figure 8.

Table 13: The L1 English Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Cloze Test

Participle Types	PRRCs	RCs
Past Participles	74/160 (46%)	86/160 (54%)
Present Participles	73/160 (46%)	87/160 (54%)

Figure 8: The L1 English Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Cloze Test
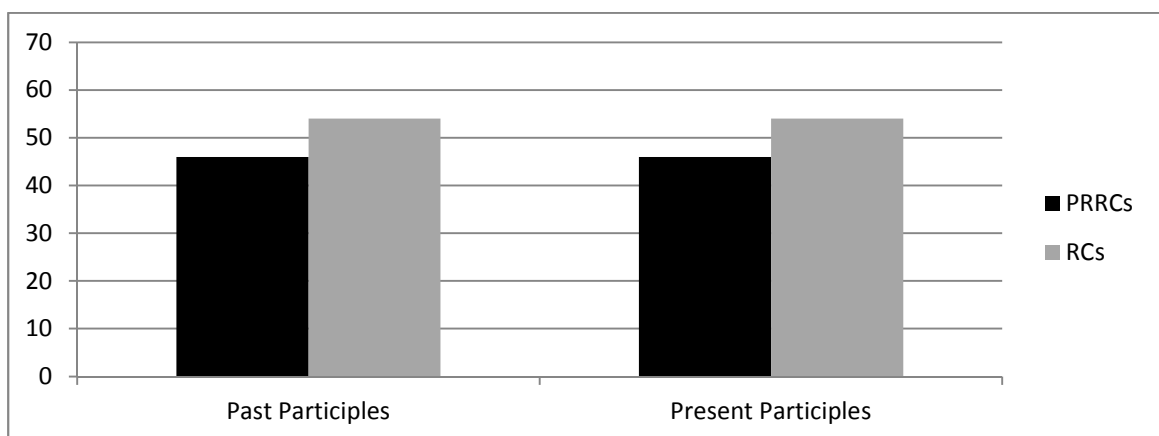
Table 13 and Figure 8 reveal that the frequency of the PRRC structure with past participle is equal to that of the PRRC with present participle (i.e. 46%), suggesting that the participle types did not affect the subjects' use of PRRCs.

4.1.2.2.2 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in the Thai-English Translation Test

The percentages of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the verb types in the Thai-English translation test among the L1 English participants are shown in Table 14 and Figure 9.

Table 14: The L1 English Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Thai-English Translation Test

Verb Types	PRRCs	RCs
Dynamic Verbs	127/160 (79%)	33/160 (21%)
Stative Verbs	46/160 (29%)	114/160 (71%)

Figure 9: The L1 English Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Thai-English Translation Test
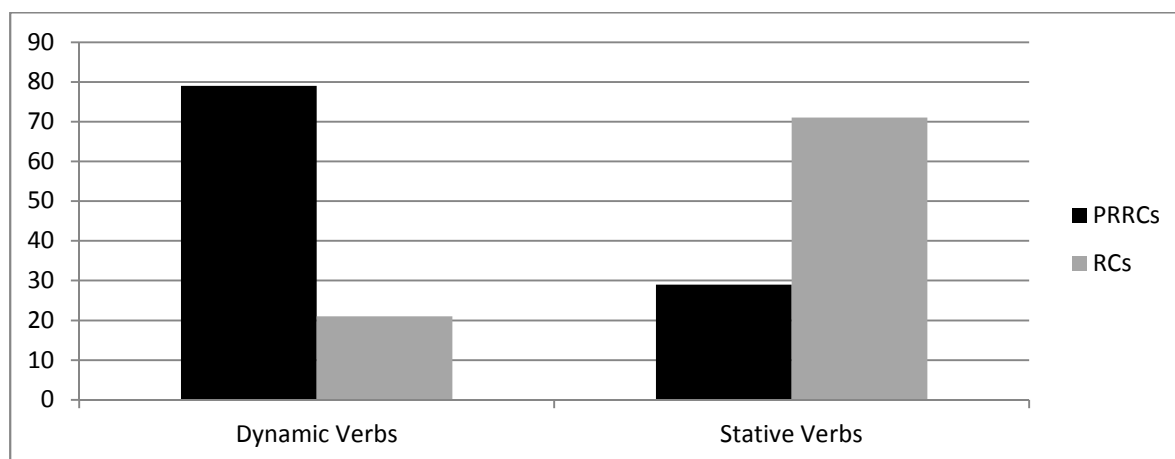
Table 14 and Figure 9 reveal that, in the items with dynamic verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is dramatically greater than that of the RC structure

(i.e. 79% and 21%, respectively). In contrast, in the items with stative verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is considerably lower than that of the RC structure (i.e. 29% and 71%, respectively).

As seen in Table 14 and Figure 9, the L1 English participants were more likely to use the PRRC structure for the items with the dynamic verbs, whereas, for those items with the stative verbs, they tended to prefer the RCs.

The percentages of the PRRC and the RC structures in relation to the participle types in the Thai-English translation test among the L1 English subjects are shown in Table 15 and Figure 10.

Table 15: The L1 English Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Thai-English Translation Test

Participle Types	PRRCs	RCs
Past Participles	100/160 (62.5%)	60/160 (37.5%)
Present Participles	73/160 (46%)	87/160 (54%)

Figure 10: The L1 English Participants' Use of PRRCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Thai-English Translation Test
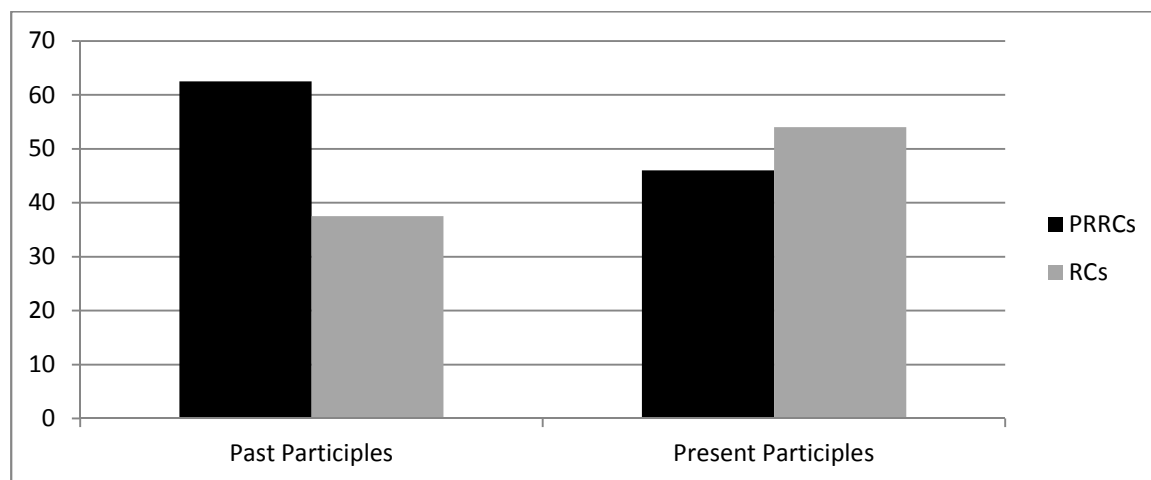
Table 15 and Figure 10 show that the frequency of the PRRC with the past participle is greater than that of the PRRC with present participle (i.e. 62.5% and 46%, respectively). The findings of the Thai-English translation test coupled with those of the cloze test indicate that the participle types had a limited impact on the subjects' use of PRRCs.

Similar to the results from the native control group, the findings concerning the L1 English participants show that the verb types seemed to have an enormous influence on their use of English PRRCs and RCs. That is to say, for the test items with dynamic verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is much higher than that of the RC structure. Conversely, when tackling the items with stative verbs, the L1 English research participants tended to employ the RC rather than the PRRC.

On the other hand, the participle types seemed to have a limited influence on the subjects' use of the two structures. The participle types were shown to influence the L1 English subjects' use of PRRCs in the Thai-English translation test. That is, the frequency of the PRRC with past participle is higher than that of the PRRC with present participle. However, as seen in the cloze test, the frequency rate of the PRRC with past participle and that of the PRRC with present participle are equal to each other.

Thus, it cannot be concluded whether the participle types influenced the L1 English research participants' use of PRRCs.

4.1.3 The Frequency Rates of the PRRC and RC structures among the L1 Thai Participants

This section presents the frequencies of the PRRC and the RC structures among the L1 Thai subjects. Section 4.1.3.1 provides the overall frequencies of the two structures among the research participants, and Section 4.1.3.2 shows the frequency rates of the PRRC and RC structures with respect to the verb types and the participle types.

4.1.3.1 Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the L1 Thai Participants

Table 16 and Figure 11 show the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the L1 Thai research participants in both indirect preference assessment tasks. The calculated percentage of the frequencies is also given.

Table 16: Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the L1 Thai Participants

IPA Tasks	PRRCs	RCs
Cloze Test	173/320 (54%)	147/320 (46%)
Thai-English Translation Test	164/320 (51%)	156/320 (49%)

Figure 11: Overall Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures among the L1 Thai Participants
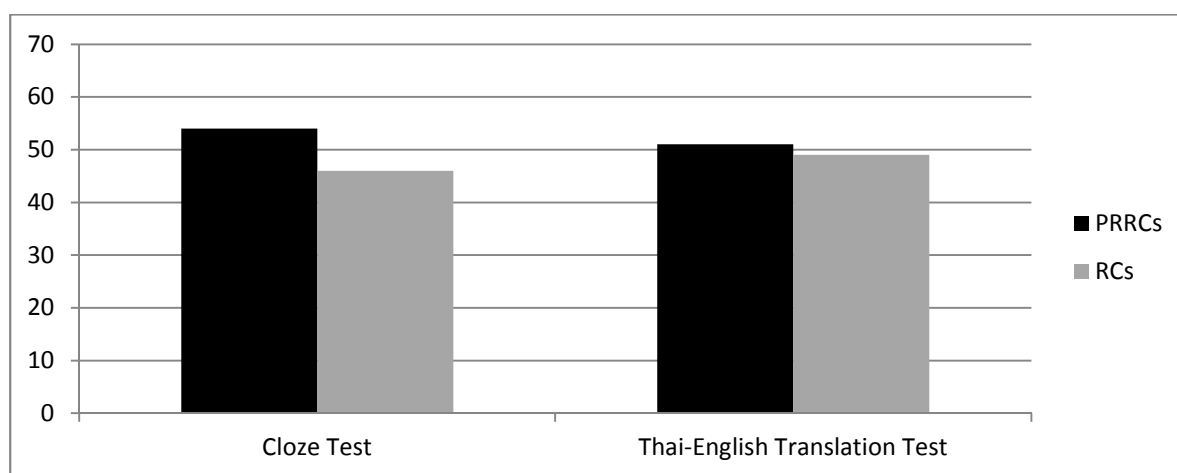
As shown in Table 16 and Figure 11, both in the cloze test and the Thai-English translation test, the frequency of the PRRC structure is slightly higher than

that of the RC structure (i.e. 54% and 46% in the cloze test, and 51% and 49% in

the Thai-English translation test).

4.1.3.2 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in Relation to Verb Types and Participle Types among the L1 Thai Participants

Frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the verb types and

the participle types among the L1 Thai subjects in the cloze test and the Thai-

English translation test are shown in Section 4.1.3.2.1 and Section 4.1.3.2.2,

respectively.

4.1.3.2.1 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in the Cloze Test

The percentages of the frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures in relation

to the verb types in the cloze test among the L1 Thai participants are shown in

Table 17 and Figure 12.

Table 17: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Cloze Test

Verb Types	PRRCs	RCs
Dynamic Verbs	108/160 (67.5%)	52/160 (32.5%)
Stative Verbs	65/160 (41%)	95/160 (59%)

Figure 12: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Cloze Test
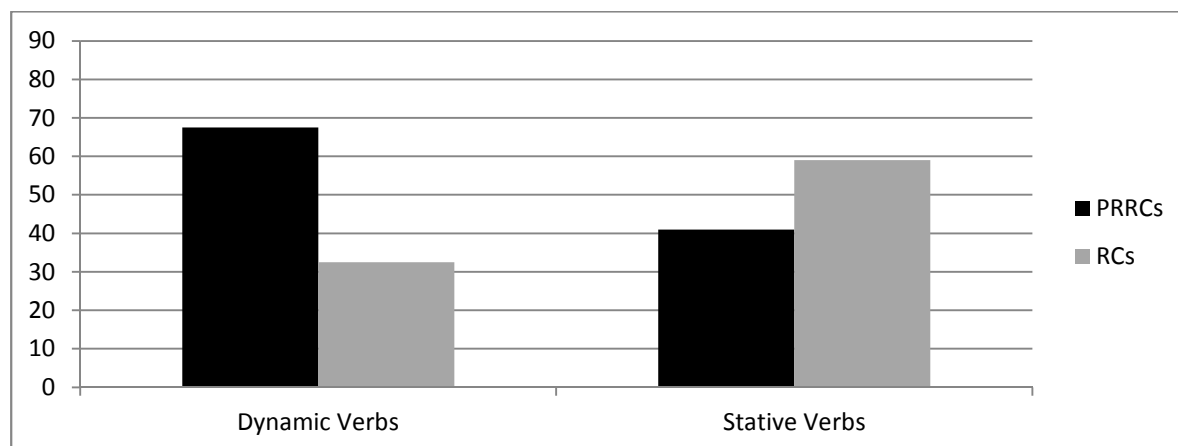
Table 17 and Figure 12 show that, in the items with dynamic verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is greatly higher than that of the RC structure (i.e. 67.5% and 32.5%, respectively). Conversely, in the items with stative verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is lower than that of the RC structure (i.e. 41% and 59%, respectively).

Table 17 and Figure 12 suggest that, similar to the native control and L1 English participant groups, the L1 Thai participants tended to use the PRRC structure for the items with the dynamic verbs, whereas, for those items with the stative verbs, they were more likely to employ the RCs.

The percentages of the PRRC and the RC structures in relation to the participle types in the cloze test among the L1 Thai subjects are shown in Table 18 and Figure 13.

Table 18: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Cloze Test

Participle Types	PRRCs	RCs
Past Participles	87/160 (54%)	73/160 (46%)
Present Participles	86/160 (54%)	74/160 (46%)

Figure 13: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Cloze Test
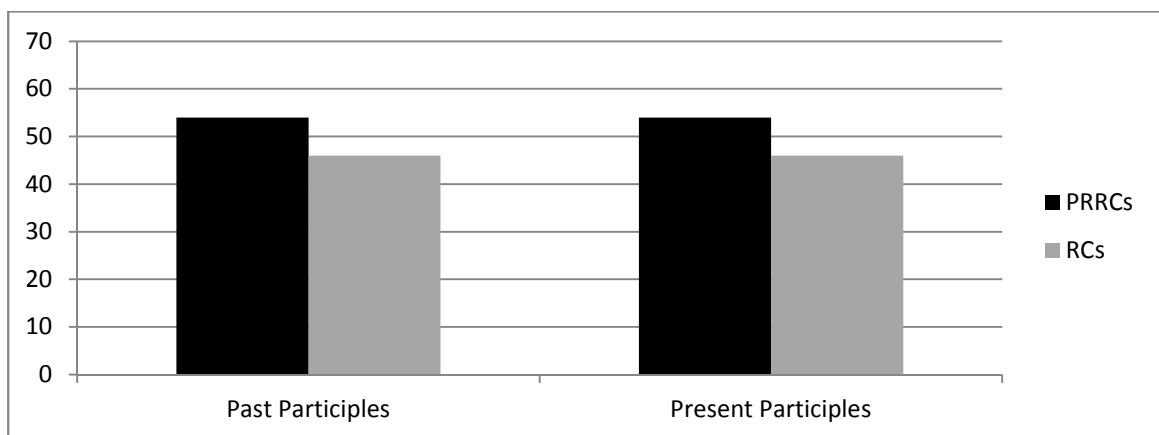
Table 18 and Figure 13 reveal that the frequency of the PRRC structure using the past participle is equal to that of the PRRC with present participle (i.e. 54%), suggesting that the participle types did not appear to affect the subjects' use of PRRCs and RCs.

4.1.3.2.2 Frequencies of the PRRC and RC Structures in the Thai-English Translation Test

The percentages of the PRRC and RC structures in relation to the verb types in the Thai-English translation test among the L1 Thai research participants are given in Table 19 and Figure 14.

Table 19: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Thai-English Translation Test

Verb Types	PRRCs	RCs
Dynamic Verbs	108/160 (68%)	52/160 (32%)
Stative Verbs	56/160 (35%)	104/160 (65%)

Figure 14: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Verb Types in the Thai-English Translation Test
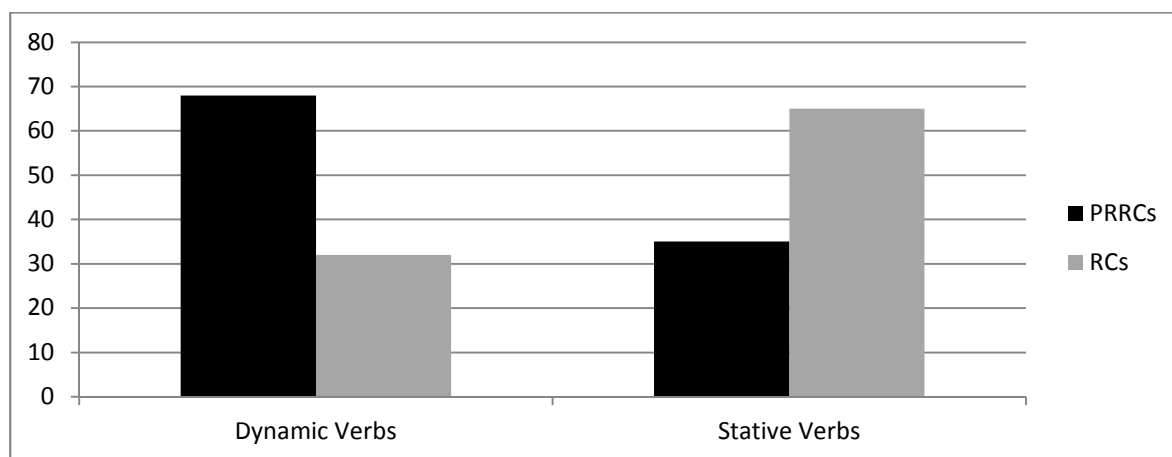
Table 19 and Figure 14 show that, in the items with dynamic verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is considerably greater than that of the RC structure

(i.e. 68% and 32%, respectively). However, in the items with stative verbs, the frequency of the PRRC structure is greatly lower than that of the RC structure (i.e. 35% and 65%, respectively).

Table 19 and Figure 14 indicate that the L1 Thai participants were more likely to use the PRRC structure for the items with the dynamic verbs, and tended to use the RCs for those items with the stative verbs.

The percentages of the PRRC and the RC structures in relation to the participle types in the Thai-English translation test among the L1 Thai research participants are provided in Table 20 and Figure 15.

Table 20: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Thai-English Translation Test

Participle Types	PRRCs	RCs
Past Participles	83/160 (52%)	77/160 (48%)
Present Participles	81/160 (51%)	79/160 (49%)

Figure 15: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs and RCs in Relation to Participle Types in the Thai-English Translation Test
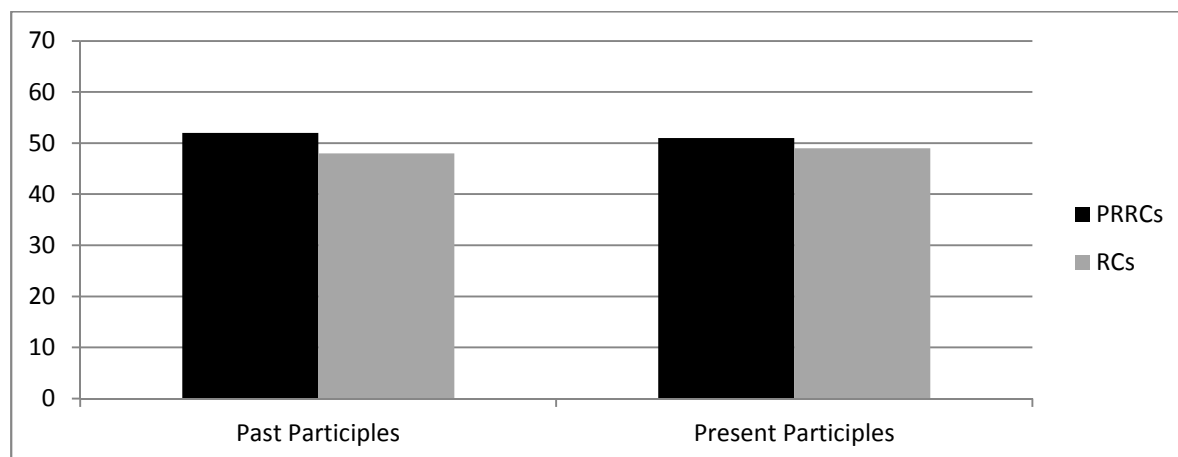
Table 20 and Figure 15 indicate that the frequency of the PRRC with the past participle is close to that of the PRRC with present participle (i.e. 52% and 51%, respectively). It can be concluded from Table 20 and Figure 15 that the participle types did not seem to have an influence on the L1 Thai subjects' use of PRRCs.

Similar to the results among the native control and L1 English participant groups, the findings concerning the L1 Thai participants show that the verb types seemed to be the main factor affecting their use of English PRRCs and RCs. That is, when dealing with the test items with dynamic verbs, the L1 Thai research participants seemed to prefer the PRRC structure to the RC. Conversely, for the items with stative verbs, the frequency of the RC structure is much higher than that of the PRRC structure.

In contrast, the participle types tended not to affect the subjects' use of the PRRC structure. In both indirect preference assessment tasks, the frequency of the PRRC structure with past participle approximates that of the PRRC with present participle. Consequently, the participle types did not appear to influence the L1 Thai research participants' use of PRRCs.

4.2 Discussions of the Results

Section 4.2.1 provides a comparison between the L1 English and the L1 Thai research participants. Sections 4.2.2, 4.2.3, and 4.2.4 show discussions of the results concerning the first, second, and third hypothesis, respectively.

4.2.1 Comparison between the L1 English and the L1 Thai Participants

A comparison between the L1 English and the L1 Thai subjects revealed that the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the two groups were not much different. In the cloze test, the frequency of the PRRC among the L1 English-speaking group (i.e. 46%) is slightly lower than that among the L1 Thai-speaking group (i.e. 54%). On the other hand, in the Thai-English translation test, the occurrence rate of the structure among the native speakers of English (54%) approximates that among the L2 English learners (51%). It was also found that the

use of the PRRC among the two groups of participants tended to be affected by the types of verbs (i.e. stative and dynamic verbs) only.

However, the types of participles tended to have a limited influence on the use of the two structures among L1 English subjects only. The participle types seemed to affect the L1 English participants' use of PRRCs in the Thai-English translation test. That is, the frequency of the PRRC with the past participle is higher than that of the PRRC with the present participle (62.5% PRRC using the past participle, and 46% PRRC using the present participle). In contrast, in the cloze test, the frequency rate of the PRRC using the past participle and that of the PRRC using the present participle are equal to each other (46% PRRC with the present participle and 46% PRRC with the past participle).

The results concerning the participle types' limited influence on the L1 English subjects' use of the PRRC structure might be related to the fact that the L1 English participants possess the English language as their native language. The inconsistency between their use of the PRRCs with the past participle and those with the present participle in the two IPA tasks indicated that their employment of the PRRC and the RC structures was random. While, in the Thai-English translation test, the rates of the production of the PRRC with the past participle was higher than that

of the PRRC with the present participle, the results in the cloze test showed that the frequency of the PRRC with the past participle and that of the PRRC with the present participle were equal. This is probably because, to the native speakers of English, these two structures are equivalent to each other in terms of usage, and one structure can substitute the other, and vice versa, automatically. These L1 English speakers definitely did not have difficulty using both structures. It is therefore assumed that the native English subjects produced either RCs or PRRCs with both participle types naturally and automatically without having to consider the issues of ease or difficulty in the production.

Yet, the L1 Thai participants' use of the two structures seemed systematic and unlikely to be influenced by the participle types. That is, the frequency of the PRRC with the past participle is equal to that of the PRRC with the present participle in the cloze test (46% PRRC with the present participle and 46% PRRC with the past participle), and are very close to each other in the Thai-English translation test (52% PRRC using the past participle, and 51% PRRC using the present participle). When producing the RC and the PRRC structures, the L1 Thai speakers presumably had to resort to whichever strategies that would facilitate them in the production. In this case, the L1 Thai subjects might depend on their familiarity with the PRRC related to

the frequent occurrence of the structure in English written texts to be discussed later. Consequently, unlike the case of the L1 English subjects, the native Thai participants' production of the RC and the PRRC structures was assumed to be unnatural and non-automatic.

4.2.2 Discussion of the Results concerning the First Hypothesis

The first hypothesis, stating that the L1 Thai learners were likely to avoid PRRCs and use RCs instead, was not confirmed by the results of the study. As shown in the overall frequency of the PRRC and RC structures among the native speakers of Thai, the percentage of the participial reduced relative clause is higher than that of the relative clause in both indirect preference assessment tasks. As mentioned in Section 2.4.2, the English PRRC and the Thai RRC are different; therefore, it could be predicted that the English PRRC would be difficult for the L1 Thai participants (See detailed discussions of contrastive analysis in Section 2.2). The results, however, revealed that the subjects were unlikely to avoid the structure. The L1 Thai participants' tendency of non-avoidance of English PRRCs may have been a result of the following three factors: L1 Thai learners' familiarity with the PRRC structure, simplicity of the PRRC, and the nature of the tasks in this study.

4.2.2.1 The L1 Thai Subjects' Familiarity with the PRRC

First of all, the L1 Thai subjects' familiarity with the English PRRC might result in their tendency of non-avoidance of the structure. Their familiarity with the structure is probably related to their pre-university L2 learning experience. That is, the L1 Thai learners may be exposed to the PRRCs from two sources: their secondary schools and tutorial institutes. Firstly, several English structures, including the PRRC, are likely to be emphasized in a number of Thai secondary schools. According to the researcher's personal communication with three L1 Thai secondary teachers of English, the PRRC has been included and focused on in English courses and teaching materials of many Thai high schools (P. Sunthanapipat, P. Panitchayakul, S. Jitwiriyanont, personal communication, May 29, 2013). Apart from several secondary schools, the teaching of the PRRC structure might take place in English classes of tutorial schools in Thailand. The tutorial schools are basically paid to help students get satisfying scores for university entrance examination tests; consequently, the schools tend to teach the issues that students are likely to be tested on (Wipatayotin, 2011, para.4). In terms of English tests, the PRRC is possibly one of the most frequently occurring structures in university entrance examination papers, i.e. entrance examination tests (1998-2005), O-net and A-net English tests (2006-2009),

and GAT English tests (2009-2012). Three extracts which include the PRRCs from some university entrance examination tests are provided below:

(37)   Robots <u>designated</u> for mental tasks could be programmed with a full range of general purpose capabilities but at a lower processing speed, equivalent to a low human IQ.

The 2009 GAT English test (October, 2009: 27)

(38)   With 11 million people, Moscow has only one zoo <u>covering</u> about 60 acres. It is crowded with visitors all summer.

The 2010 O-net English test (February, 2011: 37)

(39)   Grant Bell was driving along with some friends when they saw a car coming towards them on the other side of the road. What they did not see until too late were two other cars <u>racing</u> alongside it – with no lights and on the wrong side.

The 2010 O-net English test (February, 2011: 42)

(40)   If a star is cool, less than 3,500° Kelvin, its color will be red. This is because there are more red photons being emitted than any other kind of visible light. If a star is very hot, above 10,000° Kelvin, its color will be blue. Once again, there are more blue photons <u>streaming</u> from a star.
The temperature of the Sun is approximately 6,000° Kelvin. The sun and stars like our sun appear white. This is because we're seeing all the different color photons <u>coming</u> from the sun at the same time. When you add all those colors up, you get pure white.
So why does the sun appear yellow here on Earth? The atmosphere of the Earth scatters sunlight, removing the shorter wavelength light – blue and violet.

Once you reduce those colors from the spectrum of light <u>coming</u> from the sun, it appears more yellow.

The 2011 GAT English test (October, 2011: 13)

Accordingly, the frequent occurrences of the PRRC in these English tests suggested that the PRRC is one of the structures which can be found in English courses and teaching materials of many tutorial schools. In short, the teaching of the PRRC in Thai secondary schools and tutorial schools could enable L1 Thai learners to become familiar with the PRRC, leading to their likelihood of non-avoidance of the structure in the present study.

4.2.2.2 Simplicity of the PRRC

The simplicity of the PRRC over the RC possibly gave rise to the L1 Thai participants' tendency not to avoid the first structure. It was initially predicted that the L2 English learners would avoid using the PRRCs, especially those with past participles, because the structure might cause comprehension difficulties in the sentences in which they appear. For example, when seeing the sentence fragment 'The florist sent the flowers...,' the learners might have to spend time figuring out what the grammatical form of the word 'sent' is: the past tense or the passive participial forms of the verb 'send' (See detailed discussions of the difficulty of the PRRCs with past participles in Section 2.5). However, the results show that the

frequency of the participial reduced relative clause with past participle and that of the PRRC with present participle are equal (i.e. 54%) in the cloze test, and very close to each other (namely 52% and 51%, respectively) in the Thai-English translation test. Therefore, it can be concluded that the participle types did not appear to influence the subjects' use of PRRCs.

The reason why the RC was used less frequently than the PRRC was is possibly because the former structure is more complicated than the latter one. To use RCs, L2 English learners have to take three factors into consideration: correct subject-verb agreement, various English tenses, and proper relative pronouns. An RC involves subject-verb agreement which requires a correlation in (i) number and (ii) person between a subject and a verb, regardless of tense, aspect, or mood (Loberger & Shoup, 2009). If a subject is singular, its verb must also agree with the subject by being singular. Along the same line, if a subject is plural, its verb must also denote plurality. In addition, the countability of the NPs might have an impact on the form of the verb (Feigenbaum, 1985). That is, the uncountable NPs are employed with the singular form of the verbs only, whereas the countable ones require either the singular or the plural verb forms, depending on whether the plural morpheme is added to the NPs. In terms of person agreement, Young (1984) explained that "in the

present tense, a third person singular subject demands the use of the s-form of the

first verb; all other subjects demand the base form"(p. 42). L2 learners have to

consider not only adding an inflectional suffix '-s,' '–ed,' or '-ing' to main verbs or

changing the form of irregular verbs, but also variations in auxiliary verbs, including

verb to be ('is,' 'am,' and 'are' in the present tense, and 'was' and 'were' in the

past tense), have ('has' and 'have' in the present tense, and 'had' in the past tense)

and do ('does' and 'do' in the present tense, and 'did' in the past tense). The use

of relative clauses can become even more perplexing when they involve English

tenses and aspects such as present perfect, present perfect continuous, past perfect,

past perfect continuous, future perfect, and future perfect continuous. The third

factor L2 English learners have to take into account when using English RCs is

different usages of relative pronouns. Many English grammar textbooks note that

relative pronouns must agree with the nouns preceding them (Sinclair, 1997; Azar,

1999; Murphy, 2012). That is, the selection of a pronoun depends on the noun which

the relative clause refers to. For example, 'who' is employed for referring to humans,

whereas 'which' is usually used to indicate non-humans, and 'that' can replace both

'who' and 'which' (Park, 2000). On the other hand, the PRRC structure seems much

easier to employ due to its simpler form. That is to say, in order to use a PRRC, the

L2 learners simply omit the relative pronouns and add the '-ing' or '-ed' suffix to the verb in the RCs, depending on whether the verb is used in the active or the passive voice.

As mentioned in Section 2.5, Kellerman (1992) claimed that avoidance might occur when L2 learners find a TL form too difficult to produce. Similarly, Matter (2003) defines avoidance behavior as a phenomenon where L2 learners avoid a difficult word or structure, and turn to a simpler one. Mattar's statement is supported by Pazhakh (2007), who found that his research participants tended to prefer simple sentences to compound ones, and compound sentences to complex ones. It is worth observing that the three decisions involved in producing the RC structure, i.e. correct subject-verb agreement, English tenses, and proper relative pronouns, can be burdensome, and can thus overload the L2 English learners' cognitive resources. That is, degrees of information processing (Trueswell, Tanenhaus, & Garnsey, 1994; Juffs, 1998) might affect the L1 Thai participants' employment of RCs and PRRCs. Specifically, in producing the RCs, information processing is assumed to be higher than that in producing the PRRCs, and thus, the more information processing required to produce a structure, the greater tendency for L2 learners to avoid that structure, and vice versa. Therefore, it is assumed that the lower

frequency of the RC structure among the L1 Thai subjects results from information

overload caused by the necessity to make decisions about the previously discussed

three factors. In contrast, the greater occurrence of the PRRC structure was possibly

related to the fact that the structure requires the learners to consider only adding

the present participle or the past participle suffix to the verb in the RCs.

To summarize thus far, in producing RCs, a consideration of subject-verb

agreement, tenses, and relative pronouns is required; therefore, the L1 Thai research

participants might regard the structure as more complex than the simpler PRRC

structure, leading to the subjects' likelihood of non-avoidance of the PRRC.

4.2.2.3 Nature of the Tasks in the Present Study

The last factor which possibly caused the L1 Thai learners' greater rate of

non-avoidance of the PRRC structure is the nature of the tasks. The test types'

influence might be involved in the subjects' use and non-use of the PRRC. As

indicated by several previous studies on L2 learners' avoidance behavior, different

test instruments might lead to different degrees of avoidance (Melka Teichroew,

1982; Irujo, 1986; Liao & Fukuya, 2004). Among the task types, natural production

tests are possibly most likely to demonstrate L2 learners' avoidance of a certain

structure. To illustrate, in their study on L1 Chinese learners' avoidance of English

phrasal verbs, Liao and Fukuya (2004) found that the translation test which made

neither the phrasal verbs nor their one-word equivalents available, resulted in a

greater avoidance of figurative phrasal verbs than the multiple-choice test and the

recall test, where both the phrasal verbs and their one-word equivalents were

available. The result revealed that there was an interaction between test types and

degrees of avoidance behavior. Moreover, the findings of Thiamtawan (2012) support

the effect of task type. The study was conducted in an English class where ten L1

Thai participants were given a Thai-English translation test which required them to

translate Thai sentences to English without provided choices. The test seemed to

show a stronger bias in favor of the RC than the PRRC. The results of the current

study and those of previous studies indicated that, even though the subjects did not

seem to avoid using PRRCs in the multiple-choice tasks, it cannot be assumed that

they would use the structure in other types of tests.

As mentioned above, among the test types, natural production tasks are

probably most likely to show L2 learners' avoidance of certain TL structures or

forms. However, in the current study, a production task was not included in the

research instruments because the researcher intended to investigate whether the

two factors, i.e. the verb types and the participle types, play a role in the L1 Thai

subjects' avoidance behavior. Therefore, the participants were expected to produce

either the RC or the PRRC under the two factors. Using a natural production task

might lead to possibilities of L2 learners' producing other structures apart from the

RC and the PRRC. For instance, Thiamtawan (2012) found in the translation test that

some research participants interpreted Thai RCs into various English structures,

including prepositional phrases, existential constructions, and if-clause conditional

sentences. Thus, to ensure the data from the study focused on a comparison of

participle types used in PRRCs and RCs, the two structures had to be provided in the

tasks.

4.2.3 Discussion of the Results concerning the Second Hypothesis

The second hypothesis was that the L1 Thai participants tended to show a

higher level of avoidance of PRRCs with past participles, compared to those with

present participles. The prediction was not confirmed by the findings of the present

study. It was revealed that the frequency of the participial reduced relative clause

using the past participle and that of the PRRC with present participle are equal (i.e.

54%) in the cloze test, and very close to each other (namely 52% and 51%,

respectively) in the Thai-English translation test. The results suggested that the

participle types did not seem to have any effect on the L1 Thai learners' use and

non-use of PRRCs. The similar rates of the PRRCs with present participles and those with past participles might be caused by the L1 Thai subjects' familiarity with the structure due to its high frequency of occurrence in English written texts (Granger, 1997). The PRRC has been reported to notably occur in English writing. Granger (1997) claimed that participle clauses, including the PRRCs with both present and past participles, appear in English written texts so frequently that the clauses are considered a main feature of English texts. Other than being taught in Thai secondary schools and tutorial institutes as discussed above, the PRRCs with the two participle types can be found pervasively in a variety of writing genres. It is thus assumed that L2 English learners have been much exposed to the PRRC structure. Accordingly, it is possible that the frequent occurrence of the PRRC in English written texts made the L1 Thai subjects familiar with the structure, leading to the similar rates of the PRRCs with present participles and those with past participles.

4.2.4 Discussion of the Results concerning the Third Hypothesis

The third hypothesis, stating that the L1 Thai participants tended to show a higher degree of avoidance of PRRCs with present participles when dealing with stative verbs, is the only verified hypothesis. To investigate this hypothesis further, the Thai subjects' employment of PRRCs with present participles and RCs in two

sentence forms, i.e. '-ing with Stative Verb' and '-ing with Dynamic Verb', was closely examined.

The L1 Thai research participants' use of PRRCs with present participles and RCs in '-ing with Stative Verb' and '-ing with Dynamic Verb' in both indirect preference assessment tasks is shown in Table 21:

Table 21: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs with Present Participles and RCs in '-ing with Stative Verb' and '-ing with Dynamic Verb'

Sentence Forms	PRRCs	RCs
'-ing' with Stative Verb	54/160 (34%)	106/160 (66%)
'-ing' with Dynamic Verb	113/160 (71%)	47/160 (29%)

The percentages of the PRRC and RC structures in '-ing with Stative Verb' and '-ing with Dynamic Verb' in both indirect preference assessment tasks are shown in Figure 16.

Figure 16: The L1 Thai Participants' Use of PRRCs with Present Participles and RCs in '-ing with Stative Verb' and '-ing with Dynamic Verb'
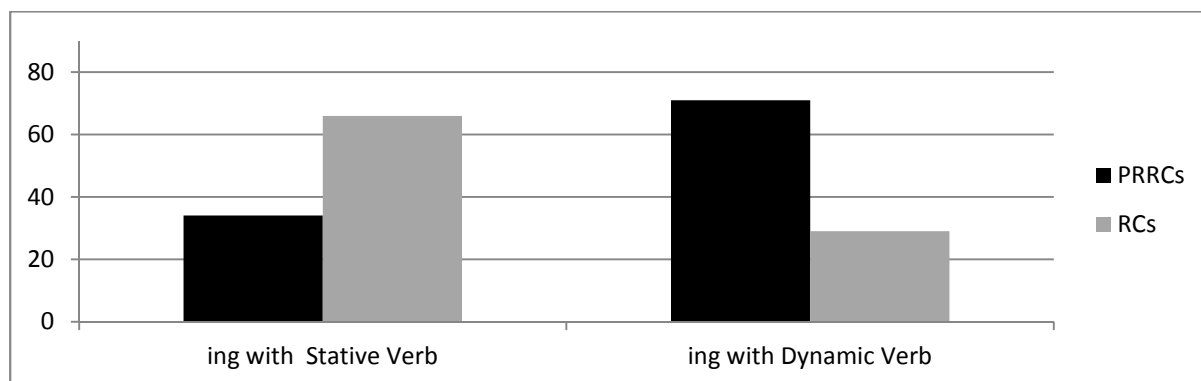
The results showed a relationship between the verb types and the subjects' use of PRRCs using the present participle and RCs. That is, when dealing with the items with stative verbs, the L1 Thai subjects tended to avoid PRRCs with present participles, and use RCs instead (34% and 66%, respectively). On the other hand, when they tackled the items with dynamic verbs, they were more likely to employ PRRCs with present participles than RCs (71% and 29%, respectively). The findings substantiate the verb types' influence on the L1 Thai participants' use and non-use of PRRCs with present participles.

The impact of verb types on the L1 Thai subjects' employment of PRRCs with present participles was possibly brought about by the participants' transfer of training regarding the stative-dynamic contrast. As one of the five main causes of interlanguage (See detailed discussions of interlanguage in Section 2.3), transfer of

training is a process where L2 learners apply a rule they have learned from teachers

or textbooks regardless of whether the rule is correctly employed (Selinker, 1972). In

this case, one of the issues which have been noted in English grammar books is that

English verbs can be classified into two categories: stative verbs and dynamic verbs

(See Footnote 14). Stative verbs are verbs indicating conditions, situations or states in

which there is no obvious action such as 'love,' 'suppose,' and 'believe', whereas

dynamic verbs are those which express a continued or progressive action such as

'sit,' 'stand,' and 'walk'. One essential difference between these two verb types is

that the stative verbs are not usually used in progressive tenses where the suffix '-

ing' must be added to the verbs; however, the dynamic verbs are. Several English

grammar books provide L2 English learners with clear-cut definitions of stative and

dynamic verbs (Young, 1984; Payne, 2006; Murphy, 2012). For example, Sinclair (1997)

confirmed that, "verbs of this kind [verbs which are not used in continuous tenses,

my addition] are sometimes called stative verbs. Verbs which are used in continuous

tenses are sometimes called dynamic verbs" (p. 459). However, it should be noted

that some stative verbs can also be employed in progressive tenses, but in only

cases where the speakers want to underline that an incidence is impermanent or for

a current period (Hewings, 2005). For example, the stative verb 'think' can be used

with the progressive suffix, as in the sentence 'I'm thinking about my trip to Rome'

(Azar & Hagen, 2009). Moreover, the verbs showing conditions or states can appear

with the '-ing' suffix in the present participle form (Azar & Hagen, 2009;Murphy,

2012).To illustrate, the RC with the stative verb 'want' in 'Anyone who wants to

come with us is welcome' can be reduced into 'Anyone wanting to come with us'

(Azar & Hagen, 2009). Therefore, it can be assumed that, as a result of transfer of

training, namely the clear-cut definitions of the two types of English verbs in

grammar books, L2 English learners tended to use the stative-dynamic distinction,

and thus form a misconception about the stative verbs, not being aware that the

verbs can be used with the progressive '-ing' suffix in some cases. In short, the

participants' transfer of training concerning the stative-dynamic contrast probably led

to their avoidance of the PRRCs with present participles when they dealt with the

stative verbs.

The findings associated with the third hypothesis seemed to contradict

Schachter's (1974) definition of avoidance behavior where the phenomenon is said

to occur due to either L1-L2 differences or an L2 structure's non-existence in L2

learners' L1. As mentioned, the L1 Thai subjects underused the PRRCs with present

participles possibly because of their transfer of training regarding the stative-dynamic

distinction. The results of the present study were in line with those of Els et al. (1984) and You (1999), which found that the avoidance phenomenon was brought about by a number of factors, other than L1-L2 differences and L2 forms which do not exist in the learners' L1.

It has been said that the avoidance behavior is primarily caused by differences between learners' L1 and L2. This statement suggests that the learners' avoidance behavior might not manifest if the L1 and L2 forms or structures are similar. Yet, as seen from the results of Chotiros and Pongpairoj's (2012) study on the avoidance phenomenon, despite the more complicated process of producing the English passive construction, compared to that in Thai, the L1 Thai subjects tended not to avoid producing the L2 structure. Chotiros and Pongpairoj stated that the non-avoidance found in their study was influenced by several factors, not just the similarity between Thai and English passive constructions. In addition, the results of the current study demonstrated that the L1 Thai participants' tendency of non-avoidance of the English PRRC possibly resulted from a number of factors: their familiarity with the PRRC, the simplicity of the structure, and the nature of the tests. In order to account for factors leading to L2 learners' lack of avoidance, a proposal entitled Factors of L2 Non-Avoidance Hypothesis (FNAH) is formulated in this study.

The essence of the FNAH is that, when L2 learners' NL and TL forms or structures are different or when an L2 structure is non-existent in the learners' L1, avoidance behavior might not occur. It is assumed that there are relevant factors involved in the learners' L2 non-avoidance. The FNAH can be employed to account for the findings concerning the first two hypotheses of this study. The results with respect to the first hypothesis where L1 Thai learners were expected to avoid PRRCs and use RCs instead showed that the L1 Thai subjects tended not to underuse the PRRC probably because of their familiarity with the structure, the simplicity of the PRRC over the RC, and the nature of the tasks. The second hypothesis was that the L1 Thai participants were more likely to avoid PRRCs with past participles, compared to those with present participles. However, it was revealed that the frequency of the participial reduced relative clause using the past participle and that of the PRRC with present participle are equal in the cloze test, and approximate each other in the Thai-English translation test, indicating the subjects' non-avoidance of the PRRCs with both participle types. The L1 Thai participants' lack of avoidance was probably caused by the high frequency of the PRRCs in English written texts. In brief, the FNAH proposes that, despite L1-L2 differences or an L2 structure's non-existence in L2

learners' L1, avoidance behavior does not always occur. The learners' tendency of

L2 non-avoidance is assumed to be caused by other potential factors.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present research aimed at exploring L1 Thai learners' avoidance of English PRRCs with the following research objectives addressed in Chapter I:

1.   To compare and contrast the use of English PRRCs between L1 Thai learners and native speakers of English.

2.   To investigate whether participle types (the present participle form ('-ing') and the past participle form ('–ed')) could influence degrees of avoidance of English PRRCs by L1 Thai learners and native speakers of English.

3.   To explore whether verb types (dynamic and stative verbs) could affect degrees of avoidance of the two participle types in English PRRCs by L1 Thai learners and native speakers of English.

In parallel with all the above objectives, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested:

Hypothesis 1: L1 Thai learners tend to avoid PRRCs and use RCs instead.

Hypothesis 2: L1 Thai learners are likely to show a higher level of avoidance of PRRCs with past participles, compared to those with present participles.

Hypothesis 3: L1 Thai learners are expected to show a higher degree of avoidance of PRRCs with present participles when dealing with stative verbs.

This chapter consists of four sections. Section 5.1 presents the major findings of the current study. Section 5.2 involves pedagogical implications. Sections 5.3 and 5.4 provide limitation of the study, and recommendations for future research studies in this area, respectively.

5.1 Major Findings of the Study

The first hypothesis was that the L1 Thai learners tended to avoid PRRCs and use RCs instead due to the three characteristics of Thai: (i) fewer conditions under which relative pronouns can be deleted in Thai compared to those in English, (ii) the lack of the inflectional affix system, and (iii) the more restricted RC reduction which requires the omission of relative pronouns only. Yet, the L1 Thai learners were unlikely to avoid producing the PRRC structure. As shown in the results, the frequency rate of the PRRC is higher than that of the RC in both indirect preference assessment tasks (i.e. 54% and 46% in the cloze test, and 51% and 49% in the Thai-English translation test). The L1 Thai subjects' lack of avoidance was assumed to be

caused by their familiarity with the PRRC structure, the simplicity of the PRRC over the RC, and the nature of the tasks in the present study.

The second hypothesis involved the participle types' influence on the L1 Thai subjects' avoidance of English PRRCs. Past participles could be misinterpreted into either the past participle form or the past tense form of the verbs, whereas present participles could not. Consequently, the past participles were assumed to be more complicated to produce than the present participles were. However, the participle types did not show any impact on the subjects' use and non-use of PRRCs because the frequency of the participial reduced relative clause with past participle and that of the PRRC with present participle are equal (i.e. 54%) in the cloze test, and very close to each other (52% and 51%, respectively) in the Thai-English translation test. The similar rates of the PRRCs with present participles and those with past participles were assumed to be brought about by the frequent occurrence of the PRRC in English written texts (Granger, 1997).

As seen from the results concerning the first two hypotheses, there may be a number of factors leading to L2 learners' tendency of non-avoidance. Thus, this study proposed the Factors of L2 Non-Avoidance Hypothesis (FNAH). The FNAH proposes that when L2 learners' NL and TL forms or structures are different or

when an L2 structure does not exist in the learners' L1, avoidance behavior does not necessarily occur. Moreover, the cause of non-avoidance is not restricted to only similarities between the learners' L1 and L2, but other relevant factors can lead to their lack of avoidance as well.

The third hypothesis was that the L1 Thai learners are more likely to avoid using PRRCs with present participles when dealing with stative verbs. This hypothesis was confirmed by the results. It was shown that, when tackling the items with stative verbs, the subjects tended to underproduce PRRCs with present participles, and use RCs instead (34% and 66%, respectively). In contrast, when they dealt with items with dynamic verbs, they were more likely to use PRRCs with present participles than RCs (71% and 29%, respectively). It was assumed that the verb types' impact on the L1 Thai participants' use of PRRCs with present participles resulted from the subjects' transfer of training (Selinker, 1972).

5.2 Pedagogical Implications of the Study

From the findings of this study, the implications for teaching were as follows. Firstly, the results concerning the L1 Thai subjects' avoidance of PRRCs with present participles when dealing with stative verbs showed their transfer of training

regarding the stative-dynamic contrast. That is to say, the L1 Thai participants might find in several English grammar books that the stative verbs are not usually employed in progressive tenses, but the dynamic verbs are. As clearly shown, they were likely to apply the rule to their use of PRRCs with present participles without realizing the fact that the stative verbs can be used with the '-ing' suffix in their present participle form. These findings are beneficial to English teachers in that they should be more careful of their teaching of the stative-dynamic distinction. After explaining about the stative-dynamic contrast to their students, the teachers might emphasize that stative verbs can also be employed in continuous tenses, but on rare occasions. Secondly, even though the results of the present study showed the L1 Thai participants' tendency of non-avoidance of the PRRC, the learners should be focused on how to produce the structure. Since the PRRCs are derived from the RCs, in teaching how to use the PRRC structure, English language teachers should make the students aware of how the PRRC structure is produced, and where it comes from. Because relative pronoun deletion is a stylistic phenomenon in English, it is sufficient if the Thai learners simply recognize that the reduced form is merely a variation of the form containing the relative pronoun. As Lekawatana et al. (1969) pointed out, "if the student has learned to recognize with complete ease relative

clause patterns with deleted relative pronouns, he is ready to progress to the stage where he can learn to produce these patterns automatically" (p. 103).

5.3 Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the present study involve the task type and the L1 Thai research participants. The first limitation concerns the nature of the tasks used in the collection of data. The tasks used were restricted to multiple-choice tests. As mentioned earlier, different task types might give rise to different degrees of L2 learners' avoidance behavior, and natural production tasks are probably most likely to show the learners' underproduction of an L2 structure (Liao & Fukuya, 2004). Nevertheless, in the present study, natural production tasks were not included because it would have been difficult to control the subjects' production of the PRRC structure under the two investigated factors, i.e. the verb types and the participle types. Accordingly, the results of this study might not represent the overall picture of the learners' avoidance behavior. Secondly, the number of the native Thai subjects, namely 20 participants (students from two Thai universities, i.e. Chulalongkorn University and Mahidol University), might not be large enough.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations are ideas that can be employed to design the methodology of further studies. The first suggestion concerns the task types. As mentioned, the research instruments in the current study were multiple-choice tests. However, different task types might cause different degrees of L2 learners' avoidance behavior. Thus, a research design for a future study should implement a wider range of test types, including natural production tasks so that the results might show a clearer picture of the learners' avoidance behavior. The next recommendation is based on the definition of avoidance behavior. According to Richards et al. (2002), the phenomenon emerges as a result of either of two conditions, i.e. when L1 and L2 structures are different or when an L2 form is non-existent in the learners' L1. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, none of the previous SLA studies on avoidance behavior have examined the phenomenon from the two conditions simultaneously. For this reason, it is recommended that a study with a comparison between avoidance degrees caused by differences between L1-L2 structures and non-existence of an L2 structure in the learners' L1 be conducted. For example, the degree of L1 Thai EFL learners' avoidance of the PRRC structure, which exists in both English and Thai, but in different forms, and that of

the subject-verb inversion structure, which is non-existent in Thai, might be compared and contrasted. The third point in which researchers in the field of avoidance of English PRRCs might be interested involves the influence of the relative pronoun choices on avoidance of PRRCs in which NPs are animate. As discussed in 4.2.2.2, 'who' is used to refer to humans, and 'that' can replace 'who'. Since, in the current study, there are only three test items in which 'that' is used with animate NPs, the effect of the choices of relative pronoun cannot be explored here. Therefore, it would be interesting to compare degrees of avoidance of PRRCs with animate NPs influenced by 'who' and 'that'. Fourthly, even though previous studies on avoidance behavior found that the less advanced learners were more likely to demonstrate L2 underproduction than their more advanced counterparts did, none of them explored the effect of English proficiency level on L1 Thai learners' avoidance. Therefore, it is suggested that a comparison between groups of native Thai subjects with different levels of English proficiency be made. Finally, further studies can be made to investigate the avoidance of English PRRCs with research subjects from different L1 backgrounds to compare and contrast the results with the present study.

By exploring the avoidance of English PRRCs among L1 Thai learners, it is hoped that the findings in the current study would provide researchers and language teachers with another perspective on this SLA phenomenon.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Comprehension Test

Directions: In this part of the test, there are 20 sentences. After each sentence, there are five choices: A, B, C, D, and E. Circle the choice which you think best answers the question. After you circle one of the choices, indicate how sure you are of your answer by circling one of the numbers on the scale. For example, if you are completely sure that your answer is correct, circle number "4". If you are "Mostly Sure" that your answer is correct, circle number "3". If you are "Half Sure-Half Unsure" that your answer is correct, circle number "2". If you are "Mostly Unsure" of your answer, circle number "1". And if you are "Completely Unsure" of your answer, circle "0". You have 30 minutes to complete this task.

1) <u>Any student wanting to go on the trip</u> should inform the office.

   What does the underlined part refer to?

   a. Any student who wants to go on the trip

   b. Any student who travels very frequently

   c. Any student who wants to inform the office

   d. A and B are correct.

   e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

2) If I had not talked to him about this matter, I would not have felt happy.

   What can be inferred from the statement above?

   a. I talked to him about this matter, so I felt happy.

   b. I did not feel happy because he did not talk to me about this matter.

   c. I am happy because he will talk to me about this matter.

   d. A and C are correct.

   e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

3) My back hurts. I should not have carried that heavy box up the stairs.

What can be inferred from the statement above?

    a.   I did not carry that heavy box.

    b.   I have carried that heavy box.

    c.   I carried that heavy box.

    d.   B and C are correct.

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

4) My sister visited <u>her friend who was injured by a thief</u>.

What does the underlined part refer to?

    a.   Her friend injured by a thief

    b.   A thief injuring her friend

    c.   Her friend who injured a thief

    d.   A thief injured by her friend

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

5) Joe regretted giving some money to his friend.

*What can be inferred about **Joe** from the statement above?*

    a.   Joe would not give money to his friend anymore.

    b.   Joe did not give some money to his friend.

    c.   Joe gave some money to his friend.

    d.   All of the above are correct.

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

6) Indiana University has awarded Bob a scholarship.

   What does the statement above mean?

   a. A scholarship has been awarded to Bob by Indiana University.

   b. Bob has been awarded a scholarship by Indiana University.

   c. Indiana University has awarded a scholarship to Bob.

   d. All of the above are correct.

   e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

7) My brother loves <u>the dog that is biting the cat</u>.

   What does the underlined part refer to?

   a. The dog bitten by the cat

   b. The dog biting the cat

   c. The cat that is bitten by the dog

   d. A and C are correct.

   e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

8) Today, Susan looks ill; she should have stayed at home.

   What can be inferred about **Susan** *from the statement above?*

   a. Susan has been at home.

   b. Susan did not stay at home.

   c. Susan did not want to stay at home.

   d. A and B are correct.

   e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

9) Judy will never forget seeing the man for the first time.

   What does the statement above mean?

   a. Judy does not remember to see the man.

   b. Judy still remembers seeing the man for the first time.

   c. Judy does not forget to see the man for the first time.

   d. B and C are correct.

   e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

10) <u>The scientific experiment conducted by Dr. Stanton</u> was more successful than that done by Dr. Penn.

   What does the underlined part refer to?

   a. The scientific experiment which was conducted by Dr. Penn

   b. The scientific experiment which was more successful

   c. The scientific experiment which was conducted by Dr. Stanton

   d. A and B are correct.

   e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

11) <u>The children attending that school</u> receive a good education.

   What does the underlined part refer to?

   a. The school which is famous for giving students a good education

   b. The children who attend that school

   c. The children who want to receive a good education

   d. A and C are correct.

   e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

12) Upon reaching the age of 30, I received my inheritance.

What does the statement above mean?

    a.   When I reached the age of 30, I received my inheritance.

    b.   After I had reached the age of 30, I received my inheritance.

    c.   Before I reached the age of 30, I had received my inheritance.

    d.   All of the above are correct.

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

13) Mr. Clouse loves the ideas presented in the black book.

*What can be inferred about **Mr. Clouse** from the statement above?*

    a.   Mr. Clouse loves the black book which presents the ideas.

    b.   Mr. Clouse loves the ideas which the black book presents.

    c.   Mr. Clouse loves both the ideas and the black book.

    d.   A and C are correct.

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

14) Only if it rains will the picnic be cancelled.

What can be inferred from the statement above?

    a.   If it is windy, we will go on the picnic.

    b.   If it rains, we will not go on the picnic.

    c.   If it is damp and foggy, we will go on the picnic.

    d.   All of the above are correct.

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

15) If Jack and Bob had studied, they would have passed the exam.

What can be inferred from the statement above?

    a.   Jack and Bob studied, so they passed the exam.

    b.   Jack and Bob did not pass the exam because they did not study.

    c.   Jack and Bob are going to study so that they can pass the upcoming exam.

    d.   A and C are correct.

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

16) Even <u>the streets which led to its outer barriers</u> were guarded.

What does the underlined part refer to?

    a.   The guarded barriers which are opposite to the streets

    b.   The streets leading to its barriers

    c.   The streets which were led to its outer barriers

    d.   B and C are correct.

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

17) Last month, I was offered a job at a local hospital, but I did not accept it.

What does the statement above mean?

    a.   A local hospital offered me a job.

    b.   A job was offered to me by a local hospital.

    c.   A local hospital offered a job to me.

    d.   All of the above are correct.

    e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

18) Alex remembers going to Mount Fuji in 2005. The sight was very beautiful.

   What does the statement above mean?

   a.   Alex will never forget going to Mount Fuji in 2005.

   b.   Alex remembers to go to Mount Fuji in 2005.

   c.   Alex does not forget to go to Mount Fuji in 2005.

   d.   B and C are correct.

   e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

19) The television is too heavy for Sean to lift.

   What can be inferred about **Sean** *from the statement above?*

   a.   It is impossible for Sean to lift the television.

   b.   Sean does not want to lift the television.

   c.   It is possible but difficult for Sean to lift the television.

   d.   A and B are correct.

   e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

20) The photographs which were published in the magazine were extraordinary.

   What does the underlined part refer to?

   a.   The photographs which were extraordinary

   b.   The photographs published in the magazine

   c.   The magazine which published the photographs

   d.   A and C are correct.

   e.   None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

APPENDIX B: Cloze Test

Instruction: There are forty items below. One blank is given for each item. Two choices are provided for each blank. Please note that both choices are correct. Circle the choice you prefer. You have 30 minutes to complete this task.

1. "We asked our family about moving to Thailand. Five agreed, but one did not. The person _____ with us is our brother, Jim."
   a) disagreeing
   b) who disagreed

2. "I went to the apartment and found that it was not a good place to live. How long did it take you to _____ living there?"
   a) get accustomed to
   b) be used to

3. For centuries, people have searched for the meaning of the word 'love'. Yet despite their _____ definitions, they have not fully captured its true essence.
   a) deep
   b) profound

4. "The gas tank is almost empty. We _____ stop at the next service station."
   a) should
   b) had better

5. "I found the person _____ to be the criminal the policeman mentioned yesterday. He is tall and fierce-looking."
   a) thought
   b) that is thought

6. _____ that linguistic behavior is sensitive to contextual features.

a) Sociolinguistic studies have shown

b) It has been shown in sociolinguistic studies

7. "You agree with me that the play wasn't very good? To me, it was just ordinary. So, no surprise the audience started _____ before it was over."

a) to leave

b) leaving

8. In 1988, Australians commemorated the arrival of the first Europeans in 1788. The occasion was marked by an aboriginal march _____ against the Aborigines' poor living conditions.

a) which was protesting

b) protesting

9. "Andrew is such an indecisive person. He has _____ making up his mind about anything."

a) trouble

b) a difficult time

10. The Parthenon, a tourist attraction in Greece, was _____ in the 5th century BC to serve as a temple.

a) built

b) constructed

11. The diamond _____ from the British Royal Family will be on display at

London's Tate Gallery tomorrow.

a)   which was borrowed

b)   borrowed

12. "What a mess! This room needs _____ up. We have to finish it before our

friends arrive."

a)   to be cleaned

b)   cleaning

13. The evidence from early development studies suggests that a child_____

English as his/her first language follows Leon's (1989) steps.

a)   acquiring

b)   who is acquiring

14. The Olympic Games began more than 2,000 years ago in Olympia, a small town in

Greece. At that time, _____ to compete.

a)   only Greek men were allowed by the Olympic committee

b)   the Olympic committee allowed only Greek men

15. "We need many people to support our plan so that we can develop it further. So,

please tell us definitely whether you _____ our plan."

a)   are for

b)   support

16. The Government expected the contract _____ as part of the required

documents to support its assumptions about the poor quality hotels.

a)   that was included

b)   included

17. Paper is a common material. _____ everywhere in the world.

a)   It is used

b)   People use it

18. "Yesterday, I ran into Suzuki. She told me she _____ learning Russian because

she found it too hard."

a)   gave up

b)   quit

19. In this section, we will have an interview with an American _____ Thai films

and songs, Mr. Tony Goodman.

a)   who appreciates

b)   appreciating

20. "Personally, I think Xiaoyu's essay deals with an interesting issue, but,

unfortunately, it has _____ environmental problems."

a)   omitted

b)   missed out

21. Every year, in Japan, people are admitted to hospital after eating pufferfish. In spite of _____ dangers, strict rules on serving the toxic delicacy in Tokyo are to be relaxed.

a) grave

b) serious

22. Ggantia Temple in the Republic of Malta was constructed from large stones. Within the temple, there is a Buddha statue _____ by stone walls.

a) surrounded

b) which is surrounded

23. "If Jerry and Tom can't come to the conference, it has to be _____ until next week."

a) put off

b) postponed

24. "Leslie, _____ for her starring role in the TV series C.A.T.S Eyes, was happy to put her career on hold and move with her husband."

a) who is known

b) known

25. Recently, a new study has found that younger viewers and those sitting close to the television screen _____ to become ill.

a) are likely

b) tend

26. "When I was young, I often sat on my grandparents' porch and watched the sky

_____ darker at dinner time."

a) growing

b) that was growing

27. _____ to create spider silk. Besides its well-known super-tensile strength, spider

silk is very flexible and lightweight.

a) A spider uses a protein fiber

b) A protein fiber is used by a spider

28. "I heard about the Portrait Competition that will be held in Paris. I will send off a

portrait _____ by my brother. It looks very nice!"

a) drawn

b) that was drawn

29. _____ Mexicans are Mestizos who account for nearly two-thirds of the entire

population of the country.

a) Most

b) The majority of

30. "The teacher was very mad at Flynn. Yesterday, Flynn was talking with Jason during

the class. She asked Flynn to be quiet, but he _____ talking."

a) kept on

b) continued

31. "The Best Picture Oscar winner this year is Shakespeare in Love. But I think the film

_____ the Oscar is Spielberg's Saving Private Ryan."

a) that deserves

b) deserving

32. A critical period is a period during which some essential experience of a child will

have its peak effect on language learning, and _____ his/her normal linguistic

behavior.

a) lead to

b) result in

33. "One thing we found interesting at St. Michael's Monastery was the

picture_____ a group of angels dressed in ancient European robes."

a)   showing

b)   that shows

34. The research findings _____ that the three most frequently occurring errors in

English-to-Thai translation among the participants were article, modifier, and tense.

a) indicated

b) suggested

35. "After grandpa had died, we argued over who would receive his legacy. I thought

grandpa would have been grieved if he could have foreseen the problem

_____ by his death."

a) that was caused

b) caused

36. "Helena and I have been friends for ten years. We've known _____ since we were children."

a)   each other

b)   one another

37. A hot air balloon consists of two parts. The first part is an envelope _____ heated air and a passenger carrier.

a)   which contains

b)   containing

38. Ever since it was built three centuries ago, the Taj Mahal in India, has often been described as the most beautiful building in the world. _____.

a)   The building was designed by a Turkish architect

b)   A Turkish architect designed the building

39. "_____ in my wallet, I found that I didn't have enough money to pay my restaurant bill. So, I asked Daniel to pay for my share."

a)   On looking

b)   When I looked

40. The legacy of Phraya Manopakorn Nititada, _____ as the first Prime Minister of Thailand, is still debatable.

a)   recognized

b)   who is recognized

APPENDIX C: Thai-English Translation Test

Instruction: Please read the following Thai sentences and their English equivalents. Three blanks (a, b, and c) are given for each English item. Two choices are provided for each blank. Please note that both choices are correct. Circle the choice you prefer. You have 30 minutes to complete this task.

1. "หลังเลิกงาน คุณป้าของผม**ชอบเดิน**จากที่ทำงานกลับบ้าน วันนี้ผมเจอท่านที่ร้านกาแฟ ท่าน บอกกับผม**อย่างมีความสุข**ว่า **การเดินกลับบ้านช่วยประหยัดเงินได้นิดหนึ่ง**"

"After work, my aunt (a) _____ home from the office. Today, I met her at a coffee shop. She (b) _____ told me that (c) _____ ."

(a) loves to walk; loves walking

(b) happily; gladly

(c) walking home saved a bit of money; a bit of money was saved by walking home

2. ในเดือนสิงหาคม ปีค.ศ. 1945 สหรัฐอเมริกา ได้ทิ้งระเบิดปรมาณูที่เมืองฮิโรชิมา **ซึ่งตั้งอยู่**ที่ เกาะฮอนชูตะวันตก ซึ่งเป็นเกาะที่ใหญ่ที่สุดในประเทศญี่ปุ่น ทำให้ชาวญี่ปุ่นเสียชีวิตเป็น**จำนวน มาก** นักประวัติศาสตร์ยุคใหม่ต่างพากันกล่าวว่า **เหตุการณ์นี้ถือเป็นจุดเริ่มต้นของยุคระเบิด นิวเคลียร์**

In August 1945, the United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima, a city (a) _____ in western Honshu, the largest island of Japan. The bomb killed (b) _____ Japanese people. Modern historians state that (c) _____.

(a) which was located; located

(b) a number of; many

(c) this event marks the beginning of the nuclear age; the beginning of the nuclear age is marked by this event

3. "**มีคนชื่นชมคุณนายจอห์นสันเยอะนะครับ** เธอเคยบอกกับผมว่า เธอเป็นเพียงผู้หญิงคนหนึ่ง**ที่เชื่อ**ในคำกล่าวที่ว่า ความพยายามอยู่ที่ไหน ความสำเร็จอยู่ที่นั่น ตอนนี้ธุรกิจส่งออกของเธอ**ประสบความสำเร็จ**มาก"

"(a) _____. She told me that she is just a woman (b) _____ in the statement "Where there's a will, there's a way". Now, her export business is very (c) _____."

(a) Many people admire Mrs. Johnson; Mrs. Johnson is admired by many people

(b) believing; who believes

(c) successful; prosperous

4. ในปี ค.ศ. 2006 จีน ลูมิส **เป็น**ที่รู้จักในระดับสากลจากอัลบั้มแรกของเขา "Boom" อัลบั้มนี้**ได้รับ**คำวิจารณ์ในด้านบวกและคว้ารางวัลแผ่นทองคำขาวในงานประกาศรางวัลบริท อวอร์ด ทว่าน่าเศร้าใจยิ่งนัก ในปีถัดมา เขา**เสียชีวิต**เนื่องจากการใช้ยาเสพติดและเครื่องดื่มแอลกอฮอล์

In 2006, Sean Lumis (a) _____ international recognition for his first album, "Boom". The album (b) _____ a positive review from the critics and won him a platinum sales award at the Brit Awards Festival. Unfortunately, in the following year, he (c) _____ as a result of drug and alcohol abuse.

(a) gained; got

(b) received; was given

(c) passed away; died

5. มาริลีน มอนโร ถูก**จัดให้เป็น**ดาราฮอลลีวูดที่สวยที่สุดคนหนึ่ง ทว่าน่าเศร้า นักแสดงสาว**ผู้ขึ้นชื่อ**
เรื่องการแสดงที่ผสมผสานความขี้เล่น และความเปราะบาง เสียชีวิตในปีค.ศ. 1962 จนถึงทุกวันนี้
การตายของเธอยังคงเป็นปริศนา

Marilyn Monroe is (a) _____ as one of the most beautiful Hollywood stars.

Unfortunately, the actress, (b) _____ for combining playfulness and vulnerability in her

performance, died in 1962. Until now, (c) _____.

(a) considered; regarded

(b) who was known; known

(c) her death is still surrounded by mystery; mystery still surrounds her death

6. "ผู้ชาย**ที่ยืนอยู่**ตรงหน้าโรงเรียน เป็นพี่ชายของฉัน เขา**ตื่น**เช้าทุกวัน **เพราะ**ที่ทำงานของเขาอยู่
ไกลจากบ้านมาก ๆ"

"The man (a) _____ in front of the school is my brother. He (b) _____ early every day (c)

_____ his workplace is very far from our home."

(a) standing; who is standing

(b) gets up; awakes

(c) since; because

7. **ความแตกต่าง**ประการหนึ่งระหว่างเทพเจ้าของกรีกกับของวัฒนธรรมอื่น ก็คือ เหล่าเทวะของกรีก จะมีรูปกายที่เหมือนกับมนุษย์ **กล่าวอีกนัยหนึ่ง** พวกเขาไม่ได้มีความอัศจรรย์ เช่น หลายกร หลาย เศียร หรือรูปร่างคล้ายสัตว์แต่อย่างใด เทพเจ้ากรีกที่เป็นที่รู้จักกันดี คือ ซูส ประมุขแห่งทวยเทพ พี่ น้องทั้งหมด 5 องค์ของซูส ถูกพระบิดาคือโครนัส**กลืนกินเข้าไป**หมดทุกองค์

A (a) _____ between Greek deities and those of other cultures is that they have human form. (b) _____, they are not miraculous creatures with many arms or heads, or the body of an animal. A well-known Greek god is Zeus whose five siblings were (c) _____ alive by their father Cronus.

(a) difference; distinction

(b) That is; In other words

(c) swallowed; got down

8. "เมื่อวานนี้ **หลังจากเลิกเรียน**วิชาภาษาอังกฤษ พวกเราก็ไปที่โรงพยาบาลจุฬาลงกรณ์ เพื่อ**เยี่ยม** และมอบสิ่งของต่าง ๆ ให้เด็กผู้หญิงคนหนึ่ง*ที่*ช็อกกับการจากไปอย่างกะทันหันของแม่ของเธอ"

"Yesterday, (a) _____ our English class, we went to Chulalongkorn Hospital to (b) _____ and give things to a girl(c) _____ by the sudden death of her mother."

(a) after finishing; after we finished

(b) visit; drop in on

(c) shocked; that was shocked

9. นิยายเรื่อง 'The German Sergeant' ของลินดา โจฮานสัน ถูกนำมาสร้างเป็นภาพยนตร์**นำแสดงโดย**แจ็ค กู๊ดแมน **จิม ทอมป์สันกำกับหนังเรื่องนี้ได้อย่างยอดเยี่ยม** เมื่อออกฉาย หนังได้รับ**เสียงชื่นชม**จากนักวิจารณ์ แต่กลับล้มเหลวด้านรายได้

Linda Johansan's novel 'The German Sergeant' was turned into a film (a) _____ Jack Goodman. (b) _____. At the time of its release, it enjoyed critical (c) _____, but commercially failed.

(a)   which stars; starring

(b)   Jim Thompson marvelously directed the film; The film was marvelously directed by Jim Thompson

(c)   success; acclaim

10. ในช่วงเดือนสิงหาคม ปี ค.ศ. 1880 วินเซนต์ แวนโก๊ะ ในวัย 27 ปี **ตัดสินใจ**ที่จะเป็นจิตรกร ส่วนใหญ่เขาจะ**พึ่งพา**การศึกษาหาความรู้ด้วยตนเอง **แต่**ในบางครั้งก็มีพบปะพูดคุยกับศิลปินชาวดัตช์ ชื่อ แอนตัน แวน แรฟพาร์ด บ้าง

In August 1880, Vincent Van Gogh, at the age of 27, (a) _____ that he would become a painter. He mostly (b) _____ self-study, (c) _____ sometimes he sought the company of Dutch artist Anthon van Rappard.

(a) decided; made up his mind

(b) relied on; depended on

(c) but; yet

11. "ภาพนี้**ทำให้ฉันนึกถึง**ตอนเรายังสาว ๆ นะ ดูสิ ตอนนั้น แอนนา**หุ่นดี** แต่ตอนนี้เธออ้วน น้ำหนัก
    เกิน ที่เป็นแบบนี้**เพราะ**เธอติดพวกอาหารจั๊งค์ฟู๊ด"

"This photo (a) _____ of when we were young. Look! At that time, Anna was (b) _____,
but, she is now overweight, a problem (c) _____ by her addiction to junk food."

(a) makes me think; reminds me

(b) slim; slender

(c) which is caused; caused

12. **เกรเกอร์ เมนเดล สังเกตเห็นว่า** ไม่ว่าลักษณะและที่มาของต้นถั่วพ่อแม่พันธุ์จะเป็นอย่างไร ผลที่
    ได้จากต้นถั่วรุ่นลูกนั้น มักจะตรงกับหลักการที่เขาเสนอขึ้นเสมอ นอกจากนี้ เมนเดล **ซึ่งสรุปว่า**
    ตามหลักสถิติ ผลการทดลองเหล่านี้ ไม่สามารถเกิดขึ้นได้จากความบังเอิญ ยังได้**เสนอ**ทฤษฎีสอง
    ข้อ จากข้อมูลของเขา คือ กฎแห่งการแยกตัว และกฎแห่งการรวมกลุ่มกันอย่างอิสระ

(a) _____ regardless of the trait or the origin of the parents, the results in the offspring are
always consistent with his principle. Also, Mendel, (b) _____ that, statistically, these results
could not occur by chance, (c) _____ two theories from his data: the law of segregation
and the law of independent assortment.

(a) It was observed by Gregor Mendel that; Gregor Mendel observed that

(b) who concluded; concluding

(c) proposed; presented

13. มิวสิควีดีโอ กังนัม สไตล์ ของ Psy ศิลปินเพลงป๊อบชาวเกาหลีใต้ ได้รับ**เสียงตอบรับ**ที่ดีจากวงการ
เพลงและนักวิจารณ์ แชนนอล คุก ผู้รายงานข่าวของซีเอ็นเอ็น **กล่าวว่า ความสำเร็จของมิวสิค
วีดีโอนี้ มาจาก**ท่าเต้นที่สนุกสนานของ Psy โดยเฉพาะฉากสุดท้ายของมิวสิควีดีโอที่แช่ภาพ Psy
ขณะกำลังลอยตัวอยู่กลางอากาศ

The music video of Gangnam Style by the South Korean pop artist, Psy, has been met with
positive (a) _____ from the music industry and commentators. CNN reporter Shannon Cook
(b) _____ Psy's amusing dance moves, especially the ending scene. It freezes on Psy (c)
_____ into the air.

(a) responses; reactions

(b) attributed the music video's success to; said that the music video's success is due to

(c) who is leaping; leaping

14. สมเด็จกรมพระยาดำรงราชานุภาพทรง**สันนิษฐาน**ว่า เจดีย์ยอดทรงดอกบัวสร้างขึ้นเพื่อเป็น
อนุสรณ์ของเหตุการณ์สำคัญที่**เกิดขึ้น**เมื่อกรุงสุโขทัยเป็นราชธานี ครั้งพ่อขุนรามคำแหงชนช้าง**มีชัย
ชนะ**ขุนสามชนเจ้าเมืองฉอดที่ยกทัพเข้ามาตีเมืองตากในรัชสมัยของพ่อขุนศรีอินทราทิตย์

Prince Damrong (a) _____ that the lotus-bud tower commemorates a historical event that
(b) _____ when Sukothai was still independent of Ayudhya. Once during the reign of his
father King Sri Intharathit, Prince Ramkhamhaeng (c) _____ over Khun Sam Chon of Chot
who was attaching Tak.

(a) suggested; assumed

(b) took place; occurred

(c) won; achieved a victory

15. "เซอร์ไพรซ์มาก พวกเรามาเจอนายที่นี่**โดยบังเอิญ** แล้วดูสิ วิทยากร**ที่กำลังพูด**อยู่หน้าพวกเรา ก็เป็นอาจารย์จากคณะเราด้วย เราควรเข้าไปทักทายแกหลังจากงานประชุมนี้จบนะ **ฉันว่า**"

"What a surprise! We meet you here (a) _____. And you see, the lecturer (b) _____ in front of us is a teacher from our faculty. We should say hi to him after the conference, (c) _____."

(a) by chance; accidentally

(b) speaking; who is speaking

(c) I think; I suppose

16. เครื่องโพลีกราฟ หรือ "เครื่องจับเท็จ" คือเครื่องมือ**ที่ใช้**ในการติดตามอาการตอบสนองทางกายภาพของบุคคล เครื่องโพลีกราฟมาจากการผสมผสานกันของ**เครื่องมือ**ทางการแพทย์หลายชนิด เมื่อบุคคลถูกตั้งคำถามเกี่ยวกับ**เหตุการณ์ที่เกิดขึ้น** ผู้ตรวจสอบก็จะสังเกตระดับการเปลี่ยนแปลงของอัตราการเต้นของหัวใจ และเปรียบเทียบอัตราดังกล่าวกับระดับปกติ

The polygraph or "a lie detector" is an instrument (a) _____ to monitor a person's physiological reactions. A polygraph is a combination of medical (b) _____. As a person is questioned about (c) _____, the examiner looks to see how the person's heart rate changes, and compares them to the normal rates.

(a) used; which is used

(b) devices; tools

(c) an incident; an event

17. ภาพเขียนฝาผนังพระที่นั่งดุสิตมหาปราสาท **จัดทำขึ้น**ในรัชสมัยรัชกาลที่ 6 **โดยบอกเล่าเรื่องราว**
เกี่ยวกับพระราชกรณียกิจของรัชกาลที่ 1 ความมุ่งหมายในการเขียนภาพฝาผนังเช่นนี้ คือ เพื่อ
รักษาศิลปะการเขียนภาพฝาผนังอย่างวิธีโบราณให้สืบต่อเนื่องกัน เพราะวิธีเขียนภาพแบบนี้ไม่**ใคร่**
มีใครเขียนมาตั้งแต่รัชกาลที่ 3 แล้ว

The mural paintings inside the Dusit Maha Prasat were (a) _____ in the sixth reign. (b)
_____. These tempera murals were done to promote a revival of traditional Thai mural
painting technique and style which few had (c) _____ to employ since the third reign.

(a) conducted; done
(b) The murals depict events of the first reign; Events of the first reign are depicted in the
morals
(c) wanted; wished

18. "มีเพลงหลายเพลงที่ช่วยให้ฉันผ่าน**ช่วงเวลาแย่ ๆ** มาได้ เพลง**ที่ทำให้ฉันอึ้ง**ไปเลย คือ เพลง
'Magic of Time' ของ Runie Waldoff **เพลงนี้ทำให้ฉันดีขึ้นมาก ๆ เลยล่ะ**"

"Many songs helped me get through my (a) _____. The song (b) _____ me is Runie
Waldoff's 'Magic of Time'. (c) _____."

(a) difficulties; troubles
(b) that surprises; surprising
(c) I was made much better by this song; This song made me much better

19. "ผมว่า ทิม ครูซ เป็นนักแสดงชายอเมริกัน**ที่เจ๋งที่สุด**คนหนึ่งเลยนะครับ หนังที่ดีที่สุดของเขา

น่าจะเป็นเรื่อง 'A Teacher' ที่เขาเล่นเป็น จิม ฮอฟฟ์แมน ครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษของเด็กชายชาว

ญี่ปุ่น**ที่แสดง**โดย นาคามูระ ทัตซึยะ **พวกนักวิจารณ์หนังชอบการแสดงของครูซมาก**"

"I think Tim Cruise is one of the (a) _____ American actors. His best film is probably 'A

Teacher'. He plays Jim Hoffman, the English instructor to a Japanese boy (b) _____ by

Nakamura Tatsuya. (c) _____."

(a) greatest; coolest

(b) played; which is played

(c) Film critics really love Cruise's performance; Cruise's performance is really loved by film

    critics

20. ริชาร์ด: "คุณอยู่ไหน **ที่รัก**"

    เอ็มมา: "ฉัน**กำลังจะ**ถึงบ้านแล้วค่ะ คุณทำอะไรอยู่คะ"

    ริชาร์ด: "ผมกำลังทำงานอยู่น่ะ อยาก**ทำให้เสร็จ**เร็วที่สุดเท่าที่จะทำได้"

 Richard: "Where are you, (a) _____?"

 Emma: "I (b) _____ get home. What are you doing?"

 Richard: "I'm working. I want to (c) _____ as soon as possible."

(a) dear; honey

(b) am gonna; am about to

(c) finish my assignment; get my assignment over

21. ศิลปะการต่อสู้ ไม่ได้**ว่าด้วย**แค่เรื่องของการต่อยและการเตะ หากยังเกี่ยวกับการแสดงตัวตนของ
เราด้วย กล่าวกันว่า ผู้**ที่เข้าใจ**ศิลปะการต่อสู้ได้ดีที่สุด คือ นักแสดงชาวฮ่องกงที่ชื่อ บรู๊ซ ลี เขา
แสดงความเข้าใจในศิลปะประเภทนี้ผ่านภาพยนตร์ของเขา

Martial art is (a) _____not only punching and kicking, but also expression of oneself. It has

been stated that the person (b) _____ about martial arts best is a Hong Kong actor named

Bruce Lee. He (c) _____ his insight about this kind of art in his films.

(a) concerning; about

(b) who understands; understanding

(c) expresses; shows

22. "ตำรวจบุกตรวจบาร์**เถื่อน**ที่อยู่ตรงข้ามกับบ้านของโรเบิร์ต ตอนนี้กำลังสอบปากคำเจ้าของบาร์**กับ**
พวกลูกค้า ซึ่งมีผู้หญิง**คนที่ว่ากันว่า**ฆ่าสามีตัวเองเมื่อวานนี้ด้วย"

"Police have raided the (a) _____ bar opposite to Robert's home. They are questioning

the bar owner (b) _____ the customers, including the woman (c) _____ to have

murdered her husband yesterday."

(a) illegal; illicit

(b) as well as; and also

(c) who is believed; believed

23. "**แม้**สามีจะทำให้เจ็บช้ำมาตลอดชีวิตการแต่งงาน แต่จูดี้ก็ยังคง**ซื่อสัตย์**ต่อเขาอยู่ดี เธอไม่ยอมหา

คนใหม่แม้เธอจะมี**โอกาส**ก็ตาม"

"(a) _____ her husband has been hurting her for all their marriage life, Judy is still (b)

_____ to him. She refused to find a new one even though she had (c) _____ to do so."

(a) Although; Even if

(b) true; faithful

(c) an opportunity; a chance

24. ประเทศกรีซ หรือ**ที่รู้จักกัน**ในนาม สาธารณรัฐเฮลเลนิก ตั้งอยู่ทางตะวันออกเฉียงใต้ของทวีปยุโรป

ลักษณะภูมิประเทศมีทั้งส่วนที่เป็นแผ่นดินใหญ่ และหมู่เกาะ**หลากหลาย**ขนาด มีเมืองหลวงคือกรุง

เอเธนส์ ซึ่งเป็นเมืองที่**ใหญ่**ที่สุดของประเทศเช่นกัน

Greece (a) _____ as the Hellenic Republic is situated in the southeast of Europe. Its

topography includes its mainland and a spread of islands of (b) _____ sizes. The capital of

Greece is Athens, which is also its (c) _____ city.

(a) which is known; known

(b) several; varying

(c) largest; biggest

VITA

Mr. Supakit Thiamtawan obtained his Bachelor of Arts in English from the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University in Nakhon Pathom, Thailand, in 2009. His interest in English linguistics inspired him to study in the Master of Arts Program in English at the Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok, Thailand, in 2011.

Mr. Thiamtawan's thesis involves an investigation of L1 Thai learners' avoidance of the English participial reduced relative clause. He presented the major findings of his study at the 4th Malaysia International Conference on Foreign Languages (July 3-4, 2013). His paper was accepted to be published in the 2nd issue of LEARN Journal, Volume 1, Issue 2 (forthcoming).