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AN ANALYSIS OF INTERLANGUAGE OF COMPLEMENT USAGES
IN THAI UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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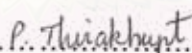
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งานวิจัยนี้มุ่งศึกษาภาษาในระหว่างของนักศึกษาไทยผ่านการใช้ประโยคขยาย ข้อมูลในงานวิจัยมาจากงานเขียนของนักศึกษาไทยจำนวน 30 คน โดยแบ่งเป็น 2 กลุ่มตามระดับความเชี่ยวชาญทางภาษา จากการศึกษาพบว่า   นักศึกษากลุ่มนี้ซึ่งเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาที่สองพัฒนาการการเรียนรู้ซึ่งมีลักษณะคล้ายคลึงกับพัฒนาการทางภาษาของเด็กเจ้าของภาษา นักศึกษาใช้ประโยคขยายนำด้วย'to' ก่อนประโยคขยายมีรูป'ing' และประโยคขยายนำด้วยรูป'wh' นอกจากนี้ประโยคขยายบอกเล่านำด้วย'that' จะพัฒนาก่อนประโยคขยายนำด้วยคำถาม'wh'   การศึกษานี้ยังพบว่าผู้เรียนมีการใช้กลวิธีการสร้างประโยคขยายที่หลากหลาย ได้แก่ กลวิธีการเรียนภาษาที่สอง การถ่ายโอนภาษา การสรุปเกินการ การถ่ายโอนจากการเรียนการแก้ไขเกินเหตุ กลวิธีการสื่อสารภาษาที่สอง และ กลยุทธ์การเลี่ยง

สาขาวิชา: ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ   ลายมือชื่อนิสิต..........วาริธร สมณะ..........

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The study investigates the interlanguage of Thai university students through their usages of complements. The data was collected from English writing assignments of thirty students at two different proficiency levels. The results show that there is no difference in the developmental sequences of complements in the students who study English as the second language and English native children. The data shows that 'to' infinitive complements precede 'ing' complements and 'wh' infinitive complements, respectively. Moreover, 'that' complements appear before 'wh' complements. Many language strategies are found to be used by the subjects, namely, strategy of second language learning, language transfer, overgeneralization, transfer of training, hypercorrection, strategy of second language communication, and avoidance.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The complement is one of the subordinate constructions. The structure is necessary in communication as it helps speakers to express complex information (Clark, 2003: 246). The complement is an important English structure. The corpus study of Greenbaum, Nelson and Weitzman (1996) reported that complements are the most frequent subordinate clauses used in English.

The use of complements as well as other complex structures is usually regarded as a mark of linguistic maturity (Rosenberg and Abbedoto, 1987: 19) because it takes years even for native speakers to acquire the complement system completely (Diessel, 2004). For second language learners, the use of complements, especially non-finite complements, is an area of their difficulty (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 433). Burt and Kiparsky (cited in Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 189-197) studied the errors made by adult EFL learners. Their research showed that inappropriate use of complement choices was considered as a type of 'global errors' in English syntax, affecting general communication and easily conveying misunderstanding messages to audiences.

There are several research studies reporting that Thai students have problems with complement usages (Angwatanakul, 1975; Janyasupab, 1978; Fleg, 1983; Pongpairoj, 2002). These studies have tended to focus on the errors produced by the students, rather than on the language they construct during their learning. Understanding language of the students, in other words, their interlanguage is

necessary. Since during the learning of the second language students may construct their own interlanguage rules which may not be the same as those found in the target language. The rules may interfere with the second language learning. The analysis of their interlanguage would provide the insight to the language system the students possess (Hung, 2003:56). Therefore, this study attempts to enhance a deeper understanding about interlanguage through the complement usages in second language learners.

1.2 Research Questions

The research questions of the present study are as follows:

1. What are the complement structures that Thai university students use?

2. What are strategies influencing the Thai university students' complement interlanguage?

3. What are the developmental sequences of the Thai university students' complement interlanguage?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the present study are:

1. to examine Thai university students' complement interlanguage

2. to find out the strategies influencing the Thai university students' complement interlanguage

3. to investigate the developmental sequences of the Thai university students' complement interlanguage

1.4 Statement of Hypothesis

The hypotheses of the present study are as follows:

1. There are many types of complements constructed by Thai university students.

2. According to Selinker (1988), there are five strategies which involve shaping learners' interlanguage, i.e. language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication and overgeneralization. The mentioned strategies have influence on Thai university students' complement interlanguage.

3. A comparison between a group of students with high level of proficiency and a group of students with low level of English proficiency reveals differences in their usages of complements, which reflect the developmental sequences of Thai university students' interlanguage.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The analysis of interlanguage in this study are from the usages of complement structures. The analysis covers (1) sentences with usages of complements, (2) sentences with attempts to use complements and (3) sentences with required contexts to use complements. As this research is a cross–sectional study, the data is collected from two groups of subjects with different levels of proficiency.

1.6 Assumptions of the Study

The assumptions of the present study are as follows:

1. In many studies about language acquisition in children, it has been reported that children begin to use complements after their language system has been completely developed (Diessel, 2004) and it takes years for the native children to use these complex structures correctly (Clark, 2003). This study assumes that proficiency has an influence on the usages of complements. Students with high proficiency, in other words, with more linguistic knowledge should use more complex complements than students with low level of proficiency.

2. This study uses a cross- sectional method. It investigates different groups of subjects at one point of time; therefore, it assumes that the production of the low proficient group can represent the early developmental stages of students' interlanguage while the production of the high proficient group can represent the interlanguage in the more advanced stage.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

The delimitations of the present study are as follows:

1. The subjects of the present study are second year students at Dhurakij Pundit University who are studying General English II. The students are divided into high and low language proficiency groups according to their scores from General English I. Thus, the result of the study may not be generalized to the other groups of university students or to other groups with high and low levels of proficiency.

2. The study focuses mainly on the developmental acquisition of complements. It cannot generalize to the acquisition of other syntactic structures.

3. The writing task topics in this study are not completely controlled. Although the topics are given, students can choose their favorite genres and styles of writing. Also, they have opportunities to decide on their own the choice and complexity of sentence structures, including complements. Therefore, not every type of complements is found in the study. The students may avoid using some unfamiliar complement constructions.

1.8 Definition of Terms

1. The term 'interlanguage' in this study is the language system which is a continuum between the learners' native language and the target language (Selinker, 1988). During their learning, the learners construct their own language system. The rules in their interlanguage may be different from those in the target language, as the interlanguage rules emerge from the learners' stage of development. The interlanguage can be changed over time because each learner continuously revises it in his/her process of learning (Corder, 1981).

2. 'Complement is a complex construction that functions to fulfill the incompleteness in the sentence slot (Master, 1995). There are two types of complements in this study: non-finite complements, which include 'to' infinitive complements, 'bare' infinitive complements, 'ing' complements, and 'wh' infinitive complements; and finite complements, which include 'that' complements, 'wh' complements, and 'if/whether' complements (Diessel, 2004).

1.9 Significance of the Study

Complement is one of the essential constructions in successful communication (Burt and Kiparsky cited in Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 189-197; Clark, 2003: 245-246). However, the research about complement usages among Thai students tends to focus on the errors and consider the errors as mistakes which should be eliminated (Janyasupab, 1978).

Attempting to investigate students' interlanguage, the present study should be beneficial in several ways. Theoretically, it will bring to light more understanding about learners' interlanguage as well as provide information about strategies and developmental sequences in their learning complements.

For the pedagogical aspect, the results of the study should help contribute to a course syllabus design and the development of teaching materials about complements which conform to Thai learners' language development.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Interlanguage

Interlanguage study is a branch of second language acquisition research. Like the studies in the same field, it focuses on the nature of the language acquisition process and aims to investigate the language learning rules that language learners apply (Corder, 1981: 14). Since the early 1970s, interlanguage has been recognized as a major approach to second language research and theory. The word 'interlanguage,' originally coined by Selinker in 1972, is defined as a language system constructed by learners when they attempt to communicate in the target language. It is a continuum of the learners' native language and target language (Selinker, 1988: 113).

Prior to the introduction of interlanguage, many linguists conducted a number of contrastive studies between learners' native language and target language to predict and describe learners' errors, which, as it was assumed, were caused by the differences between the first language and the second language (Sridhar, 1981: 209). Due to the influence of Behaviorism in that period, it was widely believed that learners tended to transfer their old habits in the first language to the new habits in the second language. The similarity in the native language would facilitate the learning in the target language. On the other hand, the differences of the two languages would interfere with the learning (Ellis, 1987: 20-23). However, it was found later in many studies that a great number of errors predicted by contrastive analysis did not occur, and that many actual errors were not predicted (Corder, 1981: 5; Ellis, 1987: 27-35; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1999: 61).

Since contrastive analysis did not contribute as much as it should, this drew more attention to error analysis (Corder, 1981: 5). Sridhar (1981: 221-224) mentioned that error analysis has a long history. In the early period, error analysis was only the teachers' collections of students' common errors and linguistic expression. With dissatisfaction in contrastive analysis, the analysis of learners' errors was revolutionized in the late 1960s.

To confirm and disapprove the predictions of contrastive analysis, error analysis was used as a technique to check the validity of the hypotheses predicted by contrastive analysis. It was, moreover, modified to cover the psycholinguistic process in language learning of the learners (Ellis, 1987: 53). Learners' errors might not only result from the first language transfer; they might be from other strategies. In his paper about error analysis, Richards (1980: 94) classified different types of errors based on different processes learners might employ in order to simplify their learning. There are overgeneralization, simplification, developmental errors, communication based errors, induced errors, errors as avoidance, and errors of overproduction.

Although the theory of error analysis and interlanguage are associated (Ellis, 1987: 51), they are different in many aspects. Error analysis focuses only on learners' errors and regards them as evidence of learners' attempts to learn the second language. However, the study of interlanguage is interested in learners' performances, including errors (Sridhar, 1981: 232). Also, error analysis can illustrate a partial picture of learners' production because it usually examines the learning at a single point of time and does not pay much attention to the developmental sequence of the learning (Ellis, 1987: 68).

According to Ellis (1987: 50), there are three essential characteristics of interlanguage. This learners' language is 'permeable.' The rules in interlanguage are

not fixed. The language is also considered to be 'dynamic.' It is constantly changed since the learners usually revise their individual rules to accommodate with those of the target language. Finally, interlanguage is 'systematic.' Learners do not produce their language randomly, but predictably, because they base their performances on the interlanguage rules they create. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1999: 81-107) add that with its systematic character, interlanguage provides evidence about acquisition orders and developmental sequences of the second language, and shows the influence of learners' first language.

In his book *Second language acquisition*, Ellis (2000) describes many factors that may trigger variations in the interlanguage. Learners' language may vary as the result of linguistic context. There was a report that the verb 'be' was usually used with pronoun subjects while it was omitted with noun subjects in learners' interlanguage. Situation also plays some roles in the interlanguage as it was found that learners tend to use correct forms in the formal situation. Moreover, they might perform better when they had time for preparation as the results of psycholinguistic factor.

The study of Tarone (1985) clearly showed the systematic variability on the performances of second language learners. Native speakers of Arabic and Japanese were asked to complete three tests: a written grammatical test, an oral interview, and a story telling. Despite the differences of the mother tongue languages, the results showed the similar constructions of variations in some morphological and grammatical forms between the two groups. When the subjects were asked to perform some tasks which they needed to pay attention to some particular grammatical forms, the tasks had influence on the accuracy rate of their production.

Similarly, the systematic and dynamic changes in learners' interlanguage were showed in the cross-sectional and longitudinal studies of Bardovi-Harlig (1992,

1997). Investigating the acquisition of tense and aspect in second language learners, she found the development in learners' performance. The subjects tended to acquire grammatical forms before they were able to use the form with appropriate functions.

Selinker (1988: 29-32) argues that there are five principal processes involved in learners' interlanguage. 'Language transfer' is identified as the process in which the interlanguage receives the influence from the native language. 'Transfer of training' is identified as the process where interlanguage receives the influence from training procedure. 'Strategies of second language learning' are identified as the strategies which learners used with their learning. 'Strategies of second language communication' are identified as the strategies which learners use when trying to communicate with the native speaker of the target language. Finally, 'overgeneralization of target language material' is the process which learners extend target language rules and semantic features to the environment where the rules are not applied by native speakers of the target language.

The example of the strategies in learners' interlanguage can be seen in the work of Selinker, Swain and Dumas (1975). They studied the language of 20 English native children studying French in a French immersion program in Canada. The research showed that the subjects' interlanguage grammar was influenced by strategies of first language transfer, and simplification and overgeneralization of target language.

The learning of first language seems to take a different route from that of the second language in Selinker's point of view (McLaughlin, 1988: 61), as he mentioned about the phenomenon 'fossilization.' Fossilization is a phenomenon in which language learners may "tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular

target language, no matter what the age of the learners are or amount of explanation and instruction they received in the target language" (Selinker, 1988: 28). The fossilization results from language transfer strategies and other processes. Learners stop their learning while their interlanguage still contains some rules differing from those in the target language system. He assumes that around 95 percent of language learners fail to reach the target language competence because their interlanguage is fossilized before acquiring the competence in the target language.

There are very few studies about Thai students' language. Vairojanavong (1983) did a contrastive study and error analysis of English pronunciation of medical terms. The result showed that most of the pronunciation received mother tongue interference. Moreover, the resident doctors who used those medical terms in their daily life tended to produce more errors in the pronunciation than medical students who were not familiar with the term.

In 1999, Han and Selinker conducted a longitudinal case study of a 26 years old female Thai who was studying Norwegian. The subject had problems with the null subject construction and the verb 'ha' (to have) in the existential structure 'det voere' (there be). Because in Thai language, there was no existential structure, the study showed that the native language of the subject had influence on the interlanguage she created. However, language transfer is not the only factor involving in the subject's language; the paper found that the unclear pedagogical input in the textbook also played a crucial role in giving the subject confidence in her own rule.

A recent study about Thai students' language was conducted by Wannaruk (2003), which investigated language of university students at different proficiency levels when they faced with problem in communication. The findings showed that

students with different level of proficiency employed different communication strategies. The most frequently used communication strategy was the use of 'modification devices.' The usages of 'nonlinguistic strategies,' 'L1-based strategies,' 'target language-based strategies,' and 'avoidance strategies' were also found. The students in the low proficiency group tended to use communication strategies in their interlanguage more than students in the intermediate and high groups.

2.2 Complement Constructions

Every language allows a sentence to be expanded infinitely (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 163). The complement is one of the complex structures in which one or more complements can be added to the main clause in order to convey complex information (Clark, 2003: 245). The main function of the complement is to "complete the sentence slot to which it is added" (Master, 19995: 340).

2.2.1 English complementizers and its structural types

Complements are usually categorized according to their complementizers and structures (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 164; Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik, 1980: 734; Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 417; Master, 1996: 340; Biber et al., 1999: 658).

The complementizer is considered as a marker for a complement (Master, 1996: 340). It results from complementizer transformation (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 164). In his book *the Grammar of English Predicate Complement Constructions*, Rosenbaum (1968: 24) talks about five complementizers in English. They are 'that,' 'for,' 'to,' possessive morphemes, and 'ing.' The complementizer

'for' usually occurs in pairs with the complementizer 'to' whereas the possessive complementizer appears with the complementizer 'ing.' The complementizer 'that' is always found alone. Thus, he refers to these complementizers as the complementizer 'for-to', the complementizer 'possessive-ing' and the complementizer 'that.' Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983: 417) mention three common complementizers, i.e. the complementizer 'that' in 'that' complements, the complementizer 'for' in to-infinitive complements and the possessive complementizer in 'ing' complements which take possessive subjects. The 'bare' infinitive complement construction is concerned as a part of to-infinitive complement construction while interrogative complementizers, such as 'wh' words, 'if' and 'whether' are under the subcategory of the declarative complementizer 'that' (465-466). For Master (1995: 340), there are four types of complementizers, which are 'that,' 'to,' 'ing,' and 'than' in comparative clauses. In Biber et al. (1999: 658) 'that,' 'wh,' 'to' and 'ing' are the main complementizers in their book. The complementizers 'bare infinitive' and 'wh-infinitive' are in the subcategorized of the complementizers 'to' (694) and 'wh,' (685) respectively.

In terms of their structural types, complements can be divided into finite and non-finite complements (Biber et al., 1999: 658). The finite complements are the clauses that show their tenses and subjects (Richards & Schmidt, 2002: 202). This type of complements is similar to free sentences as their verbs are still infected for tenses and no constituents are deleted (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 419). The finite complements include 'that' complements, 'wh' complements and 'if/whether' complements. For non-finite complements, tenses and subjects are not marked (Richards & Schmidt, 2002: 202). The complements lose their subjects when

the subjects of the complement are identical to those in the main clauses. Moreover, tenses and modal auxiliaries do not appear in the non-finite complements because the infinitive and gerundive complementizers obstruct the application of verbal agreement transformation (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 168). The non-finite complements include 'to' infinitive complements, 'bare infinitive' clauses, 'ing' complements and 'wh' infinitive complements.

2.2.2 Types of complements

Complements can be controlled by nouns, lexical verbs or sets of a copular and an adjective (Biber et al., 1999: 658); however, in the deep structure, the complements can be dominated by noun phrases or verb phrases (Rosenbaum, 1968; Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968).

There are two types of complements in English. The complements dominated by nouns are called 'noun phrase complements,' while those dominated by verbs are called 'verb phrase complements' (Rosenbaum, 1968).

2.2.2.1 Noun phrase complements

Complements in this type are known as nominal complements because they are filled in a noun phrase slot and function as subject, object, or predicative (Greenbaum, Leech and Svartik, 1980: 735; Biber et al, 1999: 658). The constructions can have every type of complementizers.

(1)   a. The rumor *that they visited Thailand* surprised me.

       b. I don't know their need *to visit Thailand*.

The above complements in (1) are controlled by the nouns 'rumor,' and 'need.' These noun phrase complements may be in the subject position as in (1a.) or in the object position as in (1b.) (Jacob & Rosenbaum, 1968: 164).

However, there are many cases where the noun controlling the noun phrase complement does not appear. Consider the sentences in (2).

(2)   a. They doubt *that you will go*.

        b. Everybody prefers *your driving slowly*.

The above sentences show the complements in the object position. 'That you will go' is an object of the verb 'doubt.' Similarly, 'your driving slowly' is controlled by the verb 'prefer.'

(3)   a. They doubt [[it]$_N$ [that you will go]$_S$]$_{NP}$

        b. Everybody prefers [[it]$_N$ [you drive slowly]$_S$]$_{NP}$

The sentences in (3) are the underlying strings of the sentences in (2). Before deriving to (2), each complement is controlled by the pronominal head, which from these examples are the pronoun 'it.' However, the pronominal head of the noun phrase complementation is deleted later in the transformation process (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 50).

2.2.2.2 Verb phrase complements

Verb phrase complements are complements which are embedded directly after verb phrase. Either 'to' infinitive complements or 'ing' complements can be verb phrase complement. (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968: 193-198)

(4)   a. She continued *working*.

        b. Someone trusts John *to do the work*.

(5)   a. She continued [[she]$_{NP}$ [work]$_{VP}$]$_S$

b. Someone trusts [John]$_{NP}$ [[John]$_{NP}$ [do the work]$_{VP}$]$_S$

The sentences in (4) are the example of sentences with verb phrase complement. Their underlying strings are shown in (5). It is observed that the complement 'she work' and the complement 'John do the work' are not dominated by any noun phrase. The verb 'continue' in (5a.) is an intransitive verb; so it does not require any object noun phrase. The complement 'working' simply comes after the verb. This construction is called 'intransitive verb phrase' (Jacob & Rosenbaum, 1968: 194). The example of 'transitive verb phrase complement construction' is shown in (5b.). Although the verb 'trust' is followed by a noun phrase 'John,' the complement 'to do the work' is under the domination of the verb 'trust.'

2.2.3 Positions of complements

In the corpus based grammar by Biber et al. (1999), most English complements commonly occur after main verbs, in other words, in the post predicate position, as the in (6). The complements in pre predicate position as in (7) are quite rare.

(6)   Sara could not remember *when she met us.*

(7)   a. *That they visited Rome* interested me.

          b. *To work at night* is terrible.

Generally, new information in English is expected to come after the verb. Therefore, pre-predicate subjects are usually avoided. The informative subject is usually moved to the end of the sentence. This process, which applies with 'to' infinitive complements and 'that' complements is known as extraposition (Master, 1995: 343-344).

(8)   a. It interested me *that they visited Rome*.

         b. It is terrible to work at night.

2.2.4 Complements in Thai language

Although there are two types of complements in English: noun phrase complements and verb phrase complements, there are only noun phrase complements in Thai language (Upakit-Sillapasan, 1971: 263). Similar to general nouns, Thai complements may appear in two places: either at the subject position or at the object position (Upakit-Sillapasan, 1971: 263; Panupong, 1987: 174). It has been accepted that Thai complements have complementizers to mark the beginning of the embedded clauses; it is still debatable about complement morphemes.

In reviewing literature, the general agreement is that the word 'wâa' and 'hây' are Thai complementizers (Upakit-Sillapasan, 1971: 265; Janyasupab, 1978: 31; Suwattee, 1970:142-144). The word 'wâa' is a clause marker in the object position. It never appears at the beginning of the sentence (Upakit-Sillapasan, 1971: 265; Panupong, 1987: 180).

(9)   khâw fán wâa kháw wây nâm daay

         'He dreamed that he could swim.'

The complementizer 'hây' is, however, more restricted than the complementizer 'wâa'. The word 'hây' appears in the sentence when the main verb controls the object of the main clause and forces the object to be the subject of the subordinate clause (Chalearnsuk, 1990). In (11), 'chán' is the object of the main verb 'bok' and it is also the subject of the complements 'chán tham kaanbaan.'

(10)   khru bok hây chán tham kaanbaan.

'The teacher told me to do homework.'

Upakit-Sillapasan (1971: 267) considers the word 'thîi' as a complementizer because it can occur both before and after the main verb. However, he notes that this complementizer will turn to the marker of relative clauses if it is placed after a noun, for example 'kaan.' Ekniyom (1982: 65), however, argues that the distinction between relative clauses and complements does not depend on the existence of head nouns in front of the clauses. A relative clause requires a reference noun in the main clause to fulfill the subordinate clause's meaning. But in a complement there is no gap or missing information in the embedded clause; it has a complete meaning in itself (Biber et al, 1999: 645). Ekniyom (1982: 65) further insists that the word 'thîi' can be considered as a complementizer as well.

The zero complementizer or (Ø) is sometimes recognized as a complementizer (Ekniyom, 1982: 73-84; Chalearnsuk, 1990: 23) because it can occur alternately with the complementizer 'wâa' without changing any meaning (Ekniyom, 1982: 78; Chalearnsuk, 1990: 23). However, there are some cases, for example in (16), where only the zero complementizer is allowed (Ekniyom, 1982: 84).

(11)   khâw yàak (Ø) pay kondiaw

         'He wanted to go alone.'

In the contrastive analysis study of English and Thai of Lekawatana et al (1969: 72-77), the structures of complements in English and Thai are illustrated. It is reported that there is no exact correlation of complement structures between the two languages. The researchers further note that complements in English can be expressed by more varieties of forms than complements in Thai; therefore, it may cause some problems to Thai students.

2.2.5 Related studies about complements

d' Anglejan (1975) investigated the acquisition of complex English structures of adult second language learners at two different levels of proficiency. Four sets of complex sentences were read to the subjects. Then the subjects had to translate those sentences into their interlanguage. It was found that beginning learners could perceive the sentences only on surface levels and tended to rely on meaning rather than structures. Moreover, native language did not have an influence on learners' interpretation of second language. However, the study primarily focused only on receptive skills of learners.

A study about the production of complex structures, including complements of English native speakers belonged to Rosenberg and Abbedoto (1987). They studied linguistic competence of mildly retarded adults. The results showed that age has some influence on the acquisition of complex structures.

Research on the acquisition of complements in young native children (Diessel (2004) reported that non-finite complements appeared in the children's language before finite complements. For non-finite complements, the children tended to omit complement markers; therefore, a number of non-finite complements were 'bare' infinitive complements. The 'to' and 'ing' complements occurred later. For finite complements, 'that' complements were found in the children's language several months before 'wh' and 'if' complements.

The complement is a difficult area for many second language learners. Burt and Kiparsky (cited in Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 189-197) investigated the errors produced by adult EFL learners and students in the United States. They found

that the learners had problems with choosing appropriate structural types of complements, leading to serious miscommunication.

Mahadavi-Zafarghandi (n.d.) studied the responses of Persian learners of English to a task of English clauses. The finding showed that learners' English complements are influenced by the grammatical system of their first language. A similar report is also found in the study about the acquisition of German finite clauses in adult Italians (Lenonini, 2003). Two groups of subjects at different proficiency were asked to summarize a story. The data revealed that the subjects might have not yet acquired the complement structure, and relied on their first language for their production.

In Thailand the contribution to the study of the production of complements is from Janyasupab (1978). She investigated the similarities and differences between English and Thai complements, as well as the problems which Thai students may encounter when using English complements. In her error analysis, it was found that complements in Thai and English were different in terms of complementizers, kinds, structures and transformational rules. Thai students had problems with choices of complements, especially with the 'ing' form. The uses of noun phrase complements in the object position and complementizer deletion sometimes caused problem for Thai students.

Since the above study did not look at the problems from the developmental aspect, the author of this study intends to look at this problem again using interlanguage study to investigate the developmental aspect.

CHAPTER III

DATA COLLECTION AND PROCEDURES

3.1 Population and Samples

The population in the present study is Thai university students. Thirty students at Dhurakij Pundit University participate in this study. They are in their second year and are studying General English II, their second English course.

In their General English I, the previous course, the subjects were evaluated through in-class assignments, i.e., writing activities and exercises, as well as a midterm exam and a final exam which tested their grammar, vocabulary, conversational skills and writing skills. In addition, they were required to attend a speaking test and a listening test at the end of the semester. The score from these evaluations were used for grading and placing students into specific sections in the General English II. The score is also used in this study to categorize the subjects into two proficiency groups: high proficiency level group and low proficiency level group.

The students in the high proficiency group are fifteen students in an A and B+ section who received the highest scores from General English I. The percentage of the subjects' score is between 81 and 85. Six of them are male; the other eleven are female.

The students in the low proficiency group are fifteen students in a C and D+ section who received the lowest score from General English one. Their score ranged from 58 to 60 percent. Most of them are female; only one is male.

Although the subjects are from different sections, they are taught by the same instructor and provided with similar learning materials. According to the questionnaire, the subjects are highly motivated to study English. The majority of them mentioned that English is essential for their future career and they admit that they enjoy learning it. On average, the students have spent ten years of English instruction in school. Despite that, only one fifth of the high proficiency group rate their English as good and less than ten percent in the low proficiency group feel satisfied with their English.

3.2 Data Collection

In the present study, the data is collected through students' writing tasks composed during the course of General English II. Six essays of each student are investigated. They are free composition tasks with the length of 70 words or more. The students are asked to tell stories and/or express their opinions and attitudes towards the six given topics.

In the study of Ellis and Yuan (2004), pre-task planning could have some positive effects on the complexity of the students' writing. The production of subordinate clauses increased when students had time for the preparation. Therefore, in this study students are allowed to finish their writing tasks at home.

The reason to choose writing tasks in this investigation is that essays give students opportunities to apply their linguistic knowledge independently (Suwattee, 1970). Moreover, like many complex structures, complements tend to appear in writing discourse more than spoken discourse (Rosenberg & Abbedoto, 1987).

3.3 Data Analysis

The data analysis of the present study is in the following steps.

1. Because the characters of learners' language depends on the rules that the learners create, some of their interlanguage may be considered as appropriately used by native speakers. However, some may be overgeneralized and used in an inappropriate context, while others may be undergeneralized and do not appear when they are required (Bardovi-Harlig, 1997). In the present study, the following sentences are gathered from the subjects' writing tasks in each group as the data of students' complement interlanguage.

1) Sentences with usages of complements

(e.g. You don't need *to go to the university before 8 o'clock*.) [H2]

2) Sentences with attempts to use complements

(e.g. I hope *to a happy in DPU*.) [H5]

3) Sentences with required context to use complements

(e.g. I wasn't allowed to short skirt.) [L11]

2. The complements of each level group are categorized according to their grammatical constructions; i.e. non-finite complements are composed of 'to' infinitive complements, 'ing' complements, 'bare' infinitive complements, and 'wh' infinitive complements, while finite complements are composed of 'that' complements and 'wh' complements. The numbers of frequency of the complements usages as well as their samples of target like complements and deviations from the target language are shown. Errors of complement usages are supplied with hypothesized target language forms in parentheses. Then, sentences with errors of complement usages are provided

with an explanation of error as well as a description of processes and strategies applied by the subjects.

     3. Complement usages as well as strategies and processes that students in high and low proficiency level groups may use are compared to find out the developmental sequences of their complement interlanguage.

CHAPTER IV

THE ANALYSIS OF THE COMPLEMENTS USED BY HIGH AND LOW PROFICIENCY STUDENTS

The data in the study are analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative analysis deals with numbers of complement usages of students in the high proficiency group and in the low proficiency group. The qualitative analysis focuses on the usages of each complement structures.

4.1 Quantitative Analysis

In this section, the number of complement usages in the high proficiency students and the low proficiency students are presented. The usages of each complement between the two groups are compared to find the developmental aspects of the students' language learning.

There are totally 555 complements embedded into sentences of the high and low proficiency subjects. The students in the high proficiency group account for 273 complements in their writings, while the students in the low proficiency group produce 282 complements. The complements used by the high proficiency students and the low proficiency students are divided into two types: non-finite complements and finite complements.

Table 1 exhibits the number of non-finite complements and finite complements used by high proficiency students and low proficiency students. The frequency of non-finite and finite complement usages is counted. The percentage of each complement type is presented in parentheses.

Table 1: *Number of complement usages*

Type of Comp. Group	Non-finite	Finite
High 　　　　N = 273	164 (60.07%)	109 (39.93%)
Low 　　　　N = 282	194 (68.79%)	88 (31.21%)

According to the data, the students in the high and low proficiency group prefer non-finite complements to finite complements. In the group of students with high level of proficiency, 60.07 percent of the complement usages are non-finite complements, whereas finite complements account for 39.93 percent. Similar number is also found in the data of the students in the low proficiency group. Of the entire complement usages of students with low proficiency level, 68.79 percent are non-finite complements and 31.21 percent are finite complements.

Furthermore, the low proficiency students use non-finite complements more than high proficiency students. The low proficiency students generate non-finite complements in 68.79 percent of the whole complement usages; in contrast, the high proficiency students produce non-finite complements in 60.04 percent of the total.

Finite complements are used by the students in the high proficiency group more than the students in the low group. While the low proficiency students use finite complements 31.21 percent in the writing, the high proficiency students produce finite complements 39.93%.

It is clearly seen that users with limited linguistic competence tend to use non-finite complements. As they develop their language competence to be more advanced, their language contains more finite complements. Non-finite complement is the

structure used by students with low level of proficiency or the beginning language users, while finite complement tends to be found in the language of high proficiency students or advanced language learners. The finding is similar to what appears in the study of Diessel (2004: 105), which reports that English native children began to use finite complements around the age of 2.7 after the first emergence of non-finite complements at the age of 2.1.

Table 2 below shows the compared number of complement usages between high proficiency group and low proficiency group according to complement structures.

<u>Table 2</u>: *Number of each complement usages type in high proficiency group and low proficiency group*

	Non-finite				Finite	
	'to' infinitive	'ing' complement	'bare' infinitive	'wh' infinitive	'that' complement	'wh' complement
High	111 (67.68%)	26 (15.85%)	23 (14.02%)	4 (2.44%)	105 96.33%	4 3.67%
Low	127 (65.46%)	31 (15.98%)	28 (14.43%)	8 (4.12%)	88 (100%)	-

The students with high proficiency level produce four structures of non-finite complements. The majority of non-finite complements in the data of high proficiency students are 'to' infinitive complements, which account for 67.68 percent of the entire data. 'ing' complements and 'bare' infinitive complements are quite common. They are around 15.85 percent and 14.02 percent of the total, respectively. However, it is hard to find 'wh' infinitive complements in the language of the students in this group, as only four complements are 'wh' infinitive complements.

The proportion of the non-finite complement usages in the students with low proficiency level is similar to the proportion in the students with high proficiency

level; i.e., 'to' infinitive complements are the most frequently found complements, while 'wh' infinitive complements are found the least. More than half of non-finite complements produced by students with low proficiency level are 'to' infinitive complements. 'ing' and 'bare' infinitive complements account for 19.98 percent and 14.43 percent, respectively. Again, the usages of 'wh' infinitive complements are rare in the data.

In the study of native children, Diessel (2004: 63) finds that the usages of non-finite complements in the early period of children's language usually lack complementizers; in other word, children begin using 'bare' infinitive complement with few verbs which require the complementizer 'to,' around the age of 2. Some months later, the children's language is full of 'to' infinitive complements, and 'ing' complements with some verbs. The 'wh' infinitive complements do not appear until the children are 3.4 years old.

Although it is hard to tell whether 'bare' infinitive complements of students in this study emerge before or after 'to' infinitive complements, the number clearly implies that the students produce 'to' infinitive complements before 'ing' complements and 'wh' infinitive complements. The developmental aspects of the three complement structures are similar to those in the native children.

For finite complements, Diessel also reports that 'that' complements are found to appear before 'wh' complements and 'if' complements. 'that' complements emerge around the age of 2.4, while 'wh' complements and 'if' complements appear when the children are 2.7 and 3.5 years old, respectively.

Similarly, the present study also shows that the high proficiency students and the low proficiency students use 'that' complements; however, the usages of 'wh' complements are found only in the production of the high proficiency students.

It should be noticed that the students in the low proficiency group use 'to' infinitive complements less frequently than students in the high proficiency group. The low proficiency students also produce more 'ing' complements, 'bare' infinitive complements and 'wh' infinitive complements more than the high proficiency students. Some strategies might be involved in the students' interlanguage here. Unlike native children, second language learners apply many strategies in their learning (Selinker, 1988: 29). In the next session, the details of each complement structure usages are illustrated. The strategies which are related to the complement usages are also discussed.

4.2 Qualitative Analysis of Complement Usages

The analysis in this section is divided into two parts; i.e. the usages of non-finite complements and the usages of finite complements. In each part, samples and numbers of each complement structure used by the high proficiency students and the low proficiency students are illustrated and compared. The usages of target like complements and complements deviated from the target language and their related strategies are also discussed.

4.2.1 Non-finite complements

There are four structures of non-finite complements in the study; i.e. 'to' infinitive complements, 'ing' complements, 'bare' infinitive complements, and 'wh' infinitive complements, used by students in the high and low proficiency groups.

4.2.1.1 'to' infinitive complements

The students in the high and low proficiency groups generate similar 'to' infinitive constructions. The numbers and samples of target like complements and deviations of the students in the high proficiency group are illustrated first, followed by those of the students in the low proficiency group. The number of complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group, as well as strategies used, is discussed later.

A. High proficiency group

There are four constructions of 'to' infinitive complements in the data of highly proficient students in this study; i.e. 'verb + 'to' infinitive complements,' 'verb + NP + 'to' infinitive,' and extraposed 'to' infinitive complement, and pre-predicate complement.

Table 3 exhibits the numbers and example of 'to' infinitive complements used by high proficiency students. There are target like complements as well as complements which are deviated from the target.

Table 3: *Usages of 'to' infinitive complements in the high proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'to' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
I don't like *to stay at home*.[H7]	68	61.26%
Deviations of complement forms		
Verb + 'to' + 'ing' complement		
* I want *to working with children*. [H8]	9	8.11%
(I want to work with children.)		
Verb + 'to' infinitive in past tense		
* I went *to studied at DPU*. [H8]	3	2.70%
(I went to study at DPU.)		
Drop of complement verb 'have'		
* If you want *to good grade all of your subject*. [H13]	2	1.80%
(If you want to have good grade in every subject.)		

Table 3 *Usages of 'to' infinitive complements in the high proficiency group (continued)*

	Frequency	Percentage
Deviations of complement usages <u>Model verb + 'to' infinitive complement</u> * You can *to make a living in Bangkok*. [H7] (You can make a living in Bangkok.)	6	5.41%
<u>Confusion of 'to' infinitive with other complement structures</u> * Sometimes I enjoy *to do something*. [H15] (Sometimes I enjoy doing something.)	3	2.70%
Verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement *Target like complements* I really want *you to come to the party*. [H7]	8	7.21%
Deviations of NP usages <u>Wrong order of NP and the complementizer 'to'</u> * I want *to you see Sydney Opera House*. [H8] (I want you to see Sydney Opera House.)	3	2.70%
<u>Omission of NP</u> * I want *to go with me*. [H8] (I want you to go with me.)	2	1.80%
<u>Ungrammatical form of NP</u> * The dog wants *they to come back again*. [H13] (The dog wants them to come back again.)	1	0.90%
Extraposed 'to' infinitive complement *Target like complements* It was great *to talk to you at Nan's party*. [H12]	5	4.50%
Pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complement *Deviation of complement usages* <u>Lack of main clause after pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complement</u> * *To takes we to become aware of love and to find true love which perhaps it live with us not long*. [H8] (To make us aware of love and find true love is important.)	1	0.90%
Total	111	100.00%

Four constructions of 'to' infinitive usages by students in the high proficiency group are discussed as follows:

a) Verb + 'to' infinitive complement

The subjects produce the construction 'Verb + 'to' infinitive' in many variations. 61.26 percent of 'to' infinitive complement usages are target like. They are correctly used in both form and function. It should be noted that most of 'to' infinitive

complement in this construction follow the main verb 'want' and 'like.' Some of them are controlled by the verb 'allow,' which is always in the passive form as in (1):

(1) I wasn't allowed *to wear jeans to school*. [H 15]

However, there are some deviations of the forms of 'to' infinitive complements produced by the high proficiency students. 8.11 percent of 'to' infinitive complements of the high proficiency students contain the complementizer 'ing.' Generally, the verb of the non-finite complements must be in the base form (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 256). The corpus shows that past tense appears in 2.70 percent of 'to' infinitive complements. Moreover, two complement verbs are reported to be omitted.

8.11 percent of the usages of 'to' infinitive complements expand to where it is not necessary. As not every verb can control 'to' infinitive complement (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 434), 5.41 percent of the 'to' infinitive complements appear after model verbs 'can' and 'will.' Some students use 'to' infinitive complement after the verb 'enjoy,' 'see' and 'make,' which should be followed by 'ing' complement for the former and 'bare' infinitive complement for the latter two.

b) Verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement

When the subject of the main clause and the subject of the complement are different, the subject of the embedded complement will be transformed to the object of the main clause (Master, 1995: 342). 12.61 percent of 'to' infinitive complements are in the construction 'Verb + NP + to infinitive complement.' The verb 'want' is the most outstanding main verb controlling 'to' infinitive complements in this construction. The pronoun 'you' usually functions as the subject of the complement.

More than half of the 'to' infinitive complements in the construction 'Verb + NP + to infinitive complement' are grammatically and functionally correct. In spite of that, some students seem to have problems with the subject of the complement. 2.70 percent of 'to' infinitive complement subjects are moved to be objects in the main clauses, but stay in the complements. The subject of the complement is deleted in few sentences. There is one sentence showing that the subject of the subordinate complement remains in the subject form after the embedding.

c) Extraposed 'to' infinitive complement

A small group of students uses extraposed 'to' infinitive complements. Although the construction is in grammatical form and appropriately used, the students in the data seem to fill 'to' infinitive complements into three slots: 'It was good to see___;' 'It was great to talk to ___;' and 'It is important to know ____.'

d) Pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complements

There is an attempt to use a 'to' infinitive complement in the subject position. As the complement is quite long, it loses its main clause.

B. Low proficiency group

There are four constructions of 'to' infinitive complements produced by the subjects in the low proficiency group: 'verb + 'to' infinitive complement,' 'verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement,' extraposition and pre-predicate complement.

Table 4 exhibits the usages of 'to' infinitive complements in four constructions.

Table 4: *Usages of 'to' infinitive complements in the low proficiency group*

	Frequency	**Percentage**
Verb + 'to' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
He goes *to study in Japan*. [L8]	91	71.65%
Deviations of complement forms		
Verb + 'to' + 'ing' complement		
* I like *to playing volleyball and table tennis*. [L11]	3	2.36%
(I like to play volleyball and table tennis.)		
Verb + 'to' infinitive complement in past tense		
* I tried *to studied hard*. [L5]	4	3.15%
(I tried to study hard.)		
Drop of complement verb 'have'		
* I wasn't allowed *to long hair*. [L11]	4	3.15%
(I wasn't allowed long hair.)		
Deviations of complement usages		
Model verb + 'to' infinitive complement		
* You should *to wear a university uniform*. [L4]	10	7.87%
(You should wear a university uniform.)		
Preposition + 'to' infinitive		
* I have plan with *to study*. [L5]	4	3.15%
(I have to plan with studying.)		
Verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
I'd like to invite *you to come to my birthday party on Thursday*. [L11]	5	3.94%
Deviations of NP usages		
Wrong order of NP and complementizer 'to'		
* My parent and I want *to you go to the party*. [L6]	3	2.36%
(My parent and I want you to go to the party.)		
Extraposed 'to' infinitive complement		
Deviation of complement forms		
'be' insertion		
* It 's important *to be study*. [L14]	1	0.79%
(It is important to study.)		
Extra verb insertion		
* It is important for have *to did it often*. [L5]	1	0.79%
(It is important to do it often.)		
Pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
For me and for many people, *to think* is easy. [L9]	1	0.79%
Total	127	100.00%

Four constructions of 'to' infinitive usages by students in the low proficiency group are discussed as follows:

a) Verb + 'to' infinitive complement

Most 'to' infinitive complements in the construction 'verb + 'to' infinitive complement' are controlled by active main verbs. The verb 'want' is used overwhelmingly. However, it is found that there is a small group of complements, which are controlled by a passive verb 'be allowed' as in (2) and few adjective predicates as in (3). 71.65 percent of 'to' infinitive complements in this construction are grammatical and functionally appropriate.

(2) I was allowed *to sleep in class*. [L10]

(3) *I very happy *to see 'the little Vampire' with my boyfriend*. [L11]

However, there are 8.66 percent which are in ungrammatical forms. The students with the low proficiency level put the 'ing' complements after the complementizer 'to' in 2.36 percent of 'to' infinitive complements. They also add past tense into four sentences or 3.15 percent of the 'to' infinitive complement usages.

11.02 percent of 'to' infinitive complements occur in other inappropriate contexts. Almost 8 percent of 'to' infinitive complements appear after model verbs such as 'should,' 'would,' 'must,' 'will,' which actually do not require the complementizer 'to.' 3.15 percent of 'to' infinitive complements are dominated by prepositions.

b) Verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement

6.3 percent of 'to' infinitive complements have different subjects from the main clauses. 3.94 percent of the 'to' infinitive complements are like those used in the target language; however, 2.36 percent contains the subject of the embedded complement in the embedded part.

c) Extraposed 'to' infinitive complement

There are only two extraposed 'to' infinitive complements or 1.57 percent in the data. They are dominated by an adjective 'important.' However, the students cannot produce the correct form of extraposed 'to' infinitive complements.

d) Pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complement

A student in this group uses 'to' infinitive in the subject position and she seems not to have any problem with it.

C. Comparison between high and low proficiency groups

The high proficiency students and the low proficiency students generate similar number of 'to' infinitive complements; i.e. 111 and 127 complements, respectively. The students with high and low level of proficiency produce target like complements in the constructions 'verb + 'to' infinitive complement' and 'verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement.' However, the high proficiency students have a problem with extraposed 'to' infinitive complement construction, while the low proficiency students have a problem with pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complement construction.

Table 5 below exhibits the comparison of 'to' infinitive complement used by students in the high and low proficiency group.

Table 5: *Comparison of 'to' infinitive complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group*

	High		Low	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'to' infinitive complements *Target like complements* *Complements deviated from the target language*	68	61.26%	91	71.65%
Deviations of complement forms				
▪ Verb + 'to' + 'ing' complement	9	8.11%	3	2.36%
▪ Verb + 'to' infinitive complement in past tense	3	2.70%	4	3.15%
▪ Drop of complement verb 'have'	2	1.80%	4	3.15%

Table 5: *Comparison of 'to' infinitive complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group (continue)*

	High		Low	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Deviation of complement usages				
▪ Model verb + 'to' infinitive complement	6	5.41%	10	7.87%
▪ Confusion of 'to' infinitive with other complement structures	3	2.70%	-	-
▪ Preposition + 'to' infinitive complement	-	-	4	3.15%
Verb + 'to' infinitive complement				
Target like complements	8	7.21%	5	3.94%
Complement deviated from the target language				
▪ Wrong order of NP and complementizer 'to'	3	2.70%	3	2.36%
▪ Omission of NP	2	1.80%	-	-
▪ Ungrammatical form of NP	1	0.90%	-	-
Extraposed 'to' infinitive complement				
Target like complements	5	4.50%		
Complement deviated from the target language				
▪ 'be' insertion	-	-	1	0.79%
▪ Extra verb insertion			1	0.79%
Pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complements				
Target like complements	-	-	1	0.79%
Complement deviated from the target language				
▪ Lack of main verb after pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complement	1	0.90%	-	-
Total	**111**	**100.00%**	**127**	**100.00%**

Four constructions of 'to' infinitive used by the students in the high and low proficiency group are discussed as follows:

a) Verb + 'to' infinitive complement

'to' infinitive complements used by the students in the low proficiency group in this construction are more target like than those by the students in the high proficiency group; i.e. 71.65 percent in the low proficiency group and 61.25 percent in the high proficiency group. However, it is found that the low proficiency students do not generate the sentences by themselves. Many complements of the low group are the same and usually taken from the textbook; for example, three students, L8, L13, L14, write in their work 'I like to study all kind of interesting subjects.' In contrast,

the productions of students in the high group are more vivid. The students attempt to use more vocabulary and variety than the students in the low proficiency group.

The following shows the usages of complement forms which deviate from the target language, i.e. 'to' + 'ing' complement, 'to' infinitive in the past tense, and drop of complement verb 'have.'

i.   'to' + 'ing' complement

The students produce this deviation when they study the lesson about astrology and are assigned to give their opinions about their star sign. The lesson tells the students what kind of people they are. There are many new vocabulary and phrases presented, for example:

"*Aquarius* (January 20- February 18): You have a lot of friends and are very sociable. Your ideas are very modern, and your clothes and hairstyles are modern too. You love new ideas! You really like technology and enjoy working with computers." (Dhurakij Pundit University, Language Institute, 2004: 97)

From the lesson, the students seem to learn new vocabulary, such as 'sociable' and 'modern' as well as the phrase 'working with computer.' However, most of the new phrases come in 'ing' forms. When some students attempt to use these phrases as complements in their work, they use the 'ing' forms without considering the requirement of the main verbs.

The students, especially with high proficiency level use the construction 'to' + 'ing' complement. The deviation should be the influence of second language learning. The strategy of second language learning is a strategy which learners use to master the second language (Selinker, 1988: 29). In the present study, one of the second

language learning strategies used by the students is the use of formulaic expression from the textbook.

It is interesting that the students with low proficiency level do not produce this deviation as much as the students with high proficiency level. It is because the students in the low proficiency group prefer to use the whole sentences in their writing rather than generating or attempting to produce the new one themselves. In contrast, the students in the high proficiency group tend to generate and use the new learned expression in their own language, resulting in some errors. The students in the low proficiency group produce 'I was very sociable and enjoy meeting and talking to new people' [L8, L13, L14], whereas the students in the high proficiency group produce 'Sometimes, I like to talking to other people' [H10].

Also, the transfer of training plays a role here. The subjects decide to use some particular expressions in 'ing' forms because the vocabulary always appears in the textbook in 'ing' form. Therefore, the students learn the phrase 'working with computers' as they learn the word 'sociable.' They cannot analyze the underlying grammatical rule and produce different forms of a verb because the verb is presented to them in only one form. It should take some time for them to realize that the verb in the expression functions like general verbs and can be used in various forms depending on the required context.

ii.   'to' infinitive complement in past tense

A similar number of the students in the high and low proficiency groups add past tense to the complement verbs. The usages of non-finite complements in past tense should be the effect from hypercorrection. As there is no usage of past tense in

Thai language (Ratanakul, 2000: 78), the students attempt to add past tense to every verb, even though some are in non-finite complements.

It should be noticed that the usages of past tense in non-finite complements usually occur when complement verbs are either irregular verbs or the verb 'study.' Both groups of students produce this deviation when they write about their school in the past. The topics give the subjects many chances to use the irregular verbs and the verb 'study' in past tense as main verbs. Therefore, they may pay too much attention to the special forms of some irregular verbs and the past form of 'study.' When these verbs appear in the 'to' infinitive complements, they simply ignore the rules of uninflected verb form in the non-finite complements.

iii.   Drop of complement verb 'have'

Both students in high and low group show evidence of dropping complement verb 'have' in their complement. They should receive the effect from strategy of communication. They try to communicate and focus on the new information about the following noun phrase in order to communicate successfully; therefore, they forget the word 'have.'

iv.   Deviations of complement usages

There are three types of deviations of complement usages, i.e. model verb + 'to' infinitive complements, confusion of 'to' infinitive complement with other complement structure, and preposition + 'to' infinitive complement.

The subjects in the high proficiency group place 5.41 percent of 'to' infinitive complements after the model verbs 'can' and 'will' and the auxiliary verb 'be.' H2 sometimes use 'be + 'to' infinitive complement. It is noted that the 'be + 'to' infinitive' is normally an English structure which is used to talk about a plan in formal

style (Swan, 2001). However, the context does not show that the student intends to use the structure to refer to any planned event. The study; therefore, interprets H2's 'be + 'to' infinitive' as the use of inappropriate 'to' infinitive complements with model verbs. It is also found that 2.70 percent of 'to' infinitive complements produced by high proficiency students sometimes follow the main verbs which are used with other types of complements.

7.87 percent of 'to' infinitive complements follow model verbs. The model verbs used by these students are various. They are 'will,' 'would,' 'should,'and 'do.' The students in the low proficiency group also use preposition with 'to' infinitive complements.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983: 433) mentioned about the work of Butoyi (1977) which investigates the White House transcripts. The result showed that 'to' infinitive was the most frequent non-finite complement usages. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman concluded that English as a second language learners had high opportunity to find 'to' infinitive complements more than other non-finite complements. The high frequency of 'to' infinitive complements may lead some students to overgeneralize to use 'to' infinitive complements with unfamiliar or uncertain verbs as the high proficiency students use 'to' infinitive complements after some model verbs and unfamiliar verbs and the high proficiency students apply the 'to' infinitive complements after most model verbs and prepositions.

b) Verb + NP + 'to' complementizer

The students in the low proficiency group produce lower number of complement in this construction than students in the high group. The majority of complements in this construction are controlled by the verb 'want.' The finding is

similar to what is reported in the study of native children, that is, 'want' is the first verb which children begin to use in complements which contain extra noun phrase. Most of the target-like complements of the high proficiency students appear in the formulaic pattern 'I really want you to _____,' while the students in the low proficiency group prefer 'I'd like you to ____.'

However, when they attempt to use the complement where the subject of the complement and the subject of the main verb are different, the complements which are deviated from the target language appear. There are three deviations in the high proficiency group, i.e. wrong order of NP and complementizer 'to,' ungrammatical form of NP and omission of NP, while the students in the low proficiency group produce the deviation of wrong order of NP and complementizer 'to.'

i.   Wrong order of NP and complementizer 'to'

In English, when the subject of the main verb and the subject of the complement are not identical; the second noun phrase, in other words, the subject of the complement must be embedded in be the object of the main verb. If the subject of the complement is a pronoun, it must change from subject form to object form after the embedding (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 420).

The study finds that when some high proficiency students and low proficiency students attempt to produce a complement with the second noun phrase, they tend to interpret a non-finite complement as a sentence. The sentential character of 'to' infinitive complement is also found in the language of native children in the early period of their 'to' infinitive complement usages (Diessel, 2004: 71). The students seem to overgeneralize non-finite complement with finite complement when the subjects of the main clause and complement are different.

ii.   <u>Ungrammatical form of NP</u>

Lekawatana et al (1969: 72) list many different structures of English and Thai complements. According to their analysis, when the subject of the main verb and the subject of the complement are different, the English complement structure is 'V1 + object + to + V2.' In contrast with Thai complement, there is no process of complement subject embedding. The Thai complement structure is 'V1 + conjunction (hây) + clause.'

With the differences of complement structure in English and Thai, they mentioned that Thai students often produce 'I taught he to swim' instead of 'I taught him to swim.' The students consider the second noun as the subject of the complement similar to complement in Thai.

So the students who produce the ungrammatical forms of noun phrase usages when the subject and the object are different seem to receive the effect from language transfer from the mother tongue.

iii.   <u>Omission of NP</u>

The usages of noun phrase in the complement are difficult, so a student in the high proficiency group omits using the noun phrase. The avoidance strategy plays a role here. The students avoid using complex or unfamiliar structure, especially when the structure is different from their mother tongue (Odlin, 1996: 37).

c) Extraposed 'to' infinitive complement

The usages of extraposition in the high proficiency group are clearly seen in that the students use formulaic expression taken from the book, which is one of the strategies of second language learning here. It is interesting that the students in the low proficiency group also attempt to use this construction. Although the construction

is shown in the textbook, the students in the low proficiency group cannot apply the construction from the book correctly like the students in the high proficiency group. The extraposition seems to be a too difficult construction for them.

d) Pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complement

Although a low proficiency student can produce a pre-predicate complement correctly, her sentence with complement is taken from the book. This again emphasizes the use of the second language learning strategy of the students.

4.2.1.2 'ing' complements

Most of the students in the high proficiency group and the students in the low proficiency group produce correct forms of 'ing' complements and use them correctly. Indeed, there are quite a few 'ing' complement constructions used by both groups of students.

A. High proficiency group

There are three constructions of 'ing' usages in students with high proficiency level. They are 'Verb + 'ing' complement', 'Verb + NP+ 'ing' complement', and pre-predicate 'ing' complement.

Table 6 exhibits the numbers and samples of 'ing' complements used by high proficient students. All 'ing' complements are like those used in the target language.

Table 6: *Usages of 'ing' complements in the high proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'ing' complement *Target like complements* I enjoy *going to art galleries and concerts*. [H5]	20	76.92%
Verb + NP + 'ing' complement *Target like complements* * It was good to see *Tik dancing too*. [H11]	2	7.69%

Table 6: *Usages of 'ing' complements in the high proficiency group (continue)*

	Frequency	Percentage
Pre-predicate 'ing' complement		
Target like complements		
* Now I think *studying* is important. [H8]	4	15.38%
Total	26	100.00%

Three constructions of 'ing' complements used by high proficient students are discussed as follows.

a) Verb + 'ing complement

The majority of the 'ing' complements are 'ing' complements which share the same subject as in the main clauses. There are very few verbs dominating 'ing' complements in the data. The verbs 'enjoy' and 'like' are preferred by most of the high proficiency subjects. Occasionally, 'ing' complements are put in the slot 'Are you interested in ___?'

b) Verb + NP + 'ing' complement

There are two sentences containing extra noun phrases as objects of main clauses and 'ing' complements as the complements. Both 'ing' complements are controlled by the verb 'see'. The noun phrases functioning as objects of main clauses and subjects of complements are proper nouns.

c) Pre-predicate 'ing' complements

The use of pre-predicate 'ing' complements are also found. They account for fifteen percent of 'ing' complements produced by the students in the high proficiency group. A pre-predicate 'ing' complement may serve either as the subject of the sentence or as the subject predicate to a copular verb as follows:

(4) My favorite activities are *listening to the radio …* [H15]

B. Low proficiency group

There are two constructions of '*ing*' complements: verb + '*ing*' complement and pre-predicate '*ing*' complements.

Table 7 exhibits the numbers and samples used by students in low proficiency group.

Table7: *Usages of 'ing' complements in the low proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'ing' complement		
Target like complements		
I remember *meeting my first friend*. [L14]	22	70.97%
Deviation of complement usages		
Model verb + 'ing' complement		
* We will *dancing and singing all night*. [L10]	2	6.45%
(We will dance and sing all night.)		
Pre-predicate 'ing' complement		
Target like complements		
Teaching and writing are good jobs for me. [L14]	7	22.58%
Total	31	100.00%

Two constructions of 'ing' complements used by low proficient students are discussed as follows.

a) Verb + 'ing' complement

The students with low proficiency level do not have many troubles with producing 'ing' complements. A number of the 'ing' complements are controlled by the verb 'remember,' while 'like' and 'enjoy' are common. Two 'ing' complements appear after the model verbs 'will' and 'should.'

b) Pre-predicate 'ing' complement

The uses of pre-predicate 'ing' complements in the subject position and subject complement position are sometimes found.

There is a deviation of complement form in 'ing' complements.

a) *Model verb + 'ing' clause*

Two students in the low proficiency group produce 'ing' complements after the model verb 'will' and 'should'. This deviation is clearly the result of formulaic expression usages. The students memorize 'ing' complements as chunks without analyzing their inner structures.

C. Comparison between high and low proficiency group

Most 'ing' complements are target like. The high proficient students produce every 'ing' complement correctly, while the low proficiency students produce ungrammatical 'ing' complement usages in 6.45 percent of the entire 'ing' complements.

Table 8 exhibits the comparison of 'ing' complement used by students in the high and low proficiency groups. It displays numbers of complement usages as well as a deviation from the target language.

Table 8: *Comparison of 'ing' complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group*

	High		Low	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'ing' complement *Target like complement*	20	76.92%	22	70.97%
Complement deviated from the target language ▪ Model verb + 'ing' complement	-	-	2	6.45%
Verb + NP + 'ing' complement Target like complements	2	7.69%	-	-
Pre-predicate 'ing' complement *Target like complements*	4	15.38%	7	22.58%
Total	26	100.00%	31	100.00%

Three constructions of 'ing' complements used by the students in the high proficiency group and the students in the low proficiency group are discussed as follows

a) Verb + 'ing' complement

Both students in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group rely on the materials in the book. The 'ing' complements of students in the high proficiency group are controlled by various verbs. Some are used to fill the pattern 'Are you interested in___?' However, more than half of the target like 'ing' complements of the students in the low proficiency group are in the pattern 'I remember + 'ing' complement' which is explicitly taught in the book.

b) Verb + NP + 'ing' complement

Only the students in the high proficiency group use 'ing' complement in the construction 'Verb + NP + 'ing' complement' while the students in the low proficiency group avoid using the construction. However the usages of this type of 'ing' complement for the high proficient students are in small numbers.

c) Pre-predicate 'ing' complement

Both high and low proficient students use 'ing' complements in the subject position correctly. The students in the low proficiency group use 'ing' complements two times more than the students in the high proficiency group.

It should be noted that the 'ing' complements of students in the high proficiency group such as 'Taking a bus is better than taking a taxi. [H2]' are more complex and generated by the students themselves, while 'ing' complements of students in the low proficiency group such as 'Teaching and writing are good job for me. [L13]' are sentences used in the book.

4.2.1.3 'bare' infinitive complement

Almost half of 'bare' infinitive complements used by the high proficient students and half of 'bare' infinitive complements used by the low proficient students are grammatical in terms of forms and functions. However; there are some deviations from the target language as well. The numbers and details of complement usages in the students with high level of proficiency are presented below followed by those in the students with low level of proficiency. The comparison of the usages in the two groups is discussed later.

A. High proficiency group

There are two constructions of 'bare' infinitive complements used by the students with high proficiency level; i.e., 'Verb + bare infinitive complement' and 'Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement'.

Table 9 exhibits 'bare' infinitive complements used by the high proficient students which are target like complements and deviations from the target language.

Table 9: *Usages of 'bare infinitive' complements in the high proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement		
Deviations of complement usages		
Confusion of 'bare' infinitive with other complement structures; 'bare' infinitive in past tense	5	21.74%
* I love *studied*. [H8]		
(I love to study.)		
Confusion of 'bare' infinitive with other complement structures	2	8.70%
* I don't like *dance*. [H11]		
(I don't like to dance.)		
Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
My teacher didn't let *me eat and sleep*. [H2]	10	43.48%
Deviations of complement forms		
Verb + NP + model verb		
* They let *me can to speak Thai in class*. [H2]	2	8.70%
(They let me speak Thai in class.)		

Table 9: *Usages of 'bare infinitive' complements in the high proficiency group*

(continue)

	Frequency	Percentage
<u>Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive in past tense</u> * They let *me studied it*. [H8] (They let me study it.)	1	4.35%
Deviations of complement usages <u>Confusion of verb + NP 'bare' infinitive with other complement structures</u> * I'd like to invite *you go with me*. [H8] (I'd like to invite you to go with me.)	1	4.35%
Deviations of NP usages <u>Ungrammatical form of NP</u> * I want to make *they happy*. [H4] (I want to make them happy.)	2	8.70%
Total	23	100.00%

Two constructions of 'bare' infinitive complements used by the students in the high proficiency group are discussed as follows.

a) Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement

The 'bare' infinitive complement is known as the infinitive complement without 'to.' It occurs with a small group of complement taking verbs (Biber et al, 1999: 699). The data shows that some high proficient students use 'bare' infinitive complement; in other words, they drop the complementizer 'to' after some verbs such as 'like,' 'love,' 'study' and 'want.' Although tenses are not allowed in any 'bare' infinitive complement (Master, 1995: 342), the 'bare' infinitive complements used by the students in the high proficiency group tend to appear in past forms.

b) Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive

Surprisingly, the students in this group can use 'bare' infinitive complement grammatically and appropriately when the subject of the main clause and the subject of the complement are different. 43.48 percent of 'bare' infinitive complements and

the complement subjects are embedded in the main clauses without any problem. However, there are only two main verbs; i.e., 'make' and 'let,' found in this construction. The favorite noun phrases embedded in the main clauses are 'you' and 'me.' It is found that, when complements take the pronouns 'he' and 'they' as their subjects, the pronouns remain in subject forms after the embedding in the main clause.

However, there are two instances where H2 uses the model verb 'can' as a 'bare' infinitive complement verb. A 'bare' infinitive complement is also added with past tense. This deviation is similar to what is found in 'bare' infinitive complements in the construction 'Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement'.

There is inappropriate usage of 'bare' infinitive complement with the verb 'invite' which actually require the use of 'to' infinitive complement.

The high proficient students also have pronouns functioning as subjects of the complements. The use of 'bare' infinitive in the past tense in the construction 'verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive' is found. There are reports about the inappropriate use of 'bare' infinitive complement after the verb 'invite' and about the uses of model verbs in 'bare' infinitive complements.

B. Low proficiency group

There are two constructions of bare infinitive complements in the data. They are 'Verb + 'bare infinitive' complement' and 'Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive' complement.

Table 10 exhibits 'bare' infinitive complements used by the low proficient students. Although half of them are target like complements, the other half are complements deviated from the target language.

Table10: *Usages of 'bare' infinitive complements in the low proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement		
Deviations of complement usages		
Confusion of 'bare' infinitive with other complement structures; 'bare' infinitive in past tense * I like *studied subject Thai and English*. [L10] (I liked to study Thai and English subjects.)	4	14.29%
Confusion of 'bare' infinitive with other complement structures * I like *learn math and Thai*. [L11] (I like to learn math and Thai.)	6	21.43%
Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
She never lets *her students come to class late*. [L13]	14	50.00%
Deviations of complement usages		
Confusion of 'bare' infinitive with other complement structures * I want to buy *nice house give my parents*. [L8] (I want to buy a nice house for my parents.)	3	10.71%
Deviations of NP usages		
Omission of NP * My school *allowed play sports*.… [L7] (My school allowed us to play sports...)	1	3.57%
Total	23	100.00%

Two constructions of 'bare' infinitive complements used by low proficient students are discussed as follows:

a) verb + 'bare' infinitive complement

The use of 'bare' infinitive complements in the construction 'verb + 'bare' infinitive' seems to be omissions of the complementizer 'to' rather than intentions to use 'bare infinitive' complements. Past tense is sometime added in the 'bare' infinitive complements, especially when the embedded verb is 'study.'

b) Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement

The low proficient students prefer to use 'bare' infinitive when the subjects of the main clause and the complement are not identical. There are two verbs, which always control 'bare' infinitive in this construction, i.e., 'make' and 'let.' There are

various forms of subjects of the complements, which are embedded to be the objects of the main clauses. They may be pronouns such as 'us,' 'me,' and 'you' or nouns such as 'her students' or 'someone.'

It is found that the students in this group sometimes use 'bare infinitive or when the context does not require any complement at all. According to the data, some students attempt to embed the verb 'give' which seems to function as a preposition giving a direction rather than a complement verb. There is a report that a low proficient students ignores to embed the noun phrase as the object of the main clause when the context requires.

C. Comparison between high and low proficiency group

The numbers of 'bare' infinitive complement produced by the high proficient students and low proficient students are similar, i.e., 23 and 28, respectively. There are six types of deviations in the data of students with high proficiency level, whereas there are four in the data of students with low proficiency level.

Table 11 exhibits the comparison of 'bare' infinitive complements used by students in the high and low proficiency groups in terms of number of complement usages and details of deviations from the target language.

Table11: *Comparison of 'bare' infinitive complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group*

	High		Low	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement *Complement deviated from the target language* ▪ Confusion of 'bare' infinitive complement with other complement structures, and 'bare' infinitive complement in past tense	5	21.74%	4	14.29%
▪ Confusion of 'bare' infinitive complement with other complement structures	2	8.70%	6	21.43%
Verb + NP +'bare' infinitive complement *Target like complement*	10	43.48%	14	50.00%

Table11: *Comparison of 'bare' infinitive complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group (continue)*

	High		Low	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Complement deviated from the target language				
▪ Model verb in 'bare' infinitive complement	2	8.70%	-	-
▪ Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement in past tense	1	4.35%	-	-
▪ Confusion of 'bare' infinitive complement with other types	1	4.35%	3	10.71%
▪ Ungrammatical form of NP	2	8.70%	-	-
▪ Omission of NP	-	-	1	3.57%
Total	23	100.00%	28	100.00%

Two constructions of 'bare' infinitive complements used by students in the high proficiency group and the students in the low proficiency group are discussed as follows:

a) Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement

'bare' infinitive complements appear only in the construction 'verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement'; in other words, when the subjects of the main verb and complement verb are different (Master, 1995: 346). Both groups of the subjects generate 'bare' infinitive complements in two constructions, i.e. 'verb + 'bare' infinitive complement' and 'verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement.' 30.44 percent of 'bare' infinitive complements of the high group and 35.72 percent of 'bare' infinitive complements of the low group, which are in the construction 'verb + 'bare' infinitive complement' therefore are ungrammatical.

There are two deviations, i.e. usages of past tense in the 'bare' infinitive complements and confusion of 'bare' infinitive complements with other complement structures.

i.   <u>'bare' infinitive complement in past tense</u>

The usages of past tense in 'bare' infinitive complements should be the result from hypercorrection because the inflection occurs with the verbs 'study' and 'finish.' The students produce this deviation when they attempt to talk about past tense in the topic about their school in the past. The topic should lead the students to refer to the verb 'study' in past tense many times; therefore, when the verb 'study' appears in the complement, they still use past tense inflection with the verb. Similar deviation is also found in the usages of past tense in 'to' infinitive complements.

It is noted that the verb 'study' in past tense always appear immediately after the main verb 'like'. The expression is translated directly from Thai. The students also use past tense in the verb 'finish' after the verb 'study'. The expression 'to finish study' should be translated from Thai. It means 'to graduate' in English. The effect of language transfer should make students 'hypercorrect' the complements and add past tense to make the complements look like English.

It should be noticed that while some students in the low proficiency group produce the past tense inflection in the 'bare' infinitive clauses, only H8 in the high proficiency group produces this deviation.

ii.   <u>Confusion of 'bare' infinitive complements with other complement structures</u>

Some students in both groups use 'bare' infinitive after the main verbs, which requires 'to' infinitive complements or 'ing' complements. The transfer from the first language accounts for this deviation. The structures of Thai and English complements are different. In English, the complement verb form is 'V1 + to + V2' while, it is 'V1 + V2' in Thai (Lekawatana et al., 1969: 72) When the students translate the

complements from Thai to English, they also transfer the Thai complement structure to English sentences. Past tense is sometimes added to the translated complements.

H8 accounts for most of the transferred sentences in the high proficiency group, while various students in the low proficiency group engage in the transfer.

b) Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement

There are five deviations in the construction: i.e., model verb in 'bare' infinitive complements, 'bare' infinitive in past tense, confusion of 'bare' infinitive complements with other complement structures, ungrammatical form of NP, and omission of NP.

i. Model verbs in 'bare' infinitive complements

The uses of model verbs in the complement part appear only in the data of H2 overgeneralizing the function of the model verb 'can.' She embeds the model verb 'can' in the 'bare' infinitive complements of the main verb 'let.' She may consider the model verb 'can' as a lexical verb; therefore it appears before a 'to' infinitive complement or is embedded in a complement.

ii. 'bare' infinitive in past tense

H8 also uses past tense inflection with 'bare' infinitive complement in the construction 'Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement.' Hypercorrection should play some roles here as in the construction 'Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement.'

iii. Confusion of 'bare' infinitive complements with other complement structures

This deviation is an influence of language transfer; while the students translate sentence from Thai to English, they also transfer the Thai structure. It is interesting

that some students in low proficiency group use 'bare' infinitive complements in the place of prepositions, as the result of the translation from Thai.

        iv.   <u>Ungrammatical form of NP</u>

H4 uses the pronoun 'he' in a non-finite complement. This should be the effect of overgeneralization of non-finite complement character with finite complement character. The similar deviation is also found in the construction 'Verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement.

        v.   <u>Omission of NP</u>

Only L7 produces this deviation. She attempts to use 'bare' infinitive in the construction 'Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement' for the first time. The construction seems to be too complicated so she avoids using NP.

4.2.1.4 'wh' infinitive complement

There are very small numbers of 'wh' infinitive complements in the data of high proficient students and the low proficient students.

A. High proficiency group

There are two constructions of 'wh' infinitive complements used by high proficient students: i.e., 'verb + 'wh' infinitive complement' and ' NP + 'wh' infinitive complement.'

Table 12 exhibits 'wh' infinitive complements used by the student in high proficiency group.

<u>Table 12</u>: *Usages of 'wh' infinitive complements in the high proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'wh' infinitive complement *Target like complements* I don't know *how to be rich*. [H12]		
	1	25.00%

Table 12: *Usages of 'wh' infinitive complements in the high proficiency group (continue)*

	Frequency	Percentage

Deviation of complement form
    Omission of 'wh' complementizer
    * I don't know *to spent money to buy*. [H12]
        (You don't know how to spend money.)
	1	25.00%

NP+ 'wh' infinitive complement *Target like complements* I give him some advice about *how to live in BKK*. [H5]	2	50.00%
Total	4	100.00%

Two constructions of 'wh' infinitive complements used by students in the high proficiency group are discussed as follows:

a) Verb + 'wh' infinitive complement

There are two complements in this construction. Both of them are controlled by the verb 'know'. Although a 'wh' complementizer is omitted in a sentence, the context indicates that these two sentences take the complementizer 'how'.

b) NP +'wh' infinitive complement

In this construction, 'wh' infinitive complements are controlled by the noun 'advice'. The students can produce the complements correctly.

B. Low proficiency group

There are three constructions of 'wh' infinitive complements used by low proficient students; i.e., 'verb + 'wh' infinitive complement' and ' NP + 'wh' infinitive complement,' and pre-predicate 'wh' infinitive complement.

Table 13 exhibits 'wh' infinitive complements used by the student in the low proficiency group.

Table13: *Usages of 'wh' infinitive complements in the low proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'wh' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
I was telling *how to live in Bangkok and study in the university*. [L8]	3	37.50%
NP+ 'wh' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
I have something *about how to live in Bangkok and study in the university to talk to you*. [L15]	3	37.50%
Deviation of complement form		
Omission of 'wh' complementizer		
* I think rich people have any special problems about *to spend money*. [L5] (I think rich people have any special problems about how to spend money.)	1	12.50%
Pre-predicate 'wh' infinitive complement		
Target like complements		
How to be rich is difficult. [L9]	1	12.50%
Total	8	100.00%

Three constructions of 'wh' infinitive complements used by students in the low proficiency group are discussed as follows:

a) Verb + 'wh' infinitive complement

There are three sentences containing 'wh' infinitive complements. Despite they are controlled by many verbs, the students in this group use only the 'wh' infinitive complement 'how to live in Bangkok and study in the university.'

b) NP + 'wh' infinitive complement

'Wh' infinitive complements in this construction are controlled by many nouns. However, most of the 'wh' infinitive complements are ' how to live in Bangkok and study in the university'. There is only one 'wh' infinitive complement which is different. This complement is ungrammatical as its 'wh' complementizer is omitted.

c) *Pre-predicate 'wh' infinitive complement*

There is a 'wh' infinitive complement, which is placed in the subject position.

C. *Comparison between high and low proficiency group*

The students in the low proficiency group produce more 'wh' infinitive complement, both in terms of frequency and construction, than students in high proficiency group.

Table 14 exhibits the comparison of the 'wh' infinitive complements used by students in the high and low proficiency group

Table 14: *Comparison of 'wh' infinitive complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group*

	High		Low	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'wh' infinitive complement *Target like complement*	1	25.00%	3	37.50%
Complement deviated from the target language ▪ Omission of 'wh' complementizer	1	25.00%	-	-
NP + 'wh' infinitive complement *Target like complement*	2	50.00%	3	37.50%
Complement deviated from the target language ▪ Omission of 'wh' complementizer	-	-	1	12.50%
Pre-predicate 'wh' infinitive complement *Target like complements*	-	-	1	12.50%
Total	4	100.00%	8	100.00%

Most of the 'wh' infinitive complements of the students in the low proficiency group are the same; that is, 'how to live in Bangkok and study in the university' while the 'wh' infinitive complements of the students in the high proficiency group contain more varieties. The high numbers of 'wh' infinitive complement usages of the students in the low proficiency group receives the influence from the usages of formulaic expression.

There is only one deviation from the target language.

i. <u>Omission of the 'wh' complementizer</u>

According to Diessel (2004: 74), 'wh' infinitive complement is a complex structure for children because the complement is 'double marked' by the 'wh' complementizer and the complementizer 'to.' They also need to decide which complementizer is appropriate for the context; therefore, it is not surprising that the students in the high and low groups sometimes avoid using 'wh' complementizer.

4.2.2 Finite complements

There are two structures of finite complements in the study; i.e., "that' complements and 'wh' complements are used by the students in high proficiency group. However, only 'that' complements are found in the work of the students in the low proficiency group.

4.2.2.1 'That' complements

It is clearly seen that the high proficient students produce 'that' complements more than the student in the low proficiency group.

A. High proficiency group

There is only one construction used by the student in the high proficiency group. Table 15 exhibits the 'that' complements used by high proficient students. There are target like complements as well as complement which are deviated from the target language.

Table15: *Usages of 'that' complements in the high proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'that' complement		
Target like complements		
I believe *that I can be a good judge.* [H10]	95	90.48%

Table15: *Usages of 'that' complements in the high proficiency group (continue)*

	Frequency	Percentage

Deviation of complement forms
   <u>Ungrammatical verb form</u>
     * I thought *I'm having a great time.* [H13]
          (I thought I was having a great time.)
	7	6.67%

Deviation of complement usages
   <u>Confusion of 'that' complement with non-finite</u>
<u>complement</u>
     * I hope *you coming with us.* [H3]
          (I hope you are coming with us.)
	3	2.86%

Total	105	100.00%

The students with high proficiency level do not have many problems with using 'that' complements. More than ninety percent of 'that' complements are like those produced in the target language.

According to the data, the complementizer 'that' is frequently omitted in many 'that' complements. This omission is a stylistic option in the informal situation, and does not affect any meaning (Greenbaum, Nelson and Weitzman, 1996: 83; Biber et al., 1999: 734) as in:

(5) I think *it is fun*. [H13]

There are three characteristics which lead to the omission of the complementizer 'that' in 'that' complements. They are firstly the use of 'think' and 'say' as the main verbs, secondly the identical subjects in the main clauses and in the complements, and finally the use of personal subjects in 'that' complements (Biber et al, 1999: 681). In this study, more than half of 'that' complements produced by the highly proficient students are controlled by the main verb 'think.' The pronoun 'I' is the favorite subject in both main clauses and subordinate complements. Therefore, it is not surprising that a number of students prefer omitting the complementizer 'that' in their finite complements.

Normally, 'that' complements produced by the students with high proficiency level are not complex; however, the usages of an adverbial clause in a complement and the usages of series of embedding within a complement are sometimes found. Especially with the verb 'remember,' the 'that' complements controlled by this verb are usually in the complex constructions 'I remember when _____, I_____,' and 'I remember you said ____' as follows:

(6)   I remember, *when I was a child I was shy and I was quiet*. [H15]

(7)   I remember *you said you liked dancing*. [H13]

In general, the verb tense in the finite complement needs to conform to the verb tense in the main clause. The past time in the main verb will bring the verb in the subordinate complement into past tense (Master, 1995: 175). In the data, most the main clauses are in present tense; therefore, the tense in the main clause rarely controls the tense in the subordinate complement. Even though the students are mentioning about events in the past, they tend to use the main clause in the present with 'that' complement in past tense. Despite of that, there are sentences dominated by main verbs in past tense. It is found that the students seem to ignore to change the tense in 6.67 % of 'that' complements in order to conform to the past tense in the main clauses.

2.86 percent of 'that' complements show that the students sometimes get confused about the forms of 'that' complements and non-finite complements. In 'that' complements, their structures are similar to those of independent clauses, but in non-finite complements their subjects, tenses and auxiliary verbs are deleted (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 419-421). Some high proficient students omit some main constituents in the 'that' complements, resulting in ungrammatical forms.

B. Low proficiency group

There is one construction of 'that' clause produced by the students in the low proficiency group.

Table 16 exhibits "that' complements used by the low proficient students.

Table 16: *Usages of 'that' complements in the low proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'that' complement		
Target like complements		
I think *that rich people should help poorer people*. [L4]	78	88.64%
Deviations of complement forms		
Ungrammatical verb form		
* I remember *that my teacher have favorite lovely*. [L3]	4	4.55%
(I remember that my teacher is very lovely.)		
Deviation of complement usages		
Confusion of 'that' complement with non-finite complement		
* I like *money is important*. [L2]	4	4.55%
(I like money and I think it is important.)		
Quotation in 'that' complement		
* I answer *that "Yes, I would like to be rich."* [L14]	2	2.27%
(I answer that I would like to be rich.)		
Total	88	100.00%

The students with the high proficiency level produce more target like complements than students with the low proficiency level. In addition, they also generate fewer deviations of 'that' complements.

More than eighty percent of 'that' complements are used grammatically and functionally. The verb 'think' is used overwhelmingly with 'that' complements. The 'that' complements may occur with the complementizer 'that' or may not. A lot of 'that' complements prefer to omit the complementizer; however, the omission does not affect any meaning of the complements. Some 'that' complements are complex. There are adverbial clauses embedded into the complements. All of these complex

'that' complements are controlled by the verb 'remember' and in the construction 'I remember when ___, I____.'

    (8)   I hope you are fine. [L10]

    (9)   I remember when I was in high school I liked my school. [L12]

All of 'that' complements are in present tense even though the low proficient students are talking about events in the past. It is reported that when the subject of the main clause or the complement is singular, the students with low proficiency level usually fail to add the morpheme 's' after the verb.

The students in this group sometimes get confused with the verbs which control the 'that' complements. Some verbs can appear only before non-finite complements. There are two attempts of using quoting sentences as parts of 'that' complements.

C. Comparison between high and low proficiency group

The students with high proficiency level and low proficiency level produce 90.48 percent and 88.64 percent of 'that' complements correctly. However, they also create similar types of deviations. Table 17 exhibits the comparison of the 'that' complements used by students in the high and low proficiency group.

Table17: *Comparison of 'that' complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group*

	High		Low	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'that' complement				
Target like complement	95	90.48%	78	88.64%
Complements deviated from the target language				
▪ Ungrammatical verb form	7	6.67%	4	4.55%
▪ Confusion of 'that' complement with non-finite complements	3	2.86%	4	4.55%
▪ Quotation in 'that' complement	-	-	2	2.27%
Total	105	100.00%	88	100.00%

There are three deviations of 'that' complements which are different from those used in the target language.

i.   <u>Ungrammatical verb form</u>

In English, there is a rule called 'tense harmony' or back shifting' where the tense in the complement must be 'pushed back in time' to agree with the tense of the main verb in past tense. The high proficient students ignore to change tense in the complements.

In the productions of the low proficiency students, although they avoid using past tense in the main clause, they still have some problems with the tense. The students in the low proficiency group do not add the third person single morpheme to complement verb when the subject of the complement is a singular noun phrase.

The ignorance of tense inflection in past tense of the student in high proficiency group and in present tense of the student in the low proficiency group seem to be from the use of second language communication strategy. In order to communicate successfully, the students sometimes ignore some complicated grammatical rules like tense.

ii.   <u>Confusion of 'that' complements with non-finite complements</u>

The students overgeneralize non-finite complements with finite complements when the subject of the main clause and the subject of the complement are not identical.

They may not see the difference between non-finite and finite complements. While the students with low proficiency level overgeneralize that every main verb can control 'that' complement, the students with high level of proficiency get confused with the main verbs which can control both non-finite-and finite complements.

iii.   Quotation in 'that' complements

There are two sentences of 'that' complements embedded quoting sentence into the main clause. Only L 14 produces this deviation. She may overgeneralize that 'that' complement or 'what' usually known as reported speech is the same as quoting sentence.

4.2.2.2 'Wh' complements

There are very few data of 'wh' complements. Only the students in the high proficiency group use this complement structure.

Table 18 exhibits the 'wh' complements used by the high proficient students.

Table 18: *Usages of 'wh' complements in the high proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'wh' complement *Target like complements* They worry about money and *how many things they have*. [H6]	1	25.00%

Deviation of complement forms
    Sub - Aux order
 * I don't know *what will I make when I'm to be rich*. [H12]
       (I don't know what I will do when I'm rich.)
	2	50.00%

Choice of 'wh' complementizer * I don't remember getting my first teacher *that my teacher is a schoolmaster or a schoolmistress*. [H2] (I don't remember whether my first teacher is a man or a woman.)	1	25.00%
Total	4	100.00%

There are only four 'wh' complements in the data. The high proficiency subjects produce one sentence grammatically and functionally correct. Two sentences show confusion about subject-auxiliary order in the 'wh' complement and in the 'wh' question. A student uses the complementizer 'that' when the context requires the complementizer 'whether' instead.

Table 19 exhibits the comparison of 'wh' complements used by students in the high and low proficiency group

Table19: *Comparison of 'wh' complement usages in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group*

	High		Low	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Verb + 'wh' complement				
Target like complement	1	25.00%	-	-
Complement deviated from the target language				
▪ Order of subject and auxiliary	2	50.00%	-	-
▪ Choice of 'wh' complementizer	1	25.00%	-	-
Total	4	100.00%	-	-

No students in the low proficiency group produce 'wh' complements. Moreover only 25 percent of 'wh' complement produce by the student in the high proficiency group are grammatically correct. Two deviations are found.

     i.   Order of subject and auxiliary

'Wh' questions and 'wh' complements share 'wh' word. As there is no special sign to signal a 'wh' question or 'wh' complements, the students tend to get confused about the two structures. Subject – auxiliary inversion is used only with 'wh' question (Celce-Murcia and Larson-Freeman, 1983: 466), some students therefore overgeneralize the two structures and apply the subject- auxiliary inversion with 'wh' complement.

     ii.   Choice of complements

In 'wh' complements, the students need to choose the appropriate 'wh' complementizer for the complement. The process may be too complex so the students avoid and use complementizer 'that' instead.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Developmental Stages of the Complement Usages

The developmental aspects of complement usages in Thai university students are illustrated as follows:

5.1.1 Non-finite complements appear before finite complements

The finite complement seems to be more complex than the non-finite complement. According to the data, all students in both high proficiency and low proficiency groups prefer to use non-finite complements. Moreover, there are more variations of the non-finite complements. There are four types of non-finite complements: 'to' infinitive complements, 'ing' complements, bare infinitive complements and 'wh' infinitive complements in the data of both groups. In contrast, only two types of finite complements are reported in the data of high proficiency group: 'that' complements and 'wh' complements, while students in the low proficiency group produce only 'that' complements. The finding is similar to what appears in the study of Diessel (2004), which reported that native children began to use finite complements many months after the first emergence of non-finite complements.

5.1.2 Development of non-finite complements

In the study of Diessel (2004: 66), it also mentioned that the complements in the early period of children were not marked by any complementizer. The

development began from bare infinitive complements to 'to' infinitive complements. 'ing' complements appeared later while 'wh' infinitive complements were found the latest.

In the present study, it is hard to claim that the subjects begin with bare infinitive because the data of bare infinitive are limited and most of them receive the influence from the direct translation of the first language.

It seems that 'to' infinitive complements should be acquired before 'ing' complement and 'wh' infinitive complements because the 'to' infinitive complements are used with high numbers in both groups. Moreover, 'to' infinitive complements are used in various contexts. Both the students in the high and low proficiency group do not only use 'to' infinitive complements after most verbs, they also extend to usages of 'to' infinitive complements to be after some model verbs. Some prepositions control 'to' infinitive complements in the data of the low proficiency students, as well.

In contrast to 'to' infinitive complements, 'ing' are controlled by not many verbs. Most of the 'ing' complements receive an influence from the textbook. There are very few 'ing' complements which can be from their productions. There are limited data of 'wh' infinitive complement usages; however, this complement structure displays a clear usage of formulaic expression. The students in the low proficiency group produce the same 'wh' infinitive complements.

5.1.3 Development of finite complements

Diessel (2004: 105) revealed 'that' complements appeared before 'wh' complements and 'if' complements in the children's language. Moreover, their

language was full of prefabricated chunk in the early period. There was no variation of tenses and subject pronouns. However, more variety of constructions appeared when the children were older (Diessel, 2004: 90-111). From the findings of this study, only 'that' complements appear in the data of the students with low proficiency level, while the students with high proficiency level produce 'that' complements and 'wh' complements. Some subjects tend to use formulaic patterns as main clauses. Most of these finite complement taking verbs are in present tense. Even though the context requires the use of past tense, the main clauses in past tense rarely appear in the data of high proficiency students, and never occur in the data of the low proficiency group. The subject of the main clause also does not vary. Most of them are restricted to the pronoun 'I.'

5.1.4 'Verb +non-finite complement' before 'Verb + NP + non-finite complement'

The data show that the students in the study prefer to use non-finite complements which contain similar subjects to the main verbs, rather than non-finite complements which contain different subjects from the main verbs. The complements in the construction 'verb + NP + non-finite complement' are not common, especially in the low proficiency group. While the students with high level of proficiency use 'to' infinitive complements, 'ing' complements, and 'bare' infinitive complements in the construction 'verb + NP + non-finite complement,' the students with low level of proficiency use only 'to' infinitive complements and 'bare' infinitive complements.

Although the data shows that the students with the low level of proficiency produce more target like complements of 'verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement'

than the students with the high level of proficiency, it is questionable if they can really generate the rules of non-finite complements with embedded noun phrase. The transformational rule 'object attraction' must be applied when the subjects of the main and complement are not identical. It will embed the subject of the complement to be the object of the main clause (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 420). 'bare' infinitive complements of the low proficient students which are target like are always in the patterns either '___ let us___,' or '___ make me/you___.' These patterns are explicitly taught in their textbook. Deviations in the construction 'verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement' produced by the high proficient students reflect their attempt to generate their own language. When some high proficient students use non-finite complements with embedded noun phrase, they do not seem to interpret the subject of complement as the object of the main clause. It is likely that they consider non-finite complements with embedded noun phrase as finite complements. It seems that there are some connections of non-finite complements with embedded noun phrase and finite complements in some subjects' language. Similar evidence is also found in the study of Diessel (2004:71).

5.1.5 Complement as object before complement as subject

The majority of non-finite complements are in the post predicate position. None of the finite complements in the data are in the subject position. It is found that the students in the high proficiency group use three complement constructions functioning as subject of the sentence: i.e. extraposed 'to' infinitive complements, pre-predicate 'to' infinitive complements, and pre-predicate 'bare' infinitive complements. The students in the low proficiency group produce similar

constructions to the students in the high proficiency group. Moreover, a usage of pre-predicate 'wh' infinitive complement is found in the data of the low proficiency group as well. Most of the pre-predicate complements, especially those used by the students in the low proficiency group appear in the textbook. The students rarely generate their own pre-predicate complements.

It is interesting that while the high proficient students memorize the extraposed 'to' infinitive complements from the book and use them as patterns, the low proficient students cannot use this complement construction correctly. This can be the result of the too complex construction. The extraposition construction may be too complicated for them to be used even as predicated chunks. Not every type of complement can be learned and used as a chunk. As Diessel (2004: 115) mentioned, complexity is one of important factors on the choice of complements.

5.2 Strategies in the complement usages

When language learners face difficulties in their communication in foreign language, many strategies are applied in order to solve the problem (Selinker, 1988). The strategies involved with the subjects' usage of complement in this study are presented as follows:

5.2.1 Use of formulaic expressions as one of second language learning strategies

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 232-233) talked about the use of unanalyzed utterances used among language learners in order to achieve the successful communication. These unanalyzed units are known by many names, for example

'formulaic language,' 'prefabricated routines,' 'stock utterances,' 'institutionalized utterances,' 'unanalyzed chunk,' etc. (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 210). According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 232), although most of these utterances are complicated and beyond the learners' syntactic rules, learners learn and recognize the phrase as long vocabulary. They are two types of formulae: routines and patterns. Routines are utterances which are learned as whole units, for example *How are you?* Patterns are utterances which are recognized as open slots, such as *Do you want_____?* The use of these utterances is found both in the language of native children and second language learners. Diessel (2004: 90-112) reported the use of prefabricated main clauses in the language of native children in the early period. Most of those chunks were short and occurred with subject pronoun 'I' in the present tense.

In this study, unanalyzed chunks are found in the language of students with high proficiency level and with low proficiency level. The students use a lot of prefabricated patterns of main clauses. They produce a number of complements which are controlled by a small group of verbs, for example, 'remember' and 'allow.' However, it seems that the students learn these verbs as unanalyzed slots of 'I remember, when I was____, I ___;' 'I was (not) allowed to ____.' The subjects in both groups learn how to use finite complement of the verb 'remember' by placing an adverbial clause and a finite complement in past tense after the verb 'remember.' The students with the low proficiency level also use 'I remember (+ 'ing' complement), as well. Similarly, the verb 'allow' is also learned as a chunk of 'I was (not) allowed to ___.'

Not only can the use of patterns be found in the subjects' language, there are reports of using formulaic routines as well. The clear examples can be seen in the use

of 'ing' complements. It is found that some students in this study tend to memorize and learn vocabulary and phrases as chunks without analyzing the attached grammatical rules. Although the use of the prefabricated pattern facilitates the communication (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 232-233), it cannot guarantee the competence of using the complements. Hanania and Gradman (1997, cited in Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 240-241) found that a learner might be unable to use words in the chunk when they were in new contexts. In the study, the vocabulary in the form of 'ing' complement are used appropriately when it follows some complement taking verbs, such as, 'like' as in 'I don't like painting and drawing' [H7]. However, when the prefabricated complement is filled after some verbs which require 'to' infinitive complements, it results in hybrid sentences; for example, 'I want to working with children …' [H8].

5.2.2 Language transfer

Language transfer has been reported as a strategy used by many second language learners. Learners use their first language syntactic structure to help them understand complicated texts in the second language (Koda, 1993). The first language may be transferred to have influence on the complement production in the second language as well. Chen (2005) studied about the acquisition of small complements in English complement of Mandarin Chinese adults. The study was based on grammatical judgment and oral translation. It revealed that Chinese learners preferred finite complements to non-finite 'to' infinitive complements. The researcher suggested the preference should be the result of language transfer from the first language. The level of proficiency has effect on the level of transfer. Chan (2004)

studied the syntactic transfer from Chinese to English in Hong Kong Chinese learners at different proficiency levels. He discovered that lower-intermediate students used transfer method more than upper intermediate students. The upper-intermediate students tended to rely on this strategy when they tried to produce difficult structures in the target language.

In the study, the evidence of language transfer is quite clear when the subjects attempted to produce 'bare' infinitive complements without embedded noun phrase. Most of the sentences in this complement construction are literally translated from Thai language. According to the data, although the subjects in both proficiency groups can use the complement taking verb 'like' with the embedding 'to' infinitive complement and 'ing' complement; when they wanted to show their positive attitude towards the verb 'study,' the sentence 'I like study' appeared. As there is no correlation between Thai and English complement structures (Lekawatana et al., 1969: 75), some subjects transferred the Thai language sentence structure into their English production. It seems that the influence from their first language was quite enough to make them ignore the rule of using complement after the verb 'like.' Some sentences also show that the students directly translate the expression in Thai to solve the problems of their limited English vocabulary, for example, 'want saw' [H8] instead of 'would like to see,' 'wait hate' [L5] instead of 'be going to hate,' 'study finish' and 'finish study' instead of 'graduate.'

The students with low level of proficiency rely on the transfer strategy more than the high level. Only the subject H8 in the high group shows her use of literal translation. The findings are supported by the study of Chan (2004) which reveals that lower level of proficiency students' production depends on lexical rather than

syntactic ability. When students face unfamiliar structures or vocabulary, they heavily rely on the meaning and ignore the syntax or grammatical rules.

5.2.3 Overgeneralization

When learners overgeneralize some grammatical rules, they tend to extend their usages beyond what is accepted in the target language (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 380). As it can be seen, some students overgeneralize the usages of 'to' infinitive complements. For them, 'to' infinitive complements can be used in many contexts. Some high and low proficient students place 'to' infinitive complements after model verbs. Also, students with the low level of proficiency use the complement structure after prepositions.

In addition, overgeneralization may be due to confusion of finite complements and non-finite complements when the subjects of the main clauses and complements are different. Some students interpret non-finite complements as finite complements; therefore, they have problems with the place and form of the embedded noun phrase in the non-finite complements. Some finite complements are controlled by non-finite verbs as well.

5.2.4 Transfer of training

The deviation 'to' + 'ing' complement can be the result of transfer of training as well. As there is a lesson which keeps emphasizing on the use of 'ing' construction, some verb phrases appear only in 'ing' form. When some students, especially those in the high proficiency group attempt to use the phrases in their language, they use them in 'ing' form.

5.2.5 Hypercorrection

Because tense forms do not exist in Thai language (Ratanakul, 2000: 78.), some subjects in the study may pay too much attention to tense forms, especially when the sentences are translated from their mother tongue.   These can be the evidence of hypercorrection. Hypercorrections are 'overreactions to a particular influence from the native language' (Odlin, 1996: 38). Noticeably, when the literal translation is used with some sentences to talk about past events, the verbs in the embedded complements are sometimes inflected, for example, 'I love studied [H8],' 'I studied finished [H8],' 'the headmaster want saw [H8],' 'I finished studied [L3],' 'I liked studied. [L5, L10].

5.2.6 Strategy of second language communication

There are a few second language communication strategies used by students in the high and low proficiency groups. When the students pay high attention to some information, they may ignore some grammatical rules in order to communicate successfully. According to the finding, the students drop the verb 'have' in some non-finite complements, and do not use past tense inflection in most of the finite complements controlled by past tense main verbs.

5.2.7 Avoidance

The students avoid using some unfamiliar or difficult grammatical rules; for example many high proficient students and low proficient students do not produce non-finite complements in the construction 'verb + NP + non-finite complement,' or

sentences with embedding in past tense. The students in the low proficiency group do not use 'wh' complements at all in the data.

5.3 Conclusion

The development of complements in Thai students in this study seems to be the similar route with that in the English native children (Diessel, 2004). Both students in the high proficiency group and low proficiency group prefer to use 'to' infinitive complements rather than 'ing' complements and 'wh' infinitive complements. For finite complements, 'wh' complements seem to be more complicated than 'that' complements; therefore, the students with low level of proficiency do not use the structure at all. They should also develop the complement usages from complements as object to complements as subject, and from non-finite complements which share the same subjects as in the main clauses to non-finite complements which contain different subjects from the main clauses. The students in the present study also employ many strategies in their attempts to use complements; i.e. strategy of second language learning, transfer of training, language transfer, hypercorrection, strategy of second language communication, avoidance and overgeneralization.

Pedagogical implication

The findings of this study have implications as follows.

Syllabus design

The findings show that the students tend to produce 'to' infinitive complements before 'ing' complements and 'wh' infinitive complements,

respectively. Moreover, 'that' complements appear before 'wh' complements. Therefore, course syllabus should be designed meticulously to be conducive to the development of students' language.

Teaching methodology

The students with the low level of proficiency usually translate some structures from Thai to English and rely on formulaic expressions in the textbook for their production. Clear comparison of the differences between Thai and English should be given when the students produce errors which are influenced by the mother tongue. The drills of some difficult structures may be needed. The concept of plagiarism should be introduced to the students, so they are aware about copying without acknowledgement. At the same time they should be encouraged to make creative use of the new words and expressions learned so that their passive vocabulary becomes active. The use of dictionary is suggested for the students with limited vocabulary to increase their vocabulary repertoire.

There should be more inputs about complement structures given to the students with high proficiency. The topics of the writing should also provide the students with realistic opportunities to use complex structures in more variety.

Teaching materials

While the students are attempting to use complex structure which may be too complicated for their syntactic knowledge, the great source of their input is from the book. As the students tend to learn some vocabulary and phrases as chunks and the frequent occurrence of the same construction do not help the students analyze the grammatical rules, the book should present these phrases in various forms and with plenty of examples and exercises.

Complexity also has influence on the choice of complements. The degree of complexity of each complement types should be considered in developing teaching materials. The study shows that the low proficiency students cannot use some too complicated structures even as a chunk. The explicit teaching about complicated constructions, for example complements with noun phrase or pre-predicate complements should be included in the course

Normally, 'to' infinitive complements and 'ing' complements are taught to the students as lists of verbs which take 'to' infinitive complements, 'ing' complements or both. However, the syllabus does not include the usages of complement structures with embedded noun phrase. From the study although the students can use complements with the main verb appropriately, they still have a problem with the construction 'verb + NP + non-finite complements.' The complement structure which takes 'wh' complementizer is difficult for the students as the students in the two proficiency group produce very few sentences with 'wh' infinitive complements and 'wh' complements. This structure; therefore, should be explicitly taught.

It is hoped that this study has contributed to previous studies about the developmental aspect in second language learners' language and thus has shed some light on the interlanguage of second language learners. It is also believed to be one of the first few cross sectional research in Thailand about interlanguage. Despite the small population, there seems to be indication that second language learners exhibit similar developmental stages to native speakers. It would, therefore, be interesting to pursue similar studies on a broader scale in order to have a better understanding about second language learners' interlanguage and perhaps to find better alternatives to help them overcome difficult stages in their language acquisition. For instance, further

research could concentrate on other syntactic aspects. To be specific, since students transfer some verb phrases when they attempt to use some complement constructions, there should be a research on the transfer of serial verb construction from Thai to English. This and research in a similar vein could engender a more profound understanding of nature of second language learning and the various strategies that come into play.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Writing Task Topics

1. Write about your schooldays. These questions will help:
   - Did you like school?
   - Were you a good student?
   - Describe your school. For example, was it old or new? large or small? near or far from your house?
   - Who was your favorite teacher? What was the teacher like?
   - What subjects did you like best?
   - Do you have to wear a uniform? Describe it.
   - What were you allowed to do? For example: We were allowed to choose any sport we wanted to do.
   - What weren't you allowed to do?

2. Write about a movie you have seen recently. Write about the setting, plot and characters and your opinion of the movie. Here are some questions to help you.
   - What is the name of the movie?
   - Which country is the movie from? (if you know)
   - Where is it set?
   - What is it about?
   - Describe the two main characters.
   - Did you like the movie? Why/ Why not?

3. Imagine you are having a party or going on a trip. Write an email to invite your teacher or a friend.

4. Write about your attitude toward money.
   - Have you ever wanted to be rich?
   - What could you do to get rich?
   - How would you spend your money?
   - Do you think rich people have any special problems because they are rich?
   - Do you think that rich people should help poorer people? If so, how?

5. Read about your star sign in the textbook. Write about yourself. The questions below will help you.
   - When is your birthday?
   - What does your astrology sign say about you?
   - Do you agree with this? Why?
   - What other adjectives describe you (e.g. shy, ambitious, friendly)?
   - What job does your star sign suggest? Would you like to do these jobs?

6. Write an advice to your new foreign friend about how to study more effectively in the university.

APPENDIX B

แบบสอบถามชุดนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของวิทยานิพนธ์ "AN ANALYSIS OF INTERLANGUAGE OF COMPLEMENT USAGES IN THAI UNIVERSITY STUDENTS" (การวิเคราห์ภาษาใน ระหว่างจากการใช้ประโยคขยายของนักศึกษาระดับมหาวิทยาลัย) ในหลักสูตรมหาบัณฑิตภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ จุฬาลง กรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีกาศึกษา 2547

ข้อมูลที่ได้จากแบบสอบถามนี้จะนำไปใช้วิเคราะห์ในงานวิจัยเท่านั้น โปรด ตอบแบบสอบถามตามจริง

Personal Information (ข้อมูลส่วนตัว)

1. Name:_____

2. Age: _____ years old

3. Sex: ❏ Male ❏ Female

4. How long have you been studying English? (น.ศ. เรียนภาษาอังกฤษมานานเท่าไหร่) _____ years

5. How do you rate your overall proficiency in English compared with the proficiency of the other students in your class?

   (น.ศ. ให้ค่าระดับความเชี่ยวชาญทางภาษาอังกฤษของตัวเองเท่าไร เมื่อเทียบกับน.ศ.คนอื่นในห้อง)

   ❏ Excellent ❏ Good ❏ Fair ❏ Poor

6. How do you rate your overall proficiency in English compared with the proficiency of native speakers of English?

   (น.ศ. ให้ค่าระดับความเชี่ยวชาญทางภาษาอังกฤษของตัวเองเท่าไร เมื่อเทียบกับเจ้าของภาษา)

   ❏ Excellent ❏ Good ❏ Fair ❏ Poor

7. How important is it for you to become proficient in English?

   (น.ศ.คิดว่าจำเป็นมากแค่ไหนที่น.ศ.จะต้องเก่งภาษาอังกฤษ)

   ❏ Very important ❏ Important ❏ Not so important

7. Why do you learn English? (Check all that apply)

   (ทำไมน.ศ.ถึงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เลือกได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)

   ❏ I'm interested in English.
   ❏ I'm interested in the culture.
   ❏ I have friends who speak English.
   ❏ I'm required to take an English course to graduate.
   ❏ I need English for my future career.
   ❏ I need it for travel.
   ❏ Other (list)_____

9. Do you enjoy learning English? (น.ศ.รู้สึกสนุกกับการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่)

   Yes No

10. What other languages have you studied?

   (นอกจากภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาไทย น.ศ. ได้เรียนภาษาอื่นอะไรอีก)

   _____

APPENDIX C

Table 1 *Score and grade of the students participated in the study*

Subject Number	Score	Grade	Subject Number	Score	Grade
H1	87	A	L1	57	D +
H2	86	A	L2	58	D +
H3	85	A	L3	58	D +
H4	83	A	L4	58	D +
H5	83	A	L5	58	D +
H6	83	A	L6	58	D +
H7	82	A	L7	58	D +
H8	82	A	L8	58	D +
H9	82	A	L9	58	D +
H10	82	A	L10	59	D +
H11	82	A	L11	59	D +
H12	81	A	L12	59	D +
H13	81	A	L13	59	D +
H14	81	A	L14	59	D +
H15	81	A	L15	59	D +

Table 2: *Numbers of complement s of each subject in the high proficiency group*

Subject Number	Non-finite		Finite		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
H1	6	3.66	6	5.50	12	4.40
H2	11	6.71	21	19.27	32	11.72
H3	5	3.05	6	5.50	11	4.03
H4	8	4.88	9	8.26	17	6.23
H5	7	4.27	1	0.92	8	2.93
H6	6	3.66	6	5.50	12	4.40
H7	9	5.49	5	4.59	14	5.13
H8	52	31.71	12	11.01	64	23.44
H9	2	1.22	7	6.42	9	3.30
H10	10	6.10	8	7.34	18	6.59
H11	11	6.71	3	2.75	14	5.13
H12	8	4.88	8	7.34	16	5.86
H13	17	10.37	12	11.01	29	10.62
H14	9	5.49	3	2.75	12	4.40
H15	3	1.83	2	1.83	5	1.83
TOTAL	164	100.00	109	100.00	273	100.00

Table 3: *Numbers of complements of each subject in the low proficiency group*

Subject Number	Non-finite		Finite		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
L1	3	1.55	6	6.82	9	3.19
L2	1	0.52	1	1.14	2	0.71
L3	12	6.19	2	2.27	14	4.96
L4	24	12.37	14	15.91	38	13.48
L5	14	7.22	8	9.09	22	7.80
L6	4	2.06	3	3.41	7	2.48
L7	13	6.70	4	4.55	17	6.03
L8	11	5.67	8	9.09	19	6.74
L9	13	6.70	10	11.36	23	8.16
L10	15	7.73	2	2.27	17	6.03
L11	17	8.76	5	5.68	22	7.80
L12	15	7.73	8	9.09	23	8.16
L13	21	10.82	6	6.82	27	9.57
L14	18	9.28	5	5.68	23	8.16
L15	13	6.70	6	6.82	19	6.74
TOTAL	194	100.00	88	100	282	100.00

Table 4: *Lists of verbs and nouns which control complements of the students in the high proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Verb + 'to' infinitive complement		
allow	11	12.09
come	1	1.10
enjoy	1	1.10
go	1	1.10
hope	1	1.10
like	19	20.88
love	8	8.79
make	1	1.10
model verb*	6	6.59
need	1	1.10
plan	1	1.10
please	2	2.20
see	1	1.10
try	1	1.10
want	36	39.56

Verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement

give	1	7.14
hope	1	7.14
invite	1	7.14
see	1	7.14
take	1	7.14
wait	1	7.14
want	8	57.14

Extraposed 'to' infinitive complement

be good	2	40.00
be great	2	40.00
be important	1	20.00

Verb + 'ing' complement

be good at	1	5.00
be interested in	5	25.00
enjoy	6	30.00
like	8	40.00

Verb + NP + 'ing' complement

see	2	100.00

Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement

like	2	33.33
love	4	66.67
want	1	16.67

Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement

let	6	37.50
make	10	62.50

Verb +'wh' infinitive complement

advice	2	50.00
know	2	50.00

Verb + 'that' complement

believe	4	3.81
call	1	0.95

hope	4	3.81
know	6	5.71
recommend	1	0.95
remember	19	18.10
say	8	7.62
see	1	0.95
tell	4	3.81
think	57	54.29

Verb + 'wh' complement

know	1	25.00
remember	2	50.00
worry about	1	25.00

Table 5: *Lists of verbs and nouns which control complements of the students in the low proficiency group*

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Verb + 'to' infinitive complement		
allow	19	16.38
decide	1	0.86
go	3	2.59
happy	2	1.72
hope	1	0.86
important	1	0.86
like	23	19.83
love	3	2.59
model	15	12.93
plan	3	2.59
preposition	4	3.45
start	1	0.86
struggle	1	0.86
try	3	2.59
want	36	31.03

Verb + NP + 'to' infinitive complement

invite	1	12.50

lead	1	12.50
wait	1	12.50
want	5	62.50

Verb + 'ing' complement

be interested in	1	4.17
enjoy	3	12.50
like	5	20.83
love	1	4.17
model verb*	2	8.33
remember	11	45.83
start	1	4.17

Verb + 'bare' infinitive complement

attempt	1	10.00
finish	1	10.00
like	5	50.00
wait	1	10.00

Verb + NP + 'bare' infinitive complement

allow	1	5.56
give	2	11.11
let	6	33.33
make	9	50.00

'wh' infinitive complement

decide	1	16.67
advise	1	16.67
advice	1	16.67
something	1	16.67
any special problem	1	16.67
tell	1	16.67

Verb + 'that' complement

advise	1	1.14
agree	1	1.14
answer	1	1.14
ask	1	1.14
believe	7	7.95
hope	5	5.68

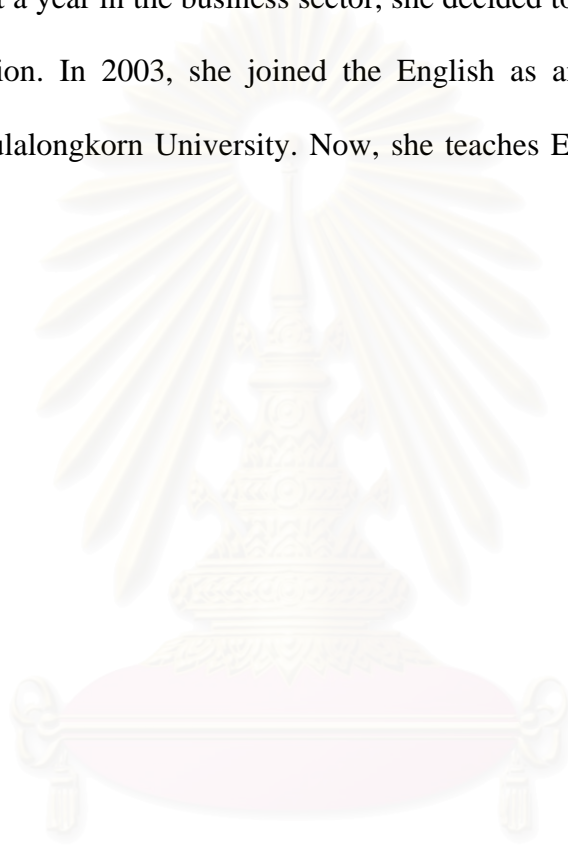|		
like	1	1.14
remember	12	13.64
say	7	7.95
suggest	3	3.41
think	49	55.68

*The study did not aim to study the use of model verbs. The model verbs in the study are not all the usages of model verb of the students. Only model verbs which the subjects consider as complement taking verbs are concerned.

BIOGRAPHY

Miss Warithorn Samana was born in Chiang Mai, on September 17, 1979. She graduated from Chiang Mai University, Thailand with a B.A. (hons.) in 2002. After spending almost a year in the business sector, she decided to pursue her interest in the field of education. In 2003, she joined the English as an International Language Program at Chulalongkorn University. Now, she teaches English at Dhurakij Pundit University.