การบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้อย่างแปรเปลี่ยนโดยผู้เรียนที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่ง:
การประยุกต์ใช้สมมติฐานลักษณะแสดงหน้าที่ที่ล้มเหลว

นางสาวมนทิรา คำดี

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาอักษรศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต
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ปีการศึกษา 2556
ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

VARIABLE PRODUCTION OF ENGLISH PAST TENSE MARKING BY L1 THAI LEARNERS:

AN APPLICATION OF THE FAILED FUNCTIONAL FEATURES HYPOTHESIS

Miss Montira Khumdee

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of Master of Arts Program in English

Department of English

Faculty of Arts

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By	Miss Montira Khumdee
Field of Study	English
Thesis Advisor	Associate Professor Nattama Pongpairoj, Ph.D.

Accepted by the Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree

....Dean of the Faculty of Arts

(Assistant Professor Prapod Assavavirulhakarn, Ph.D.)

THESIS COMMITTEE

....Chairman

(Assistant Professor Namtip Pingkarawat, Ph.D.)

....Thesis Advisor

(Associate Professor Nattama Pongpairoj, Ph.D.)

....External Examiner

(Associate Professor Supong Tangkiengsirisin, Ph.D.)

iv

มนทิรา คำดี : การบ่งชื้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้อย่างแปรเปลี่ยนโดยผู้เรียนที่มี
ภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่ง: การประยุกต์ใช้สมมติฐานลักษณะแสดงหน้าที่ที่ล้มเหลว.
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LEARNERS: AN APPLICATION OF THE FAILED FUNCTIONAL FEATURES
HYPOTHESIS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: รศ. ดร.ณัฐมา พงศ์ไพโรจน์, 130 หน้า.

งานวิจัยด้านการรับรู้ภาษาที่สองพบว่าระบบหน่วยคำแสดงหน้าที่ (functional
morphology) ตัวอย่างเช่น กาล (tense) และความคล้อยตาม (agreement) ถูกใช้อย่าง
แปรเปลี่ยนโดยผู้เรียนภาษาที่สอง ตัวบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษ (English past tense
marking) คือระบบหน่วยคำแสดงหน้าที่ซึ่งถูกใช้อย่างแปรเปลี่ยนอย่างแพร่หลายโดยผู้เรียนภาษา
ที่สอง งานวิจัยฉบับนี้เป็นการสำรวจว่ามีการใช้ตัวบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษอย่างแปรเปลี่ยน
โดยผู้เรียนที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่งหรือไม่ สมมติฐานของงานวิจัยฉบับนี้คือ กลุ่มตัวอย่างจะ
ใช้ตัวบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษอย่างแปรเปลี่ยน และการใช้ตัวบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษ
อย่างแปรเปลี่ยนโดยกลุ่มตัวอย่างสามารถอธิบายได้โดยใช้สมมติฐานลักษณะแสดงหน้าที่ที่
ล้มเหลว (Failed Functional Features Hypothesis) แต่ไม่สามารถอธิบายได้โดยใช้สมมติฐาน
การผันคำระดับพื้นผิวที่หายไป (Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis) กลุ่มตัวอย่างของ
งานวิจัยมีจำนวนทั้งหมด 40 คน ซึ่งถูกแบ่งออกเป็นสองกลุ่มย่อยโดยวัดจากระดับสมิทธิภาพของ
กลุ่มตัวอย่าง ได้แก่ ผู้เรียนที่มีสมิทธิภาพสูง (advanced learners) จำนวน 20 คนและผู้เรียนที่มี
สมิทธิภาพปานกลาง (intermediate learners) จำนวน 20 คน กลุ่มตัวอย่างทั้ง 40 คนได้ทำ
แบบทดสอบจำนวนสามชุด ได้แก่ Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) , Cloze Test และ
Story-telling กลุ่มตัวอย่างทั้ง 40 คนคือนิสิตชั้นปีที่ 1 จากจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

ผลการวิจัยชี้ว่ากลุ่มตัวอย่างทั้งสองกลุ่มใช้ตัวบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษอย่าง
แปรเปลี่ยนในทั้งแบบทดสอบที่ใช้วัดองค์ความรู้ซึ่งก็คือ GJT และแบบทดสอบที่ใช้วัดการใช้องค์
ความรู้ซึ่งประกอบไปด้วย Cloze Test และ Story-telling กลุ่มตัวอย่างทั้งสองกลุ่มใช้ตัวบ่งชี้
อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษในระดับที่ต่ำในแบบทดสอบทั้งสามชุด นอกจากนั้นยังพบว่ากลุ่มตัวอย่าง
ทั้งสองกลุ่มใช้ตัวบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้นเมื่อกริยาในประโยคเป็นกริยารูปไม่ปกติ
(irregular verbs) และเมื่อมีวลีหน่วยวิเศษณ์บอกเวลาที่ชี้อดีตกาล (adverbial phrases of
time indicating pastness) อยู่ในประโยค การใช้ตัวบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษอย่าง
แปรเปลี่ยนในแบบทดสอบที่ใช้วัดองค์ความรู้และแบบทดสอบที่ใช้วัดการใช้องค์ความรู้ รวมไปถึง
ปรากฏการณ์การการใช้ตัวบ่งชี้อดีตกาลในภาษาอังกฤษในระดับที่ต่างกันยืนยันว่าสมมติฐานทั้ง
สองข้อของงานวิจัยฉบับนี้เป็นจริง ซึ่งเป็นไปตามสมมติฐานลักษณะแสดงหน้าที่ที่ล้มเหลวแต่ไม่
เป็นไปตามสมมติฐานการผันคำระดับพื้นผิวที่หายไป

ภาควิชา	ภาษาอังกฤษ	ลายมือชื่อนิสิต ....
สาขาวิชา	ภาษาอังกฤษ	ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก ....
ปีการศึกษา	2556	

MONTIRA KHUMDEE: VARIABLE PRODUCTION OF ENGLISH PAST TENSE MARKING BY L1 THAI LEARNERS: AN APPLICATION OF THE FAILED FUNCTIONAL FEATURES HYPOTHESIS. ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF. NATTAMA PONGPAIROJ, Ph.D., 130 pp.

In second language acquisition research, it is well-attested that production of functional morphology, e.g. tense and agreement, by L2 learners is variable. English past tense marking is a functional morphology that is frequently variably produced by L2 learners (e.g. Bayley, 1991; Lardiere, 1998; Tajika, 1999; Hawkins and Liszka, 2003; among others). The present study examined whether variability exists in production of English past tense marking by L1 Thai speakers. It was hypothesized that variable use of English past tense marking will be observed and that the phenomenon can be accounted for by the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH) (e.g. Franceschina, 2001; Hawkins and Chan, 1997; Hawkins and Liszka, 2003), but not by the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH) (e.g. Lardiere, 1998; Prévost and White, 2000; White, 2003). Three tests: Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT), Cloze Test, and Story-telling, were administered to 40 L1 Thai learners: 20 intermediate and 20 advanced learners. All of the participants were freshmen at Chulalongkorn University.

The results showed that L1 Thai speakers exhibited variability in their production of English past tense marking in both the representation test: the GJT, and the production tests: the Cloze Test and the story-telling test. The two L1 Thai proficiency groups displayed a low suppliance rate of English past tense marking across the three tests. Additionally, an asymmetric rate of suppliance of past tense marking was observed. It was found that regular verbs were past-marked less frequently than irregular verbs by both proficiency groups. The suppliance rate of English past tense marking by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups was also higher when adverbial phrases of time indicating pastness were present. The low suppliances of past morphemes including both the representation and the production tasks, and the asymmetric phenomena confirmed the two hypotheses, hence, supporting the FFFH but confounding the MSIH.

Department: English   Student's Signature ----------------------------

Field of Study: English   Advisor's Signature ----------------------------

Academic Year: 2013

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

Over decades, production of functional morphology, e.g. tense and agreement by adult second language (L2) learners from different first language (L1) backgrounds has often been observed to be variable (White, 2003). In the L2 research field, the term "variable production" refers to the use of two linguistic forms, i.e. correct and incorrect, by the L2 learners as in "*And I watch it maybe 20 years ago" (Hawkins and Liszka, 2003), where only a correct form is shown by native speakers. Trenkic (2007) states that bound as well as free functional morphology, such as the past tense ending '-ed' and articles 'a(n)' and 'the', has been inconsistently produced by these learners. As an illustration, the English article 'the' is used where 'a(n)' is required, and vice versa. Not only substitution but also omission of a certain functional morpheme has frequently been found in adult L2 learners' production, as in "*she has two younger sister", where the plural marker '-

s' is omitted. This linguistic behavior has received much attention in L2 research

particularly when it has been found in advanced L2 learners' production (e.g.

Lardiere, 1998; Prévost and White, 2000; Franceschina, 2001; Hawkins and Liszka,

2003). Even the L2 learner who is considered to have reached a steady state, when

acquisition is believed to stop, still expresses variability in her L2 production

(Lardiere, 1998).[1] This phenomenon raises an argument to L2 concepts which suggest

that the L2 learner's mental grammar is constrained by Universal Grammar (UG)

(Chomsky, 1965). That is, if such mental grammars are UG-based, why such variability

is still persistent in even advanced or near-native L2 learners' production. The very

example of variability in advanced L2 learners is clearly seen in Lardiere's (1998)

longitudinal study. Lardiere found that her Chinese-speaking participant learning

English as an L2, Patty, whose grammar is believed to be in a steady-state stage,

showed remarkable variability in production of past tense marking in her

spontaneous speech across three recording years. This persistence of variability in the

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[1]A steady state or end state refers to a final stage of L2 acquisition in which the acquisition is believed to stop, regardless of whether the outcome of such acquisition is nativelike (Birdsong and Paik, 2008).

near-native L2 speaker is not in line with the L2 concepts that postulate the association between UG and L2 acquisition as discussed earlier.

The recurrence of variability in production of L2 functional morphology leads to L2 researchers' attempt to locate the cause of the problem. Under generative grammar, two opposing accounts on variable production of functional morphology by adult L2 learners are proposed: the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH) and the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH). The MSIH views variable production of functional morphology as a result of a mapping problem between syntax and morphology. Proponents of this account claim that functional categories are fully specified in adult L2 learners despite low rates of suppliance of such categories found in a great number of studies (e.g. Lardiere, 1998; Prévost and White, 2000; White, 2003). The notion assumes that the problem is rooted in the fully-specified categories not being realized in their morpho(phono)logical forms. On the contrary, the FFFH regards deficiency of syntactic categories in the learners' mental grammars as a source of variability (e.g. Eubank and Grace, 1998; Hawkins, 2000;

Franceschina, 2001; Hawkins and Liszka, 2003). Generally, functional categories which are not instantiated in the L1 of adult L2 learners are underspecified in their grammars, resulting in variable production of such categories. In terms of UG, these two views propose different UG roles in adult L2 acquisition. The MSIH claims that, like L1 acquisition, L2 acquisition is UG-constrained. That is to say, every feature of the L2 is acquirable despite differences between L1 and L2 and absence of L2 features from the L1 of the L2 learners. Thus, the adult L2 learner who stays exposed to the L2 can reach native-like representation because of this full availability of UG. On the contrary, the FFFH argues that only L2 features present in the adult L2 learners' L1 can be acquired. That is, if a certain L2 category does not exist in the adult L2 learner's L1, it is unattainable. Regarding the local impairment hypothesis, UG, then, is partially active in adult L2 acquisition.

English past tense marking seems to be difficult to adult L2 learners as variability in L2 learners' production of past tense marking has frequently been reported in a number of L2 studies (e.g. Bayley, 1991; Lardiere, 1998; Tajika, 1999;

Hawkins and Liszka, 2003). Most of these studies were conducted among advanced

L2 learners and reached similar findings in terms of variable production of English

past tense marking by their participants. Despite the fact that L2 learners' difficulty

producing the past tense marking has often been studied, to the best of my

knowledge, there has not been any study exclusively conducted on L1 Thai learners.

There have been only a few studies which state such difficulty among L1 Thai

learners (e.g. Lekawatana *et al.*, 1969; Suwattee, 1985; Noochoochai, 1985;

Pongpairoj, 2002). To fill in the gap, the present study aims at investigating variability

in production of past tense marking by adult L2 learners whose L1, Thai, lacks this

grammatical feature. More specifically, the present study attempts to locate the

exact cause of such variability by examining the claims of the two accounts: MSIH

and FFFH.

The objectives and hypotheses of the present study are listed below:

1.2 Objectives

1) To investigate variable production of English past tense marking by L1 Thai learners.

2) To show that variable production of English past tense marking is caused by non-target-like syntactic representation according to the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH), not by target-like syntactic representation according to the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH).

1.3 Hypotheses

1) L1 Thai learners, regardless of their levels of proficiency, will exhibit variable use of English simple past marking in their production.

2) The FFFH can account for variable production of English past tense marking by L1 Thai learners. On the other hand, the MSIH cannot.

The study is organized as follows. Chapter 2 presents the literature review: 2.1 reviews three perspectives on errors in L2 production: Contrastive Analysis (CA), Error Analysis (EA), and Interlanguage (IL); 2.2 focuses on the two current accounts on variable production of inflectional morphology by L2 learners; 2.3 summarizes studies on past tense marking production by L2 learners; 2.4 illustrates differences in tense expressing between Thai and English. Chapter 3 details the research methodology. Chapter 4 reports and discusses the results of the study. Lastly, Chapter 5 concludes the study.

Chapter 2
Review of Literature

In this chapter, related literature is reviewed. The chapter is organized as follows. 2.1 reviews earlier approaches to erroneous production of L2 learners. 2.2 discusses two current accounts on variable production of functional morphology. 2.3 presents previous studies on variability in production of English past tense marking by adult L2 learners. 2.4 compares and contrasts pastness expressions in Thai and English.

2.1 Earlier Approaches to Erroneous Production of L2 Learners

2.1.1 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Over decades, L2 researchers have attempted to explain the cause of erroneous production of L2 learners. Errors in the learners' production are initially accounted for by Contrastive Analysis (CA). CA heavily relies on L1-L2 similarities and

differences to predict problems the learners might encounter during their L2

acquisition. That is, errors are most likely to occur if a particular L2 feature to be

learnt is absent or different from the learner's mother tongue. Regarding this

approach, there are two versions: strong and weak (Wardhaugh, 1970). The strong

version of CA is the prediction of difficulties in language learning where the actual

learning has not yet taken place. The prediction is made by comparing the learners'

native language with the target language (TL). The weak version, on the contrary, is

applied when errors are observed in the course of acquisition. The errors found are

analyzed by examining similarities and differences in the learners' L1 and L2.

Wardhaugh (1970) addresses that the strong hypothesis is unrealistic compared to

the weak one. In addition, Wardhaugh himself casts doubt on the validity of the

predictive power of the strong hypothesis. It is due to this doubt that gives

preference to the weak hypothesis over the strong one (Wardhaugh, 1970). Clearly,

CA focuses on the native language of the learners without considering other possible

factors such as context of learning, communication strategies, and cognitive and

personality styles. This flaw of CA raises a question as to whether it is necessary to

only view the L1 as a major factor in the learner's erroneous production. The question leads to another account – error analysis (EA).

2.1.2 Error Analysis (EA)

In the early 1960s, error analysis becomes well-known in second language acquisition (SLA) right after the claim that states the failure of CA is proposed. Dulay *et al*. (1982) suggests that EA has a richer explanation to account for the learners' errors which CA cannot explain since EA takes many possible causes of errors into consideration. To analyze errors, EA requires a series of processes: collecting errors, examining the errors, classifying them, and assuming causes of the errors (McKeating, 1981). According to McKeating (1981), other causes of errors apart from the learner's L1 are possible. In addition, Richards (1971) lists types and causes of "intralingual and developmental errors" (p. 199). He states that intralingual errors are associated with rules of the TL itself while developmental errors concern the learners' attempt to set hypotheses and test them during their course of acquisition. Richards (1971)

classifies sources of errors into overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, and false concepts hypothesized.

Overgeneralization refers to the learner's deviant structure creation on the basis of other structures s/he has acquired. As an illustration, the learner might produce the ungrammatical sentence "*he can sings" (Richards, 1971: 199) where misapplication of a verb-subject agreement rule is employed. The second type of source of errors, ignorance of rule restrictions, involves the learner's misapplication of rules. For example, the learner might utter "*I made him to do it" instead of "I made him do it" (Richards, 1971: 201). This error is committed because the learner does not observe restrictions on a 'make' usage. In addition, it can be interpreted as a result of analogy. The learner might think that a verb 'make' is used similarly to 'ask' so he produces "*I made him to do it" by analogy with "I asked him to do it." The incomplete application of rules covers the incomplete use of the required rules to produce grammatical sentences. To illustrate, the learner might construct a question form by simply adding a question word to an affirmative sentence as

"*What I told you?". False concepts hypothesized errors arise when the learner

incorrectly forms a concept of a particular feature of the TL. For instance, the learner

might assume that 'is' is a present tense marker and 'was' a past tense marker so

the learner displays inappropriate utterances "*he is speaks French" and "*it was

happened" (Richards, 1971: 203).

EA becomes a useful tool among language teachers (Schachter and Celce-

Murcia, 1977). Nevertheless, EA, like CA, contains gaps to be questioned. Schachter

and Celce-Murcia (1977) propose six potential weaknesses in research based on EA,

including the analysis of errors in isolation, the proper classification of identified

errors, statements of errors frequency, the identification of difficulty in the target

language, the ascription of causes to systemic errors, and the biased nature of

sampling procedures. Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) argue that errors do not

always reflect the actual knowledge of L2 learners, for the learners might avoid using

some L2 structure of which they are uncertain (See full details of six potential

weaknesses of EA in Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977)).

2.1.3 Interlanguage (IL)

Selinker (1972) tries to gain an understanding of how L2 learners acquire the L2 from a psychological perspective. He coins the term "interlanguage" to refer to the language of L2 learners who are in the TL learning process. Selinker (1972) takes the learning perspective to look into L2 acquisition which is different from the teaching perspective. Loosely following Lenneberg's (1967) postulation of latent language structure in the L2 learners' mental representation which might or might not be activated during the learning, Selinker (1972) assumes that such a structure exists.[2] Regarding the latent language structure, Selinker (1972) states that it has been reactivated in the brain of those learners who succeed in L2 learning. That is, the successful learners, who are hardly found, might pass through different psychological stages in their L2 acquisition, compared to most L2 learners. Selinker (1972) suggests that there exist five psychological processes in the latent psychological structure

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[2] Latent language structure refers to the psychological structure which "(a) is an already formulated arrangement in the brain, (b) is the biological counterpart to universal grammar, and (c) is transformed by the infant into the *realized* structure of a particular grammar in accordance with certain maturation stages" (Selinker, 1972: 211).

which he regards as central to L2 learning, including, "language transfer", "transfer of

training", "strategies of second language learning", "strategies of second language

communication", and "overgeneralization of TL linguistic material" (p. 215). Selinker

suggests the concept of fossilization, which is assumed to be in the latent

psychological structure. Fossilization refers to a phenomenon where inappropriate

items, rules, etc. of the TL have stuck in L2 learners' IL. These fossilizable structures

tend to occur and re-occur even though they seem to be eradicated, and they are

driven to appear as errors by those five central processes listed above. For example,

if the fossilizable items are caused by the learner's L1, the language transfer process

is taken into consideration because it involves the learner's use of past knowledge in

learning the TL. The IL approach to L2 acquisition also raises many questions. It

might be questioned if the proponents of this view always unambiguously identify

the exact process of the observed data, for instance.

Proponents of CA, EA, and IL have attempted to provide insightful

explanations of causes of errors in L2 acquisition. Yet, the debate under discussion is

somehow ongoing to this day. The following section presents two opposing

approaches to L2 acquisition with emphasis on the cause of variability in production

of functional morphology.

2.2 Two Accounts on L2 Learners' Variable Production of Functional Morphology

Recently, researchers in L2 acquisition attempt to locate the cause of

errorneous production of English morphology. Two opposing views are proposed, i.e.

the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH), and the Failed Functional Features

Hypothesis (FFFH). 2.2.1 introduces the concept of the MSIH: 2.2.2 presents the

notion of the FFFH.

2.2.1 The Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis

This account views variability in production of L2 inflectional morphology as a

consequence of a processing problem which only occurs at a surface level of

derivation. In other words, the problem appears at the morphological level where the learners try, but fail, to map a certain morphological form onto its appropriate abstract category. It is proposed, then, that variable production of L2 inflectional morphology does not reflect impairment of the learners' syntactic representation. Rather, it is argued that such representation is fully specified (e.g. Lardiere, 1998, 2000; Prévost and White, 2000; White, 2003). The claim that variable L2 production is not necessarily caused by the deficiency of syntactic representation is proposed by Lardiere (1998) as she found asymmetric suppliance rates between a certain syntactic feature (e.g. past tense marking '-ed') and a syntactic-related category (e.g. pronominal case). She argues that if the learners' grammar had been impaired, suppliance of the syntactic categories and that of syntactic-related ones should have been at the same rate. This observation leads many researchers to assume that the precise cause of variability in production of L2 functional morphology is not rooted in the learners' syntactic representation.

According to the MSIH, it is argued that L2 acquisition is UG-regulated. Under

UG, Chomsky (1965) postulates that Language Acquisition Device (LAD) exists in

natural human language acquisition which helps the learners in acquiring a language.

Thus, it means that L1 acquisition involves LAD. The proponents of the MSIH attempt

to associate their claim with UG, noting that UG is involved in L2 acquisition. That is,

like L1 acquirers, L2 learners can access UG during stages of acquisition. Additionally,

it is stated that the difference in parameter-settings of a particular functional

morpheme between L1 and L2 is irrelevant to the learners' variable production of

such a morpheme. That is to say, a single functional category in the L1 parameter, if

different from that in the L2 parameter, can be reset because of the full availability

of UG (White, 2003).[3] This assumption leads the proponents of this account to

conclude that adult L2 learners can reach targetlikeness. As such, the proponents of

the MSIH argue that variability in production of L2 functional morphology is caused

by the processing problem despite the fully-specified abstract category (e.g. Epstein

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[3] According to White (2003) parameters are UG principles "with a limited number of built-in options (setting or values), which allow for crosslinguistic variation" (p. 9).

et al., 1996; Haznedar and Schwartz, 1997; Ionin and Wexler, 2002; Lardiere, 1998,

2000; Prévost and White, 2000; White, 2003). The MSIH is also known as 'ignorance of

morphology' (Epstein *et al.*, 1996), or 'the morphological approach' (Franceschina,

2001).

2.2.2 The Failed Functional Features Hypothesis

The FFFH views variable production of L2 functional category as impairment

of the L2 learners' grammar. This alternative account argues that a particular abstract

feature of functional morphology is underspecified in the L2 learners' grammar

because of differences between the L2 and their L1 within the domain of a feature.

In other words, the L2 functional category that is absent from the learners' L1 is

claimed to be unattainable after puberty.

The FFFH also relates its claim to UG. It should be noted that under the

syntactic-impairment hypothesis, there exist two kinds of impairment: global and

local. The global impairment argues that L2 acquisition is subject to a critical period

which suggests that UG is inaccessible in adult L2 acquisition (e.g. Bley-Vroman, 1989; Clahsen, 1988; Clahsen and Muysken, 1986). Thus, it is predicted that UG is only available to L1 acquirers, and not to L2 acquirers, suggesting the non-availability of UG in adult L2 acquisition (e.g. Bley-Vroman, 1989; Clahsen, 1988; Clahsen and Muysken, 1986). This interpretation is also supported by Meisel (1997) as he notes that access to UG is inactive in L2 acquisition.

The local impairment, to which the FFFH belongs, suggests that UG is partially accessible to late L2 learners. That is to say, not all features of the L2 are acquirable after puberty (Smith and Tsimpli, 1995; cited in Hawkins & Liszka, 2003). In other words, UG can be accessed only when a particular L2 category is instantiated in the learners' L1. Thus, if there are differences between the learners' L1 and the L2, variability is likely to be observed. Proponents of the FFFH assume that variable production of functional morphology by adult L2 learners is due to deficit syntax, not the processing problem (e.g. Beck, 1997, 1998; Franceschina, 2001; Hawkins, 2000; Hawkins and Chan, 1997; Hawkins and Liszka, 2003; Liszka, 2002; Smith and Tsimpli,

1995; Trenkic, 2007). The FFFH is also known as "failed formal features hypothesis"

(Hawkins, 2000) and the "Representational Deficit Hypothesis" (RDH) (Leung, 2001).

The following section summarizes previous studies on past tense marking

production by L2 learners of English from different L1 backgrounds.

2.3 Research on Variability in Production of English Past Tense Marking by adult L2 learners

English past tense marking is one of the L2 functional morphemes that has

often been variably produced by adult L2 learners from certain L1 backgrounds (e.g.

Bayley, 1991; Lardiere, 1998; Tajika, 1999; Hawkins and Liszka, 2003). A number of

researchers have found that the participants in their studies occasionally supplied

the past tense marking in obligatory past context where past tense marking is

required. That is, the L2 learners do not always past-mark verbs in obligatory past

context. As a consequence, production of past tense marking by the L2 learner is

variable. For example, the Chinese participant in Lardiere's (1998) study omitted past

marking '/d/' where it is required in her utterance 'yesterday they open until five' (p. 16). That this variability has unexpectedly recurred in advanced L2 learners has drawn attention of researchers in attempting to locate the source of such variability.
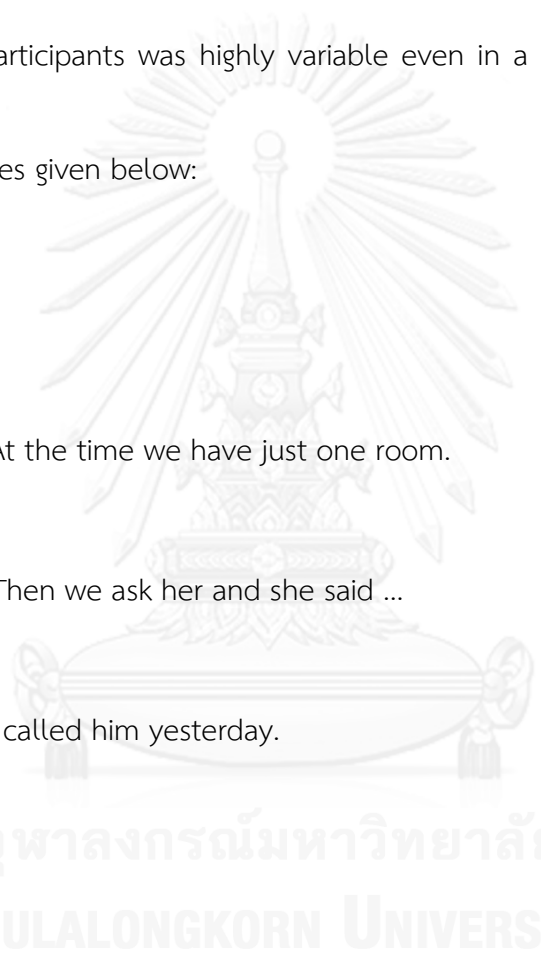
The relevant research on variable production of English past tense marking will be discussed in detail. 2.3.1 summarizes Bayley's (1991); 2.3.2 presents Lardiere's (1998), and 2.3.3 illustrates Hawkins and Liszka's (2003) work.

2.3.1 Bayley (1991)

Led by studies of variability in native languages (e.g. Labov, 1969; Guy 1981; Baugh, 1983; Rickford, 1987a), Bayley (1991) carried out a study on interlanguage variation by focusing on one of the grammatical categories in English: the past tense marking. Bayley chose L1 Chinese learners of L2 English as the participants in his study. After an interview session, tokens of the study numbered approximately 8,000 consisting of both past-reference verbs and final consonant clusters. Bayley (1991) also examined final consonant clusters of the monomorphemic words (e.g. 'most')

for the reason that in studying the past tense marking, '/t/' and '/d/' deletions should also be examined.

The data were analyzed and the results suggested that the past tense marking by the participants was highly variable even in a high proficiency learner's speech as examples given below:

(1)   a. At the time we have just one room.

        b. Then we ask her and she said …

        c. I called him yesterday.

(Bayley, 1991: 40)

As seen, even a high-proficiency learner with a TOEFL of at least 550 in his study still expressed variability in production of past tense marking where verbs requiring past-marking were only occasionally marked past-tense.

In his study, Bayley examined the tokens in relation to two main factor groups that might put effects on the production, namely linguistic factor group, and the developmental and social factor group. The former comprised four linguistic factor groups, namely, the verb type, the grammatical aspect (perfective and imperfective), the preceding segment, and the following segment, with the last two groups applied only to regular non-syllabics, '/t/' and '/d/'.[4] The latter factor group consisted of three developmental and social factor groups, including English proficiency, social network affiliation, and the interview type.

For the verb type factor, the results indicated that variability in production of past tense marking was not random, but greatly affected by the verb salience as Bayley (1991) found that "the more salient the difference between the past and present tense forms, the more likely a past-reference verb is to be marked for tense" (p. 50). Thus, it means that suppletives (e.g. 'go', 'went') were marked most often,

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[4] Non-syllabic '/t/' and '/d/' sounds refer to the past tense marking '-ed' that does not give any extra syllable to the base form of the verb it suffixes, so the inflected 'talked' has one syllable '/tɒːkt/' as does the inflected 'played' '/pleɪd/.'

compared to other verb types, since the past tense and present forms are totally

different. This result was aligned with what was found by Wolfram (1985). Tajika

(1999) rearranged a saliency hierarchy as Wolfram (1985) observed in his study as

follows:

More salient:	suppletive forms (*is/was; go/went*)
	internal vowel changes plus a regular suffix (*do/did; keep/kept*)
	internal vowel changes (*come/came; sit/sat*)
Less salient:	replacive forms (final consonant replacement) (*have/had; make/made*)

Table 1: Saliency list for irregular verbs

(Tajika, 1999: 25)

While Wolfram (1985) categorized the copula 'be' as a suppletive as shown in

Table 1, Bayley (1991) argued that not all past tense forms of the copula is a true

suppletive. He specified that only the first person singular past-tense form ('was') is a

suppletive. Bayley give a reason to this re-categorization of past tense forms of the

copula noting that the final segment of other past tense forms of the copula, except

the first person singular, and that of present forms of the copula is identical ('is/was';

'are/were'). Bayley (1991), then, classified the verb into nine categories, according to

"the saliency of the difference between the present and past tense forms" (p. 44),

i.e. seven irregular-classes and two regular-classes as listed below:

1) suppletives ('go, went', first person singular copula);

2) doubly marked verbs (internal vowel change + t/d suffix), e.g., 'leave, left';

3) verbs that form the past tense by an internal vowel change, deletion of

the final segment(s), and affixation of t/d, e.g., 'bring, brought'; 'think,

thought';

4) strong verbs that form the past by an internal vowel change, e.g., 'come,

came';

5) copulas other than the first person singular;

6) replacives, e.g., 'have, had'; 'send, sent';

7) regular non-syllabics, e.g., 'play, played'; 'talk, talked';

8) regular syllabics, e.g., 'want, wanted'; 'yield, yielded';

9) the modals 'can, could'; 'will, would'.

(Bayley, 1991: 43)

As for the second linguistic factor group, the grammatical aspect, Bayley (1991) found that the distinction between the perfective and the imperfective aspects also influenced rates of suppliance of the past tense marking. He observed that past tense marking was favored by the perfective aspect, and disfavored by the imperfective aspect. However, Bayley himself argued that the perfective-imperfective distinction partially explained the marking pattern as opposed to the claim by Flasher (1989) and Robinson (1990) that the grammatical aspect plays a major role in

the past tense marking. Bayley argued that although perfectives were more marked by both proficiency groups in his study, verb salience was still a major constraint. That is, it was found that perfectives of the less salient verb-type were unlikely to be tense-marked; on the contrary, imperfectives with the more salient status were frequently marked.

The third and the fourth groups of linguistic constraints, i.e. the preceding segment and the following segment, were found to put an effect on production of past tense marking of regular non-syllabic verbs (e.g. '/t/' in 'talked' and '/d/' in 'played'). Bayley claimed that the preceding and the following segments influenced the marking rate of regular non-syllabics by his participants as similarly observed in a number of studies on native-speaker dialects of English (e.g. Guy, 1980; Labov, 1989). He also found that regular non-syllabic verbs were more marked when they were preceded by a vowel (e.g. '/a/', '/u/') and less marked if a preceding segment is an obstruent (e.g. '/k/', '/f/'). Furthermore, it was observed that a following pause or a vowel also favored past tense marking than did a following obstruent or liquid (e.g.

'/l/', '/r/'). This linguistic constraint played a role in past tense marking production by both proficiency groups, with the only exception being that the production of the past tense marking of the lower proficiency learners was not significantly influenced by the preceding segment. Thus, Bayley (1991) concluded that the participants expressed the identical pattern of native speakers since the result within this domain was along the line with previous studies on dialects of English by native speakers as earlier discussed.

Within the domain of developmental and social factor groups, it was found that high proficiency learners marked verbs for past tense more often than did the lower proficiency ones. For the social network affiliation effect, it was observed that the informants with regular interactions with native-speakers of English showed past tense marking in their speech more frequently than those rarely interacting with native-speakers but primarily spending time with Chinese speakers. On the impact of the interview type, Bayley unexpectedly found that the informants past-marked verbs more often when interviewed in pair than when done so individually.

Regarding the examination of '/t/' and '/d/' deletion, Bayley (1991) also observed that linguistic factor groups as well as developmental and social factor groups influenced '/t/' and '/d/' absence. It was further observed that '/t/' and '/d/' deletion was constrained by a speech style as the informants displayed a greater degree of '/t/' and '/d/' absence when interviewed than when reading, which is similar to what found in a study on '/t/' and '/d/' deletion by native speakers of English. That is, '/t/' and '/d/' were more likely to be deleted in informal speech than in formal speech. Briefly, '/t/' and '/d/' were less likely to be deleted from monomorphemic clusters than from past tense marking of regular non-syllabics. It seems that Bayley (1991) views '/t/' and '/d/' deletion by his participants as somehow systematic because it was similar to that by English native speakers.

Bayley's (1991) study suggests possible constraints on past tense marking by focusing on the phonological and morphological levels which are on the surface level of derivation. The next study proposes an assumed cause of variability in past tense marking production.

2.3.2 Lardiere (1998)

Lardiere (1998) assumes that the course of morphological development is dissociated with that of syntactic development. This means that variability in L2 production does not necessarily reflect deficiency of syntactic representation of the L2 learners. Lardiere argued for fully acquired syntactic features in her participant's interlanguage grammar. In order to support her claim, Lardiere conducted a longitudinal study on Case and Tense in L2 production by an adult Chinese-speaking learner, called Patty, whose grammar was claimed to have reached a steady state. The data were collected through three audio-tape recordings of Patty's naturalistic speech in conversations with Lardiere. The first recording was held when the subject had been living in the United States for ten years. Eight and a half years later, the second and the third recordings were taped, meaning that at the time of these recordings the subject had been more or less participating in English-speaking environments for almost 19 years.

The results from the three recordings combined indicated highly appropriate case-marking on pronouns as opposed to impoverished past-reference verb marking. Across the three recordings, suppliance of past tense marking by the informant was consistently inappropriate as seen in Table 2 below:

Recording	Suppliance/Contexts	%
1	24/69	34.78
2	191/548	34.85
3	46/136	33.82

Table 2: Past marking in finite past obligatory contexts

(Lardiere, 1998: 16)

Patty showed no progress with reference to her production of past tense marking from the first recording to the third one. Lardiere argued that the impoverished rate of suppliance of past tense marking was most likely to be the result of feature-to-form mapping where difficulties marking a verb for past tense occurred at the surface level, not at the syntactic one. She argued that past tense

marking production by her participant was constrained by "a variety of post-syntactic or extra-syntactic factors, such as phonological transfer from the L1" (p. 21). Lardiere further specified her point on extra-linguistic factors on production of past tense marking by adopting what Bayley (1991) had observed in his variation analysis study also on adult Chinese-speaking learners. That is, Bayley (1991) found that past tense marking production by his participants was influenced by other post-syntactic or extra-syntactic factors than syntactic factors. In Patty's case, then, it was likely that phonological transfer from her L1 put negative effects on her production of past tense marking since neither of her Chinese dialects (Hokkien and Mandarin) allows final consonant clusters. Lardiere, then, assumed that variable production of past tense marking was due to the mapping problem. The assumption made was based on Patty's accurate production of nominative case marking, despite the very poor production of the marking for past tense, as illustrated in Table 3 below:

Recording	Nominative subject pronouns/finite past contexts	%
1	49/49	100
2	378/378	100
3	76/76	100

Table 3: Nominative form chosen as subject of a finite clause

(Lardiere, 1998: 18)

Patty showed accurately invariant use of not only nominative case marking,

but also accusative case marking in finite contexts. The objects, whether direct or

indirect, were correctly marked. Furthermore, it was observed that object case forms

were totally perfect not only in finite contexts, but also non-finite contexts (e.g. *she*

keep asking me to get a concert; … and asked him to go to this place) and also in

'ECM/small clause-type contexts' (e.g. *he make me, uh, spending money; that*

doesn't have anything to do with me leaving home; she didn't … like, let me know)

(p. 18). Because of the perfection of Patty's production of pronominal case marking,

Lardiere suggested that the feature [± finite] is fully specified in Patty's interlanguage

grammar.

Now we turn to another well-known study on variability in production of

past tense marking by adult L2 learners but with a totally different perspective from

Lardiere's (1998).

2.3.3 Hawkins and Liszka (2003)

More recently, Hawkins and Liszka (2003) carried out a cross-sectional study

on past tense marking production by advanced L2 learners from different L1

backgrounds, including Chinese, Japanese, and German. With reference to the

abstract feature [± past], both Japanese and German, but not Chinese, select this

feature to be specified at the Tense category. Thus, the researchers' primary

assumption was that Chinese-speaking learners were more likely to face difficulties

producing past tense forms of verbs in obligatory past contexts since the feature [±

past], is not instantiated in their L1 Chinese. The data were collected via two tasks: a

morphological test and an oral test. For the spontaneous oral test, there were two

tasks where the subjects were required to retell a film and to narrate their own

experience.

The results from the morphological knowledge of past tense marking

suggested that the participants across L1 background groups displayed appropriately

inflected verbs for past tense, regardless of the irregularity and the status

(real/nonce) of a verb, nearly as well as did the native controls in the study.[5]

Therefore, it could be said that the participants had acquired the morphological

knowledge to a certain degree. Furthermore, it was assumed, then, that the learners

were unlikely to face difficulties marking a verb for past tense in their oral

production. In contrast to their performance on the morphology test, Chinese-

speaking learners inflected verbs for past tense in their spontaneous oral production

significantly less frequently than did the other two L1-backgroud groups.

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[5] Nonce verbs refer to invented verbs and their definitions to test the learners' ability to inflect them for past tense (Hawkins and Liszka, 2003: 28).

Therefore, Hawkins and Liszka raised a question against what has been claimed by the mapping between syntax and morphology approach. They argued that if the claim were truely reliable, why only L1 Chinese-speaking learners carried a significant difference between their performance on the morphology test and their spontaneous speech. Then, they examined a possible phonological factor governing the presence/absence of past tense marking by comparing '/t/' and '/d/' absence in regular past tense marking with that in monomorphemic words (e.g. 'most', 'kind'). If the phonological factor had played a major role in production of regular past tense marking, L1 Chinese and L1 Japanese learners should have performed poorly on both monomorpheme and past tense marking since these two L1s do not permit final consonant clusters. The results, however, headed in the opposite direction. While L1 Japanese learners highly supplied past-reference regular verbs, L1 Chinese learners poorly past-marked regular verbs. With regard to t/d absence in monomorphemic words, it was unexpectedly observed that neither Chinese nor Japanese learners had difficulty producing word-final consonant clusters even though

Chinese speakers showed a minimal scale of '/t/' and '/d/' omission in their

monomorphemic words.

Hawkins and Liszka, then, examined one of the possible extra-syntactic

factors, performance pressure, to see whether it influenced the inflecting of past

tense verb forms. In order to test this possibility, they looked at all the learners'

production of regular past participles (e.g. 'be sliced', 'is released') which were as

complex as regular past tense in terms of their surface forms. Thus, they argued that

if performance pressure had been the precise source of uninflected verbs for past

tense in clear past contexts, regular past participles by those three L1 groups should

have been produced similarly (in)accurately to regular past tense marking. This

possibility was invalidated when the results showed that all the L1 groups carried

100% accurate rates of suppliance of regular past participles in their oral production.

What was left to likely be responsible for the lower rate of suppliance of

regular past tense marking by L1 Chinese learners was that, unlike Japanese and

German, Chinese as mentioned does not have the abstract feature [±past] to be

present at Tense category in its grammar. Hence, it was most likely that a lack of

such a feature affected production of regular past tense marking by only Chinese

speakers, since the feature is present in L1 Japanese and L1 German. Furthermore,

Hawkins and Liszka (2003) suggested Takeda's extended version of the "Generalized

Blocking Principle (GBP)" could be used to account for this linguistic behavior of

Chinese speakers (Takeda, 1999; cited in Hawkins and Liszka, 2003: 34). That is, "if a

language has a certain function category in its lexicon, the free application of the

semantic operation that has the same function as that syntactic category is blocked

in that language" (p. 34). Thus, like English, both Japanese and German have the

feature under discussion in their grammars, so the free application of the semantic

operation where past reference is interpreted is blocked in these languages, resulting

in only the past forms being interpreted as past. On the contrary, in Chinese, the free

application of pastness has not been blocked due to the absence of the feature

[±past], so past can be freely interpreted as either past or non-past in Chinese.

This explanation suggested that syntactic representation in the Chinese speakers' grammar is impaired due to a lack of realization of [±past] distinction in the speakers' L1 rather than the mapping problem at the post-syntactic level claimed by the processing problem as discussed in 2.2.2. Hawkins and Liszka (2003) assumed that only the absence of [±past] in Chinese could be regarded as the source of the very low rate of inflected verbs for past tense.

Section 2.3 provides three different studies on L2 production of English past tense marking by adult L2 learners as the present study examines such production by L1 Thai learners. As such, the next section illustrates how pastness is expressed in Thai and English.

2.4. Pastness in Thai and English

This section points out differences in pastness between Thai and English. 2.4.1 and 2.4.2 displays how pastness is expressed in Thai and English, respectively.

2.4.1 Pastness in Thai

Thai is a non-Indo-European language which is closely related to the Indian language (Lekawatana *et al.,* 1968). Iwasaki and Ingkapirom (2005) note three important typological characteristics of Thai. They specify that Thai is firstly a tone, secondly an isolating, and thirdly a classifier language. To illustrate the first characteristic, Thai has five tones: mid, low, falling, high, and rising tones (Higbie and Thinsan, 2003). With the second characteristic, Thai lacks an inflectional system as opposed to English. That is, Thai does not involve inflection in coding grammatical categories, namely gender, number, and tense as do Indo-European languages such as English. As for the third characteristic, different classifiers are used to count different kinds of objects (See Iwasaki and Ingkapirom, 2005; Higbie and Thinsan, 2003).

Tenses in Thai are expressed very differently from those in English. According to Supanvanich (1973), Thai exhibits three basic tenses: Present Tense, Past Tense,

and Future Tense. Only does the Past Tense concern us here, so the other two

tenses are excluded from the study.

The Past Tense can be classified into two main types namely the Past Tense

with aspects (e.g. '**kamlaŋ**' ('be + ing')) and the Past Tense without aspects. The Past

Tense without aspects refers to the completion of actions completed in the past as

follows:

(2)   **Noon duu   tii-wii mɯ̂a   chûamooŋ tîilɛ́ɛw**

Noon   watch   TV   when   hour   ago

'Noon watched TV an hour ago.'

Supanvanich (1973) states that the Past Tense with aspects may be further

categorized into five types: the progressive Past, the simulfactive Past, the

frequentative Past, the simulfactive progressive Past, and the simulfactive

frequentative Past. The progressive Past expresses the continuation of a past action

as in (3a). The simulfactive Past states the simultaneousness of two events or actions

happening at the exact same time in the past (3b). The frequentative Past tells the

readers or listeners about the past events or action that happened repetitively (3c).

The simulfactive progressive Past illustrates two simultaneous activities in the past

that continuatively took place (3d). The simulfactive frequentative Past describes two

simultaneous events in the past that frequently happened (3e).

(3)   a. **chán kamlaŋ   láaŋ   caan   tɔɔn hâamoongyen**

          I   Continuous marker   wash   dish   at   five pm.

          mɨ̂a-waan-níi

          yesterday

          'I was washing dishes at five pm. yesterday.'

    b. **kháw kin pay phûut   pay mɨ̂a-waan-níi**

        he   eat ɡo speak ɡo   yesterday

        'He simultaneously ate and spoke yesterday.'

c. chán khəy piin tônmáay

 I use to climb tree

 'I used to climb a tree.'

d. nɔ́ɔŋ kamlaŋ tham kaan-bân

 younger brother/sister Continuous marker do homework

 lɛ faŋ wít-thá-yú mûakhɯ̂ɯn tɔɔn sìi-thûm

 and listen to radio last night at ten pm.

 'My brother/sister was doing homework

 and listening to a radio at 10 o'clock last night.'

e. kháw khəy kin pay phûut pay samə̌ə

 he use to eat go speak go always

 'He always used to eat and speak.'

In Thai, pastness is expressed through means other than inflected verbs,

namely lexical words and contexts.

In terms of lexical words, the sentences '**Noon duu tii-wii mɯ̂a chûamooŋ tîilɛ́ɛw**' ('Noon watched TV an hour ago.') and '**kháw khəy kin pay phûut pay samǎə**' ('He always used to eat and speak.') are coded as pastness through the adverb '**tîilɛ́ɛw**' (ago), and the experiential aspect '**khəy**' (used to), respectively. Supanvanich (1973) specifies that pastness in Thai can be presented by means of a verb alone, or that combined with a word(s) from other classes or phrases. As illustration, the verb '**cɛ̀ɛk**' (give) in '**thəə cɛ̀ɛk khanǒm dèkdèk**' ('She gave snack to kids.') is interpreted as past without the help of other words or phrases while in '**thəə cɛ̀ɛk khanǒm dèkdèk lɛ́ɛw**' ('She already gave snack to kids.') it is combined with the perfective auxiliary '**lɛ́ɛw**' ('to finish', 'be done').

As for contexts, they also play an important role in encoding tenses in Thai. To regard the sentence '**mɛ̂ɛ cɛ̀ɛk khanǒm dèk**' (A mother gave snack to a kid.) as past is to infer it from the context. In this sentence, there is neither a pre-verbal modal particle '**cà**' ('will') nor a progressive aspect '**kamlaŋ**' ('be + ing') to indicate the future or the progressive tenses, respectively (Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom, 2005).

As for the verb system in Thai, Lekawatana *et al.* (1968) categorize the verb

into seven forms as follows:

(4) a. Verb

   b. **cà** + Verb

   c. Verb + **lέεw**

   d. **kʰəəy** + Verb

   e. **cà** + Verb + **dây** + $\begin{cases} \text{lέεw} \\ \text{time} \end{cases}$

   f. **kamlaŋ** + Verb

   g. **cà** + **kamlaŋ** + Verb

(Lekawatana *et al.*, 1968: 62)

The Thai verb forms from a – g in (4) show that the Thai verb always comes

in its base form despite the different constructions in which it appears. As an

illustration, the verb 'kin' ('eat') will be realized as 'will eat' and 'have eaten' only

when it is modified by the '**cà**' and '**khəy**', respectively. Without these indicators, the

time of the event being described might be vague. However, if the verb 'kin' is

spoken, the listener may observe whether the context of the utterance such as the

reaction of a speaker suggests completion of the verb 'kin.' For the written 'kin', it

may pose a problem to a reader establishing whether the sentence the 'kin' appears

is a past event. Lekawatana *et al.* (1968) make a comparison between Thai and

English verb forms as displayed in Table 4 below:

English-Thai Verb Form Comparison	
English	Thai
1. work	1. verb
2. worked	1. none
3. will work	2. cà + verb
4. have worked (completion)	3. verb + lɛ́ɛw
have worked (habitual)	4. kʰǝǝy + Verb
5. had worked (completion)	3. none
had worked (habitual)	4. none
6. will have worked	5. none
7. I am working (future)	2. none
I am working (continuous)	6. kamlaŋ + Verb
8. I was working	6. none
9. I will be working	7. cà + kamlaŋ + Verb
10. I have been working	1. none
11. had been working	1. none
12. will have been working	5. none
13. would work	2. none
14. would have worked	5. none

Table 4: The comparison of English-Thai verb form

(Lekawatana *et al.*, 1968: 61)

Table 4 emphasizes the extent to which the Thai verb form is different from

the English verb form. As illustrated, there are only seven Thai verb forms that have

their English counterparts: Verb, **cà** + Verb, verb + **lɛ́ɛw, kʰəəy** + Verb, **cà** + Verb +

dây + **lɛ́ɛw**/time, **kamlaŋ** + Verb, and **cà** + **kamlaŋ** + Verb. This difference, hence, is

likely to pose problems to native Thai students learning English as an L2.

The substitution of present tense for past tense has been reported as the

main type of error found within the domain of past tense by native Thai speakers

(e.g. Lekawatana *et al.*, 1968; Noochoochai, 1985). The following ungrammatical

sentences taken from Lekawatana *et al.* (1968) are examples of the substitution of

present tense for past tense:

(5) a. *I am hungry yesterday.

b. *She study here last year.

c. *I don't see him this morning.

d. *After I buy some oranges, I go home.

(Lekawatana *et al.*, 1968: 63)

Although the time indicators are obvious in a – c in (5), the past tense is not realized. In (5d), although the sequence of the event is signaled by the conjunct 'after', the speaker is still unaware of pastness of the event being uttered. Suwattee (1974) also suggests that Thai students might prefer the English base verb form to the inflected form, which is related to the substitution errors observed in Lekawatana *et al.* (1968) and Noochoochai (1985).

To summarize this section, according to Supanvanich (1973), there exist three tenses in Thai: past, present, and future. Pastness in Thai can be interpreted by means of the verb itself, particular words or phrases signaling pastness, and contexts. The Thai verb form can be divided into seven patterns compared to the 14 patterns of the English verb form. The difference in the domain of Thai and English verb form is assumed to trigger errorneous production of the English past tense by native Thai learners.

2.4.2 Pastness in English

English is a Germanic language, one of the languages in the Indo-European language family. A distinct feature of English is probably its inflectional system. That is, a certain word form transforms to another form to code grammatical functions such as number, gender, tense. For instance, the base form of the verb 'go' is altered to 'went' to indicate the Past Simple Tense. There exist two tenses of the English verb: the Present Simple and the Past Simple. Other forms of the English verb are the results of the combination of those two tenses and auxiliaries as 'We've been there before,' with the auxiliary 'have' combined with the past participle of the verb 'be.' Bayley (1991) illustrates the extent to which tense in English is formed:

(6)   a. John *talked* to Mary.

          b. John *was* talking to Mary.

          c. Mary *was* talked to by John.

d. Mary *was* being talked to by John.

e. John *has* talked to Mary.

f. John *had* talked to Mary before he talked to Bill.

g. John *will* have talked to Mary by tomorrow.

Bayley (1991: 10)

From a – d in (6) the past tense is marked: (6a) shows the past tense marking '-ed' on the base form of the verb 'talk' while b – d in (6) does so on the auxiliary 'be'. Tenses in e – f in (6) are marked on the first auxiliary 'have': 'has', 'had', and 'will', respectively.

Tense in English is expressed heavily by means of the inflection of the verb. For pastness in English, it can be signaled by the inflected form of the verb 'talk' as 'talked' in (6a), or by that of the auxiliaries 'be' as 'was' and 'have' as 'had' in (6b) and (6f), respectively.

Bayley (1991) discusses the relationship between tense and the moment of

speaking in English using figures to illustrate his point as follow:

(7)

Moment of
Speaking

← ——— Past ——— Present ——— Future ——— →
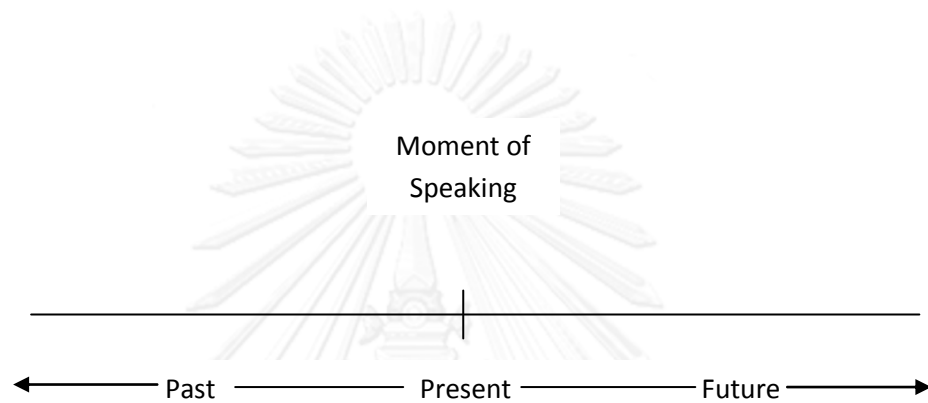
(Bayley, 1991: 10)

If we apply the examples in (6a) 'John talked to Mary.' and (6f) 'John had

talked to Mary before he talked to Bill.' to (7), we will get (8) and (9):

(8)
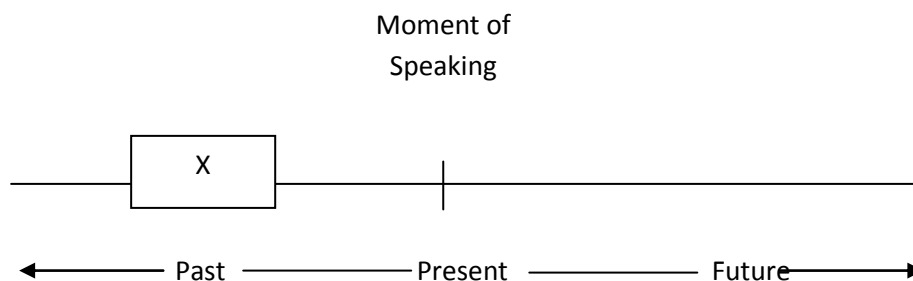
(9)
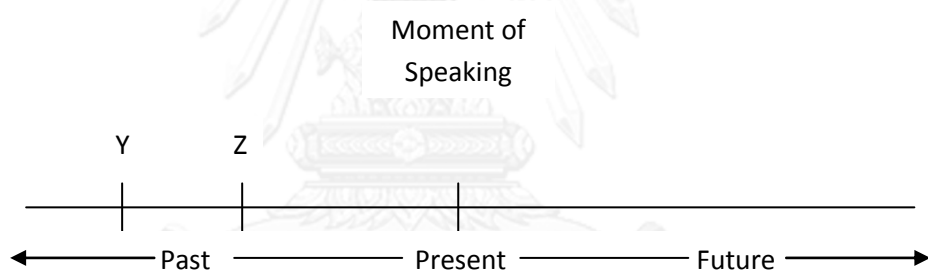
　　　　In (8), X represents 'John talked to Mary,' which is the past time event at a

non-specific time period, but we know that the event already took place and ended

in the past. On the other hand, (9) shows that there are two activities in the past

where their starting points are not simultaneous. Y refers to the event that happened

earlier ('John had talked to Mary') while Z presents the later event ('John talked to

Bill'). Compared to pastness expression in Thai, pastness expression in English seems

to be more complex as different forms of tenses are adopted to express the events

in past time as seen in the examples in (8) and (9) above.

It can thus be seen that transformation of English verb and/or auxiliary is

obligatory in expressing pastness in English.

The following chapter specifies the methodology employed to investigate

variable production of English past tense marking by L1 Thai learners in the present

study.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter comprises three parts. 3.1 presents the information about the participants. 3.2 singles out the research instruments and 3.3 displays data collection.

3.1 Participants

The total number of participants in the study was 40 which was classified into two groups according to the participants' English proficiency levels: intermediate and advanced, by means of the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The participants were freshmen of the Faculties of Arts, Psychology, Science, and Veterinary Science of the academic year 2013 from Chulalongkorn University. All of the participants were native Thai speakers.

Two proficiency groups were selected to compare and contrast production of

the English feature under investigation between the groups. The information about

the participants is summarized in Table 5:

Mean⟍ Proficiency Level	OPT	Age	Length of formal instruction of English (year)
Intermediate	66.10	18.55	14.15
Advanced	79.45	18.65	13.5

Table 5: Information of L1 Thai participants in the study

The average OPT score of the intermediate group was 66.10 while that of the

advanced group was 79.45. The average age of the intermediate group and that of

the advanced group were 18.55 and 18.65, respectively. The average length of formal

instruction of English of the intermediate group was 14.15 years while that of the

advanced group was 13.5 years. (See details of the L1 Thai participants in Appendix

A)

3.2 Instruments

This section presents the research instruments including the representation test, i.e. Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT), presented in (3.2.1) and the Production Tests (3.2.2).

3.2.1 Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT)

The GJT was used to examine the participants' underlying knowledge of the L2 feature under investigation. The total number of test items was 90, consisting of 40 target items and 50 distracters. The target-feature items were divided into two groups in accordance with the regularity of the verb appearing in a sentence: 24 items with regulars and 16 items with irregulars.[6] In relation to sentence grammaticality, the former was equally categorized into 12 grammatical items and 12 ungrammatical items. Each group of the test items was further divided into two

---

[6] The present study excludes phonological aspects of past tense markings (see, for example, Klein *et al.*, 2004; Estela Martinez Jurado, 2005).

types: six items with past time indicators and six items without past time indicators.

Furthermore, each of the two was equally phonetically made up of two items with

the non-syllabic past tense marking '/t/' sound (e.g. 'talked'), two items with the

non-syllabic past tense marking '/d/' sound (e.g. 'played'), and two items with the

syllabic past marking '/ɪd/' sound (e.g. 'wanted').[7]

   As for the second group, the 16 items were composed of the equal eight

items in relation to sentence grammaticality. Each eight-item group was equally

divided into four categories in accordance with the types of the irregulars: two items

with a suppletive irregular, those with a replacive irregular, those with the internal-

vowel-change irregular, and those with the irregular with the change of the vowel

and the final consonant of the base form in its past and past participle forms in

which the final consonant change has to be either '/t/' or '/d/' sound (e.g.

---

[7] Syllabic /ɪd/ sound refers to the past tense marking '-ed' that adds one more syllable to the base form of the
verb ending with '/t/' or '/d/' sounds it is attached to, so the inflected verb 'wanted' composes of two syllables
'/want/' and '/ɪd/.

'sell/sold/sold').[8] This verb-type classification was taken from Tajika (1999: 25). The reason for this classification use is an attempt to cover all kinds of the irregulars.

Additionally, each two-item group comprised one item with a past tense reference and that without the past tense reference.

The criterion of verb selection in the GJT was the sub verb-type. Regular verbs were chosen from their three allomorphs, /t/, /d/, and /ɪd/, which were equal in number. Also, irregular verbs were adopted in relation to the four types of irregulars discussed earlier. Each irregular verb-type was also equal in number.

The participants were asked to examine whether each test-item is grammatical. Each item was arranged as follows:

---

[8] Suppletive irregular is an irregular with completely different past and past participle forms from its base form (e.g., 'go/went/gone'). Replacive irregular is the irregular with the final consonant change in its past and past participle form (e.g., 'make/made/made'). The internal-vowel-change irregular is the regular with the change of a vowel in its past and past participle forms (e.g., 'win/won/won').

(10) _____ 6. His hand <u>knocked</u> against the glass.

Correction _____

(11) _____ 19. Maria <u>made</u> us coffee this morning.

Correction _____

The participant would put a ✓ mark in the blank in front of the item if s/he

considered it grammatical, or a ✗ mark if s/he thought it ungrammatical. In cases

where the participant judged the sentence as ungrammatical, s/he was required to

correct it in a space given at the bottom of each item as in (10) and (11). The

participant had to hand in the test once s/he finished under a condition that s/he

was not supposed to go back to review the previous items.

In terms of the scoring, each item was scored 1 point. Thus, the full score was

90. Every grammatically correct item equaled 1 point, which means that the

participant was either given 1 full point if his/her judgment was correct, or 0 points

on the reverse. The ungrammatical item also scored 1 point. The participant would get 1 full point if s/he judged the item correctly. 0 points were given if the judgment was wrong, and if the judgment was right but without the correction, or with the grammatically inaccurate correction. If the participant rated the ungrammatical item as grammatical, the correction was logically not required. To make it clearer, the criteria were provided as follows:

(12)   1 point for a correct judgment on each grammatically correct item

0 points for an incorrect judgment on each grammatically correct item

1 point for a correct judgment with grammatical correction on each

ungrammatical item

0 points for a correct judgment without correction, or with grammatically

inaccurate correction

0 points for an incorrect judgment on each ungrammatical item

(See the GJT in Appendix B)

3.2.2 Production Tests

This section is organized as follows: 3.2.2.1 discusses the Cloze Test; 3.2.2.2

specifies the Story-telling Test.

3.2.2.1 Cloze Test

The Cloze Test was a 90-item test consisting of 40 target items and 50

distracters. The test was meant to test the participants' ability in producing the L2

feature under consideration. The target items were divided into two groups according

to regularity/irregularity of the verbs. The regular group contained 24 items, and was

equally classified into two 12-item categories in relation to past tense indicators.

Each 12-item category was equally divided into three categories in terms of the past

tense marking sound of the verb, i.e. the non-syllabic '/t/' and '/d/', and syllabic

'/ɪd/'. The irregular group comprised 16 items. It was evenly categorized into two

eight-item groups with respect to past reference. Each eight-item group was equally

categorized into four categories in accordance with the irregular type, i.e. the

suppletive irregular, the replacive irregular, the internal-vowel-change irregular, and

the irregular with the change of the vowel and the final consonant of the base form

in its past and past participle forms in which the final consonant change has to be

either '/t/' or '/d/' sound.

The criterion of verb selection in the Cloze Test was the same as that in the

GJT.

Each tested item carried 1 point. The participants were required to fill in the

blank by using the word given in a parenthesis in its grammatical form as in examples

(13) and (14).

(13)   67. Last night fans _____ (pack) the hall to see the band.

(14)   52. Her parents _____ (die) in a car accident.

It should be noted that even though the phonetic-status difference of the

verb seems irrelevant to the written test, this test was logically done as specified in

order to make it consistent with the GJT (See the Cloze Test in Appendix C).

3.2.2.2 Story-telling Test

The story-telling test was a semi-controlled test used to examine the

participants' production of the target L2-feature orally. The test comprised six frames

of illustration. Each illustration frame was made up of a left-side box of vocabulary.

The vocabulary was arranged vertically. Each box contained the target items but with

different numbers and types. The total number of the vocabulary in this test was 41

with 16 target items and 25 words or phrases. The target items consisted of eight

regulars and eight irregulars.

The criterion of verb selection in the story-telling test was the same as that in

the GJT and the Cloze Test. The regulars as well as the irregulars were not equal in

number in terms of their sub-types due to the nature of the test. That is, it is

complicated to adopt all sub-types of both regular and irregular verbs in the same

number as in the GJT and the Cloze Test.

The participant was given 1 point for a single correctly pronounced verb. For

instance, the participant pronounced the regular 'land' in its past form 'landed'

correctly as '/lændɪd/.' 0 points were given on the reverse. The total score was 16.

(See the story-telling test in Appendix D)

In sum, the reason behind the adoption of the GJT and the story-telling test

is to compare the participants' underlying knowledge with the productive ability on

their underlying knowledge. For the Cloze Test, the reason is to elicit more data in

case where the data from the story-telling test was inadequate. It does not mean

that the data from the Cloze Test is excluded if the story-telling test data is

adequate.

It should be noted that all of the tests were validated by three raters, all of

whom are teachers in the Department of English, the Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn

University, to assure the congruency between the tests and their objectives. The test

validity was valued by means of the method called "Index of Item-Objective

Congruence (IOC)," which was presented by Rovinelli and Hambleton (1977). The

value of IOC of each tested item was > 0.5, which was acceptable in terms of item-

objective congruency according to this index. (See Evaluation of Test Validity in

Appendix E)

The following section is concerned with data collection

3.3 Data Collection

Each test was given to the participants separately and was taken one week apart. The participants were asked to finish GJT and Cloze Test within one hour each. As for Story-telling test, each participant's production was recorded by the researcher via the AudioMemos application on iPad. There was no time constraint on the oral test.

The next chapter reveals the results of the study and discusses the results.

Chapter 4
Results and Discussions

This chapter reports results of the study and provides discussions.

As discussed in section 3.2, there were three tests used to carry out the research: Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT), Cloze Test, and Story-telling Test. The results revealed variability in English past tense marking production of both groups of L1 Thai participants in the three tests. Production of the story-telling test was found to be the most inaccurate for both proficiency groups.[9] Production of English past tense marking in the three tests by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups is summarized in Table 6 and Figure 1.

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[9] It should be noted that the scores of the Story-telling test were calculated from 18 advanced participants and 17 intermediate participants since the participants used some of the targeted verbs as infinitive with, and without 'to.'

Proficiency Level	GJT		Cloze Test		Story-telling	
	Scores	%	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	525/800	65.63	441/800	55.13	60/272	22.06
Advanced	627/800	78.38	547/800	68.38	112/288	38.89

Table 6: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on the three tests
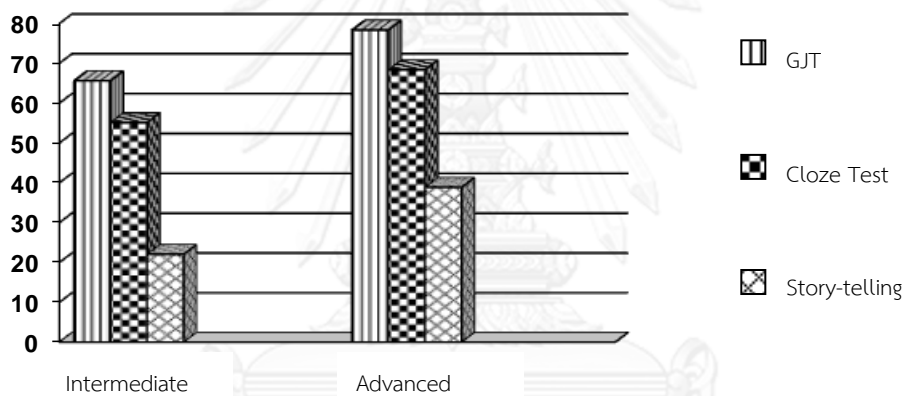
Figure 1: the two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on the three tests

Table 6 and Figure 1 show that both L1 Thai proficiency groups performed

poorly on past tense marking in the three tests. The advanced group performed

better on past tense marking in the three tests compared to the intermediate group.

In the GJT, the rate of accurate suppliance of past tense marking by the intermediate

group equaled 65.63% while that by the advanced group was 78.38%. The

intermediate group showed 55.13% accuracy on production of past tense marking in

the Cloze Test whereas the advanced group displayed 63.38% accuracy. As for the

story-telling test, the rate of accurate suppliance of past tense marking by the

intermediate group, and that by the advanced group were 22.06%, and 38.89%,

respectively.

Considering the GJT in relation to regularity and irregularity of the verbs under

investigation, the two groups performed better with irregular verbs than regular verbs

as shown in Table 7 and Figure 2.[10]

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[10] It is worth noting that rates of correct/incorrect production of different irregular past forms are outside the scope of the study (see, for example, Bayley, 1991 for production of past tense marking with respect to each type of irregular verbs).

Proficiency Level	GJT			
	Regular		Irregular	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	305/480	63.54	220/320	68.75
Advanced	366/480	76.25	261/320	81.56

Table 7: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular and irregular verbs in the GJT
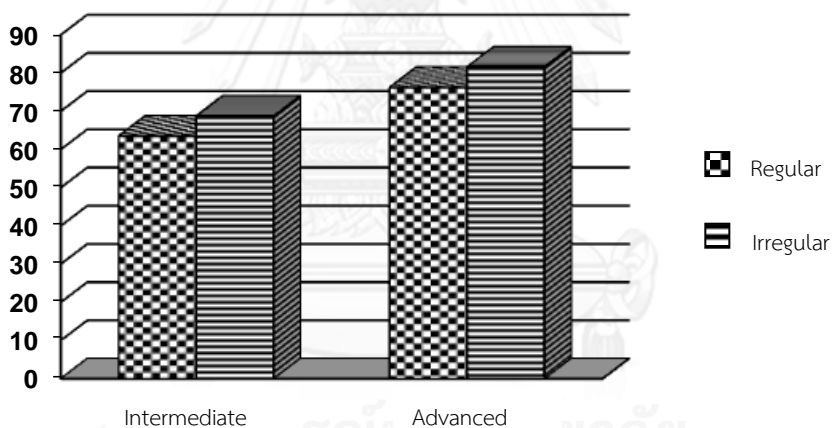
Figure 2: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular and irregular verbs in the GJT

Table 7 and Figure 2 suggest that production of regular past tense marking by

both proficiency groups in the GJT was less appropriate than that of irregular past

tense marking. The advanced group showed a higher level of accuracy on both regular and irregular past tense markings than did the intermediate group. The suppliance rate of regular past tense marking by the intermediate group accounted for 63.54% while the rate by the advanced group equaled 76.25%. With respect to irregularity, the intermediate group appropriately supplied past tense marking at 68.75% while the advanced group accurately inflected past tense marking at 81.56%.

As far as the Cloze Test is concerned, Table 8 and Figure 3 summarize production of past tense marking by the two proficiency groups in terms of regularity and irregularity of the verbs in question.

Proficiency Level	Cloze Test (%)			
	Regular		Irregular	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	259/480	53.96	182/320	56.88
Advanced	331/480	68.96	216/320	67.5

Table 8: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular and irregular verbs in the Cloze Test
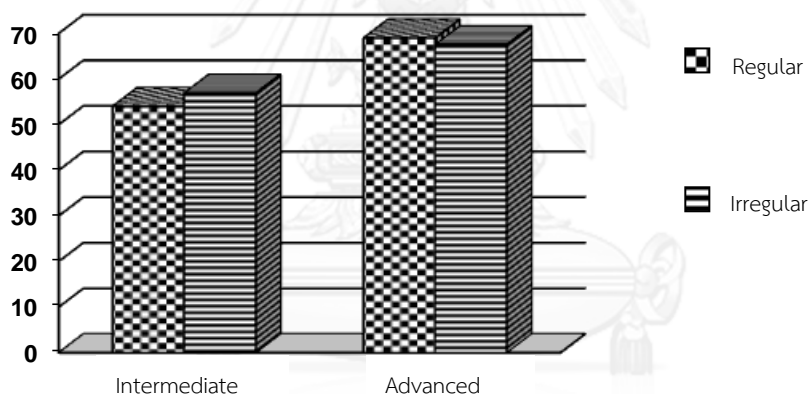
Figure 3: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular and irregular verbs in the Cloze Test

Table 8 and Figure 3 reveal that regular past tense marking was supplied less accurately than irregular past tense marking by the intermediate group. As for the advanced group, regular past tense marking production was slightly better than

irregular past tense marking production. The average rates of suppliance of regular

past tense marking by the intermediate group, and by the advanced group were

53.96%, and 68.96%, respectively. As for irregular verb suppliance, the intermediate

group showed 56.88% accuracy as the advanced group accurately supplied irregular

past tense marking 67.5%. In relation to group performance, the advanced group

displayed a higher rate of accuracy on both regular and irregular verbs under

discussion than did the intermediate group.

As for the story-telling test in terms of regularity and irregularity of the verbs,

it was found that both proficiency groups performed better with irregular past tense

marking as illustrated in Table 9 and Figure 4.

Proficiency Level	Story-telling (%)			
	Regular		Irregular	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	24/136	17.65	36/136	26.45
Advanced	52/144	36.11	60/144	41.67

Table 9: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular and irregular verbs in the story-telling test
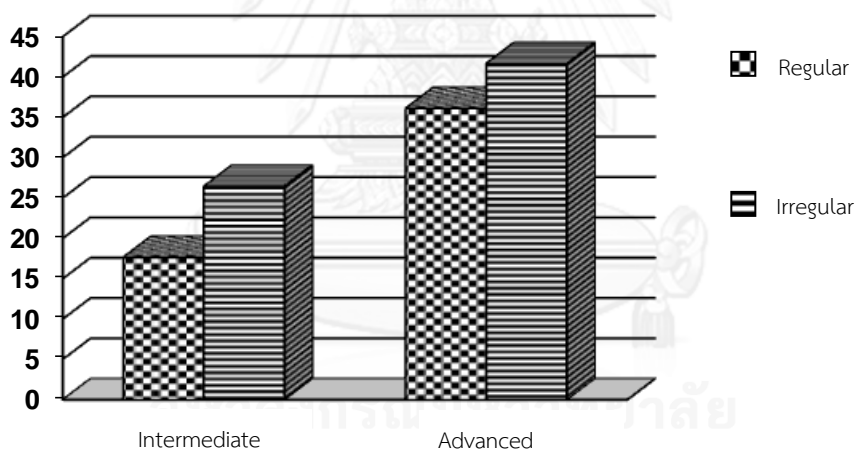
Figure 4: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular and irregular verbs in the story-telling test

Table 9 and Figure 4 indicate that the rate of accurate suppliance of irregular

past tense marking in the story-telling test by both proficiency groups was higher

than that of regular past tense marking. The advanced group performed better on

both regular and irregular past tense markings than did the intermediate group. While

the intermediate group appropriately supplied regular past tense marking 17.65%,

the advanced group inaccurately inflected past tense marking at 36.11%. In terms of

irregular past tense marking, the average rate of suppliance by the intermediate

group equaled 26.45% whereas that by the advanced group reached 41.67%.

Besides regularity and irregularity of the verbs, the presence of adverbial

phrases of time indicating past tense was taken into consideration. Table 10 and

Figure 5 reveal the two proficiency groups' production of regular past tense marking

in GJT in relation to the existence of the adverbial phrases of time.

Proficiency Level	GJT			
	Regular			
	Presence of Adverbial Phrases of Time		Absence of Adverbial Phrases of Time	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	180/240	75	125/240	52.08
Advanced	211/240	87.92	155/240	64.08

Table 10: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular verbs in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the GJT

Figure 5: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular verbs in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the GJT

As displayed in Table 10 and Figure 5, the two L1 Thai proficiency groups supplied regular past tense marking more accurately with the presence of the adverbial phrases of time. In terms of group performance, the advanced group showed a higher rate of accurate suppliance of regular past tense marking with and without the adverbial phrases of time compared to the intermediate group. As the intermediate group appropriately produced regular past tense marking with the presence of the adverbial phrases of time 75%, the advanced group correctly supplied regular past tense marking with the presence of the adverbial phrases of time 87.92% correctly. On production of regular past tense marking with the absence of the adverbial phrases of time, the average rates of suppliance by the intermediate group, and by the advanced group accounted for 52.08%, and 64.08%, respectively.

Table 11 and Figure 6 show the performance of the two L1 Thai proficiency groups on irregular past tense marking in relation to the presence of the adverbial phrases of time.

Proficiency Level	GJT			
	Irregular			
	Presence of Adverbial Phrases of Time		Absence of Adverbial Phrases of Time	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	142/160	88.75	78/160	48.75
Advanced	149/160	93.13	112/160	70

Table 11: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on irregular verbs in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the GJT

Figure 6: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on irregular verbs in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the GJT

Like regular past tense marking, it can be seen from Table 11 and Figure 6 that both proficiency groups performed more accurately on irregular past tense marking in the GJT when the adverbial phrases of time were present. The advanced group supplied irregular past tense marking more accurately than did the intermediate group regardless of the presence of the adverbial phrases of time. In relation to the presence of the adverbial phrases of time, the intermediate group appropriately produced irregular past tense marking 88.75% while the advanced group correctly supplied irregular past tense marking with the presence of the adverbial phrases of time 93.13%. The accurate rate of suppliance of irregular past tense marking without the adverbial phrases of time by the intermediate group fell to 48.75% whereas such rate by the advanced group equaled 70%.

Like in the GJT, the presence of the adverbial phrases of time was also taken into consideration in the Cloze Test. Table 12 and Figure 7 display the scores on regular past tense marking by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups in relation to existence of the adverbial phrases of time.

Proficiency Level	Cloze Test			
	Regular			
	Presence of Adverbial Phrases of Time		Absence of Adverbial Phrases of Time	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	160/240	66.67	99/240	41.25
Advanced	201/240	83.75	130/240	54.17

Table 12: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular verbs in relation to existence of the adverbial phrases of time in the Cloze Test
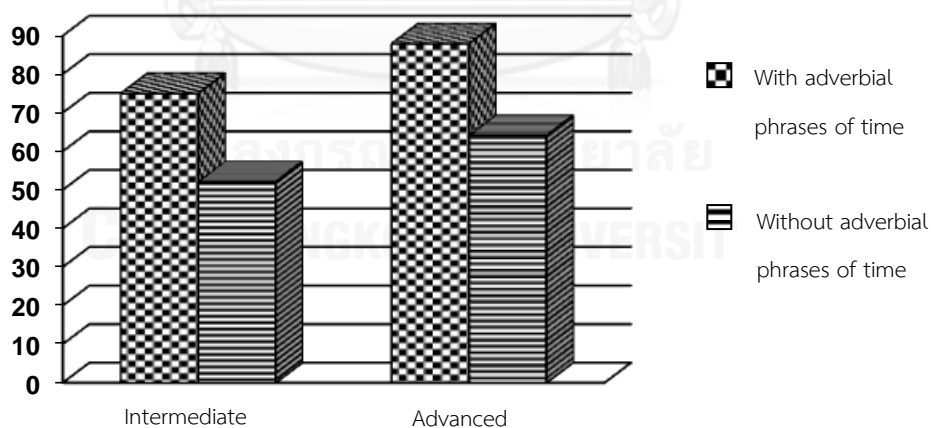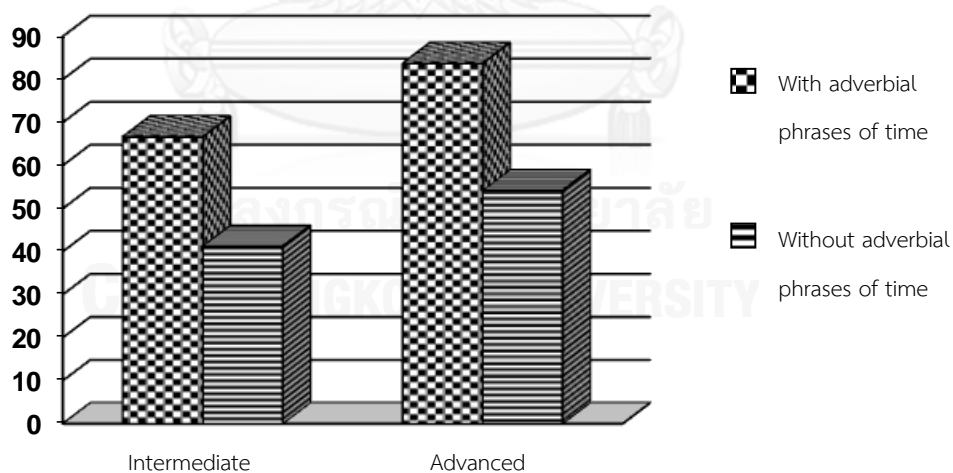

Figure 7: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on regular verbs in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the Cloze Test

From Table 12 and Figure 7, it can be seen that both proficiency groups displayed a higher level of accuracy on regular past tense marking with the presence of the adverbial phrases of time in the Cloze Test. The advanced group performed more accurately than did the intermediate group on regular past tense marking regardless of the presence of adverbs of time. With the presence of the adverbial phrases of time, the intermediate group produced regular past tense marking 66.67% appropriately as the advanced group did so 83.75% accurately. The average rate of suppliance of regular past tense marking without the adverbial phrases of time by the intermediate group accounted for 41.25% whereas the average rate by the advanced group equaled 54.17%.

Table 13 and Figure 8 summarize the two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on irregular past tense marking in the Cloze Test with respect to the existence of the adverbial phrases of time.

Proficiency Level	Cloze Test			
	Irregular			
	Presence of Adverbial Phrases of Time		Absence of Adverbial of Phrases Time	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	108/160	67.5	74/160	46.25
Advanced	125/160	78.13	91/160	56.88

Table 13: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on irregular verbs in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the Cloze Test
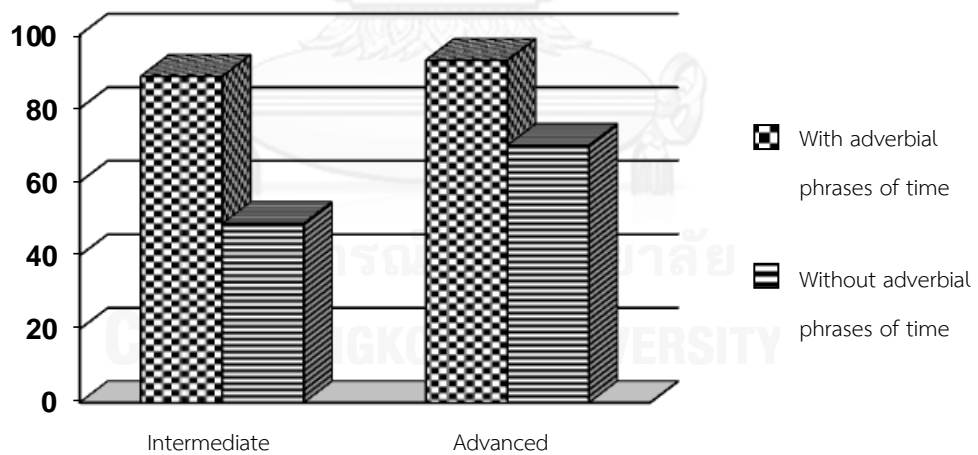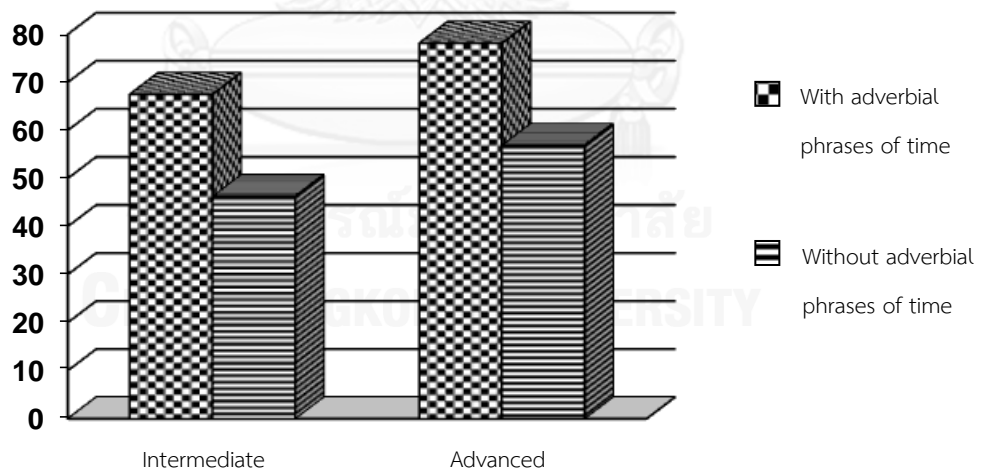

Figure 8: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on irregular verbs in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the Cloze Test

Like regular past tense marking, Table 13 and Figure 8 point out that both proficiency groups showed a higher rate of suppliance of irregular past tense marking with the presence of the adverbial phrases of time. It was found that the advanced group performed more accurately than did the intermediate group regardless of the presence of the adverbial phrases of time. The average rates of suppliance of irregular past tense marking by the intermediate group, and by the advanced group equaled 67.5%, and 78.13%, respectively. With the absence of the adverbial phrases of time, the intermediate group showed 46.25% accuracy on irregular past tense marking whereas the advanced group carried 56.88% accuracy on irregular past tense marking with the absence of the adverbial phrases of time.

As stated in Section 1.2, the aims of the present study were to explore variability in production of English past tense marking by L1 Thai learners and to show that the learners' variable use of English past tense marking is presumably caused by the impaired syntactic representation as suggested by the FFFH rather than the mismatching between the fully-specified syntactic features and their

morphological forms as proposed by the MSIH. To achieve these objectives, two

hypotheses were set. For convenience, the hypotheses presented in Section 1.3 are

repeated below:

Hypothesis 1: Thai learners, regardless of their levels of proficiency will exhibit

variable use of English simple past marking in their production.

Hypothesis 2: The FFFH can account for variable production of English past tense

marking by L1 Thai learners. On the other hand, the MSIH cannot.

In order to test these hypotheses, three tests were carried out by two L1 Thai

proficiency groups: intermediate and advanced. The results indicated that variability

exists in production of English past tense marking by L1 Thai learners participating in

the study. As illustrated in Table 6, the two L1 Thai proficiency groups showed

variable use of English past tense marking in the three tests. Therefore, Hypothesis 1

is supported. The results also suggested that the degree of variability in production

of English past tense marking decreased when a level of English proficiency of the

participants was higher. That is, the participants from the advanced group supplied

English past tense marking more consistently than did those from the intermediate group in the three tests.

According to Hypothesis 2, the MSIH cannot account for the results from the study, but the FFFH can. The MSIH proposes variability in production of functional morphology is a consequence of a processing problem. The processing problem occurs at a morphological level where the L2 learner fails to map a morphological form onto its appropriate syntactic feature. It is claimed that the abstract features are existent in the L2 learners' grammars.

As for the FFFH, it is proposed that variable use of functional morphology by L2 learners is caused by the impaired syntax of the learners. The syntactic features of the target language are not specified in the learners' mental representation. It is claimed that if a certain formal feature is absent from the L2 learners' L1, the feature is unresettable and, hence, problematic to the learners.

With regard to the two L1 Thai proficiency groups' representation and production of past tense marking, the results of the participant's representation on

past tense marking in the GJT, and the production of past tense marking in the Cloze

Test and the story-telling test are illustrated in Table 14.

Proficiency Level	Representation		Production			
	GJT		Cloze Test		Story-telling	
	Scores	%	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	525/800	65.63	441/800	55.13	60/272	22.06
Advanced	627/800	78.38	547/800	68.38	112/288	38.89

Table 14: A comparison between the two L1 Thai proficiency groups' representation of past tense marking in the GJT and production of past tense marking in the Cloze Test and the story-telling test

As seen in Table 14, both proficiency groups showed high rate of inaccurate

judgment of past tense marking in the representation task as well as high rates of

inappropriate performance of past tense marking in the production tasks. According

to the MSIH, production of past tense marking in the GJT should have been highly

accurate since it is claimed that the participants' representation is intact.

Nevertheless, what was found turned to be the reverse. The results suggested that both representation test and production test were performed inaccurately. Particularly, production of past tense marking in the story-telling test was observed to be the worst.

As far as the two types of verbs in question: regular and irregular, are concerned, an asymmetric rate of suppliance between them was observed. It can be seen from Tables 7, 8 and 9 that regular past tense marking production in the three tests by both proficiency groups was less accurate than irregular past tense marking production even though regular past tense marking production of the advanced group was slightly more accurate than irregular past tense marking in the Cloze Test. Yet, if target-like representation had been the case, regular past tense marking and irregular past tense marking should have been produced similarly. The results from Tables 7, 8, and 9 are illustrated in Table 15.

Proficiency level	GJT		Cloze Test		Story-telling	
	Regular	Irregular	Regular	Irregular	Regular	Irregular
Intermediate	63.54	68.75	53.96	56.88	17.65	26.45
Advanced	76.25	81.56	68.96	67.5	36.11	41.67

Table 15: Performance of the two L1 Thai proficiency groups on the three tests in relation to regular and irregular past tense markings

Table 15 suggests that the two L1 Thai proficiency groups seemed to have more difficulty inflecting past tense marker to the regular verbs than to the irregular verbs in the three tests. Although the performance on regular past tense marking in the Cloze Test by the advanced group was better compared to performance on irregular past tense marking, the degree of accuracy difference was very slight: 68.96% versus 67.5%. According to the MSIH, production of both regular past tense marking and that of irregular past tense marking should not have been different. That is to say, the participants should have had difficulty mapping the morphological form onto its syntactic feature regardless of regularity or irregularity status the verb carries. However, the results in Table 15 appeared to be in opposition to the MSIH.

This phenomenon is in line with the results obtained by Bayley (1991), and Hawkins and Liszka (2003). Bayley (1991) observed a higher rate of suppliance of irregular past tense marking compared to regular past tense marking by L1 Chinese speakers. Hawkins and Liszka (2003) found that irregular past tense marking by the L1 Chinese speakers in their study was supplied more frequently compared to regular past tense marking. In a similar vein, the L1 Thai speakers in the present study were also found to past-mark irregular verbs more consistently than regular verbs. So, the MSIH cannot explain this asymmetric rate of production of past tense marking concerning regularity and irregularity.

Hawkins and Liszka (2003) suggested that the L1 Chinese speakers probably treated irregular verbs differently from regular verbs. They observed that the same participant produced the following sentences:

(15)   a. The girl ranned not far away.

         b. You should ran away together.

         c. She could not ran anymore.

                                        (Hawkins and Liszka, 2003: 37)

Hawkins and Liszka (2003: 37) assumed that this participant might treat the

inflected irregular 'ran' as "an independently acquired word form" which was, as

clearly suggested from 15a-c, dissociated from the verb 'run.' However, they did not

label the category in question. Even though the case like this was not frequently

observed in their study, Hawkins and Liszka (2003) assumed that, like English past

participles, irregular verbs are acquired as chunks given the fact that the L1 Chinese

speakers produced past participles and irregular past tense marking more

consistently than regular past tense marking. Moreover, the preference for irregulars

over regulars might be the result of the "transfer of training" (Selinker, 1972). In other words, irregular verbs might be emphasized in class more often than regular verbs.

Last but not least, the results revealed that production of past tense marking by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups was better when the adverbial phrases of time were present. The present study examined if appearance of adverbial phrases of time indicating past tense would play a role in past tense marking production.[11] As seen from Tables 10-13, past tense marking in both the GJT and the Cloze Test was produced more frequently across proficiency groups when the adverbial phrases of time appeared. The participants from both proficiency groups were likely to be more certain about pastness when they could trace the adverbial phrases of time in the tests. As far as the presence of adverbial phrases of time is concerned, rates of suppliance of past tense marking by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups in both the GJT and the Cloze Test are summarized in Table 16 & Figure 9, and Table 17 & Figures 10, consecutively.

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[11] It should be noted that this factor was not included in the semi-controlled story-telling test.

Proficiency Level	GJT			
	Presence of Adverbial Phrases of Time		Absence of Adverbial Phrases of Time	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	322/400	80.5	203/400	50.75
Advanced	360/400	90	267/400	66.75

Table 16: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on past tense marking in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the GJT
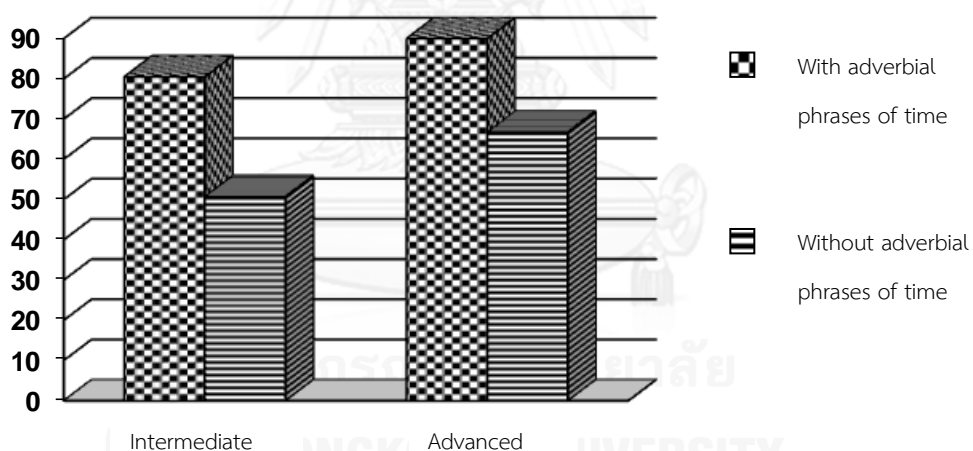
Figure 9: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on past tense marking in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the GJT

Proficiency Level	Cloze Test			
	Presence of Adverbial Phrases of Time		Absence of Adverbial Phrases of Time	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Intermediate	268/400	67	173/400	43.25
Advanced	326/400	81.5	221/400	55.25

Table 17: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on past tense marking in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the Cloze Test
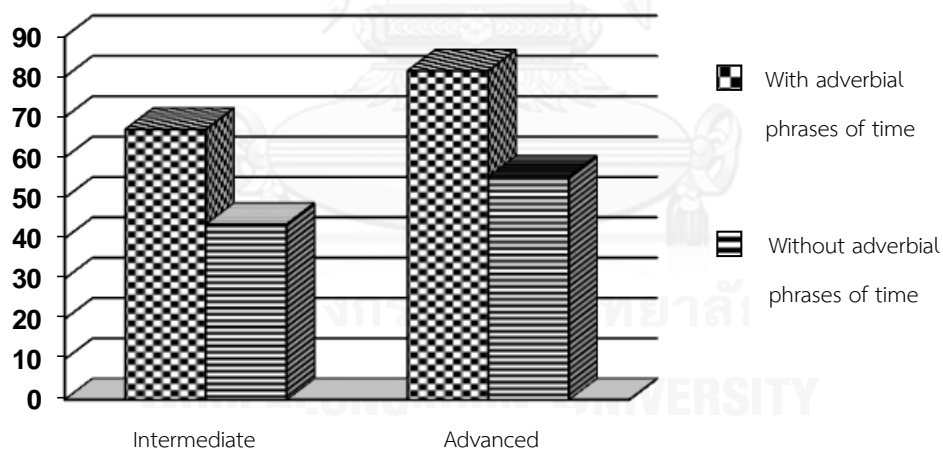
Figure 10: The two L1 Thai proficiency groups' scores on past tense marking in relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time in the Cloze Test

From Table 16 & Figure 9, and Table 17 & Figure 10, it can be seen that the two L1 Thai proficiency groups past-marked the verbs under investigation more frequently when the adverbial phrases of time were present. If the syntactic feature for past tense had been fully specified in the L2 learners' mental representation, then the presence of adverbial phrases of time should not have had any effect on inflecting the verbs for past tense by the participants. The results, nevertheless, was in opposition to the MSIH. The participants from both proficiency groups exhibited a higher rate of suppliance of past tense marking in the two tests: the GJT and the Cloze Test. This phenomenon seems to weaken the ability of the MSIH to account for variable use of past tense marking concerning the presence of the adverbial phrases of time in the two tests by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups.

On the contrary, the data can be accounted for by the FFFH. The results of the study pointed out that the two L1 Thai proficiency groups produced past tense marking inconsistently across tests. According to the FFFH, it is assumed that a syntactic feature for tense [±past] is not present in the L1 Thai participants' mental

representation. The syntactic tense feature [±past] is assumed to be universally

optional (Hawkins and Liszka, 2003). Some languages, like English, select it to be

specified at a Tense (T) category, but others, like Thai, do not. Thus, if the syntactic

tense feature [+past] is specified at finite T, it will be realized by the morphological

feature resulting in inflected verb forms (e.g. was, talked). Furthermore, Hawkins and

Liszka (2003:34) discussed Generalized Blocking Principle (GBP) by Takeda (1999)

stating that "if a language has a certain functional category in its lexicon, the free

application of the semantic operation that has the same function as that syntactic

category is blocked in that language." So if the syntactic tense feature [±past] is not

assigned to T, "the semantic operation which interprets a T-V configuration as past or

non-past can apply freely" (Hawkins and Liszka, 2003:34). English assigns the feature

[±past] to T, so tense interpretation is blocked. That is, if the syntactic feature [+past]

is assigned to T, a finite bare verb 'walk' can only be realized as 'walked.' Thai, on

the contrary, does not specify the feature [±past] on T, so finite bare verbs in Thai

can be interpreted freely, depending on presence of adverbial phrases of time, like

'mนิa-waan-níi' (yesterday), context, etc.

As discussed in section 2.4.1, the Thai language, the participants' L1, lacks inflection for tense. To be precise, the syntactic feature [±past] is not present in the L1 Thai participants' grammar. According to Selinker (1972), the lack of inflection for tense in Thai can result in L1 transfer. That is, when a certain L2 feature has no equivalent in the L2 learners' L1, errors in production of the feature are predicted. In the present study, the two L1 Thai proficiency groups were affected by the non-existence of past tense marking in their L1, resulting in variability in production of the marking. Regarding the FFFH, it is assumed that non-existence of the syntactic feature [±past] in the mental representation of the L1 Thai participants implies that it is possible that the feature cannot be mastered. This helps explain why production of past tense marking by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups were inaccurate in both representation test that is the GJT, and production tests: the Cloze Test and the story-telling test. Based on the FFFH, it is argued that the underlying syntactic feature in the grammar of the participants in the present study is impaired.

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Nevertheless, a question might be raised as to why the two L1 Thai proficiency groups were capable of producing past tense marking to a certain degree if deficiency of the syntactic tense feature had been the precise cause of variability in production of past tense marking. This very question can be answered that the participants might resort to metalinguistic rules and strategies of English obtained from a number of years of their L2 learning. Hence, it is likely that the better performance on an L2 feature by the participants with a higher level of proficiency is observed. The results from the present study help affirm this assumption. As seen from Table 6, the advanced group performed better across the three tests compared to the intermediate group.

Another question concerns different rates of suppliance of regular past tense marking and of irregular past tense marking. Opponents of the FFFH might point out that if the underlying syntactic representation had been deficit, production of regular past tense marking and that of irregular past tense marking should have been at the same rate. As discussed earlier, in answer to this question, it is possible that the

participants treated regular verbs and irregular verbs differently. That is to say, irregulars are assumed to have a different morphological status to the participants. Furthermore, it might be the effect of transfer of training where irregular verbs are more focused on than regular verbs. As discussed in (15), Hawkins and Liszka (2003) found that the same participant treated the verb 'ran' in three utterances not as an inflected form of the verb 'run,' but as another lexical item dissociated from 'run.' The participant doubly inflected the verb 'ran' as 'ranned', and used it as a non-finite verb in 'should ran' and 'could not ran.' Thus, it is possible that 'ran' and 'walked' have different morphological statuses in the participant's grammar. Even though the present study did not observe the same linguistic behavior as Hawkins and Liszka's (2003), it can be viewed as one kind of explanation to the asymmetric rates of suppliance between regular and irregular past tense markings.

Concerning the presence of the adverbial phrases of time, the study found that the two L1 Thai proficiency groups were more certain about past-marking the verbs if the adverbial phrases of time were present as summarized in Tables 18-19

and Figures 10-11. At this point, another question will inevitably be raised. Proponents of the MSIH might argue if the syntactic feature under investigation had been absent from the participants' mental representation, the appearance of the adverbial phrases of time should have had no effect on past-marking the verbs. The answer to this question might be that when the participants witnessed the adverbial phrases of time, they might cognitively link the verb to past tense. Put simply, the presence of adverbial phrases of time helps "set the time frame" (Klein *et al*., 2004: 4). The participants have learnt that adverbial phrases of time are used to indicate tenses in English, and adverbial phrases of time are also available in their L1. Therefore, it is likely that the adverbial phrases of time under discussion, which require no syntactic computations, enhance pastness to be more vivid to the participants. As such, production of past tense marking was more consistent when adverbial phrases of time existed.

In sum, the results of the study revealed that variability in production of past tense marking by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups was observed across the three

tests: the GJT, the Cloze Test, and the story-telling test. Hence, Hypothesis 1 is confirmed. The advanced group exhibited a lower degree of variability in production of past tense marking in the three tests compared to the intermediate group. It is observed that production of past tense marking by the participants in the representation test and the production tests was all inaccurate at high rates. The study also found that regular past tense marking was supplied less frequently than irregular past tense marking across the three tests. In addition, production of past tense marking in the three tests was better when adverbial phrases of time were present. It is argued that the MSIH cannot account for the results of the study, but the FFFH can. Firstly, if the mismatching between the fully-specified syntactic feature [±past] and the morphological feature realizing it had been the cause of variable use of past tense marking, why was the production of past tense marking in the GJT examining the participants' representation as inappropriate as the production test: the Cloze Test and the story-telling test? Secondly, if the MSIH had been the answer, why irregular past tense marking production was better than regular past tense marking production across three tests? Lastly, if variability in production of past tense

marking were due to the mapping problem, why were the two L1 Thai proficiency groups better on past tense marking when the adverbial phrases of time were present? Under the FFFH, these three questions can be answered. As for the first question, the syntactic feature is assumed to be absent from the participants' mental representation. Hence the participants were presumably uncertain about pastness, resulting in similar rates of suppliance of past tense marking in both representation test and production test. Regarding the second question, it is assumed that regular past tense marking and irregular past tense marking were treated differently by the participants. That is, irregular verbs are likely to be learnt as chunks, and might be more focused on in class than regular verbs. Moreover, morphemes of irregular past are assumed to be perceived as other lexical items irrelevant to their base forms. As for the third question, the cognitive factor is involved. It is argued that the existence of the adverbial phrases of time indicating past tense triggered the participants' use of pastness. That is to say, if a single adverb or adverbial phrase of time indicating past tense is present, past tense is assumed to be clearer to the participant, leading to production of the past form. On the other

hand, pastness is probably vague to them if the adverbial phrase of time does not exist, resulting in a higher degree of variability in past tense marking production. The three questions can be accounted for by the FFFH, but not by the MSIH. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

The next chapter concludes the study, provides pedagogical implications, and limitations of the study as well as addresses suggestions for future research.

Chapter 5

Conclusions

This chapter is organized as follows. 5.1 concludes the study. 5.2 presents pedagogical implications. 5.3 states limitations of the study, and 5.4 provides suggestions for future research.

5.1 Implications of the Study

The present study aims at examining variability in production of English past tense marking by L2 learners whose L1 was Thai, and locating the precise cause of the variability. Two hypotheses were set. Hypothesis 1 states that the two L1 Thai proficiency groups will display variable production of English past tense marking. Hypothesis 2 proposes that such production can be accounted for by the FFFH, but not by the MSIH. To complete the study, three tests were elicited: the GJT, the Cloze Test, and the story-telling test.

The objectives of the study were achieved, and the two hypotheses were confirmed. The results showed that the two L1 proficiency groups exhibited variable production of English past tense marking across the three tests. It was found that the participants performed similarly poorly on the three tests, including the representation test: the GJT, and the production tests: the Cloze Test and the story-telling test. Also, asymmetric production of regular past tense marking and irregular past tense marking was observed. In relation to the existence of adverbial phrases of time, the study revealed that the two L1 proficiency groups supplied English past tense marking more consistently when adverbial phrases of time were present. It is claimed that these results cannot be accounted for by the MSIH. Firstly, if the syntactic tense feature [±past] had been present in the participants' grammar, results of past tense marking in the representation test should have been highly accurate. Secondly, if the feature in question had been specified in the participants' mental representation, regular past tense marking and irregular past tense marking should have been produced at the same rate. Lastly, the presence of adverbial phrases of time should not have had any effect on the participants in producing English past

tense marking if the syntactic feature under discussion had been specified at T as proposed by the MSIH.

It is argued that variability in production of English past tense marking by the two L1 Thai proficiency groups in the study is caused by the deficit syntax. That is, the syntactic tense feature [±past] is assumed not to be present in the participants' grammars. The participants' production of English past tense marking is presumably enhanced by metalinguistic rules obtained from their L2 learning as well as some strategies employed by the learners themselves. That is to say, in inflecting the verbs for past tense, the participants might resort to metalinguistic rules. Furthermore, it is argued that regular and irregular verbs are acquired differently. Irregular verbs are assumed to be learned as chunks due to the transfer of training. In addition, it is likely that the participants treat the inflected form of an irregular verb as another verb dissociating from its base form. These assumptions can be used to account for the different rates of suppliance of regular past tense marking and irregular past tense marking. What is mere pastness is presumably clearer to the participants when

adverbial phrases of time indicating past tense appear in the context. Since the

adverbial phrases of time under discussion are associated with past tense, it is likely

that the frame for pastness was set for the L2 learners. As such, the two L1 Thai

proficiency groups past-marked the verbs more frequently when the adverbial

phrases of time were present.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

Pedagogically, since the syntactic feature is assumed to be absent from the

participants' grammar, English teachers should find strategies which are crucial in

enhancing the students' acquisition of past tense marking. It is suggested that the

students be more exposed to natural contexts. The teachers should encourage their

students to have more exposure to communicative use of past tense marking.

5.3 Limitations

Admittedly, the study included L2 learners from only one L1 background that is Thai. The data would be more solid if the present study included the participants from another L1 background which has inflectional system. In addition, the story-telling test was a semi-controlled oral test which might be less convincing compared to spontaneous tests (e.g. oral narratives) adopted by a number of studies (e.g. Bayley, 1991; Ladiere, 1998; Hawkins and Liszka, 2003; among others). The test was designed as discussed for fear that the data might be inadequate. In spite of the limitations, the results of the study provided insightful data which can contribute to further studies on English past tense marking.

5.4 Suggestions

For future research on past tense marking, it is suggested that two different L1 groups be tested, one of which has the past tense inflection and the other of which lacks an inflectional system. In so doing, the data between L1 groups can be

compared, and it might provide a wider picture of the learners' representation and

production of past tense marking. Also, a spontaneous oral test is recommended. As

stated in Section 5.3, the story-telling test was semi-controlled due to data

inadequacy concern. Further studies, then, are suggested to try to employ a

spontaneous test which might yield a more convincing set of data compared to that

of the present study. Additionally, it is recommended that future research examine

phonological aspects of past tense markings as well in order to gain better

understanding of variable production of past tense marking by L2 learners.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Details of the participants

Advanced learners

Participants	Sex	Age	Length of Living in English- speaking countries	Regular Contact with Native English Speakers	Age of English Exposure	Frequency of English Use
A 1	F	20	1 month	yes	Prathom 1	everyday
A 2	F	18	-	-	"	5 times/week
A 3	F	18	-	-	Prathom	3-5 hours/week
A 4	F	18	-	-	Prathom 1	4 days/week
A 5	F	18	1 month	-	Kindergarten	everyday
A 6	F	18	"	-	"	4 hours/week
A 7	M	18	-	-	Prathom 1	often
A 8	M	21	1 month	yes	Kindergarten	often
A 9	F	19	-	-	Kindergarten 1	3 days/week
A 10	F	19	-	-	Kindergarten 2	4 days/week
A 11	F	18	-	-	Kindergarten	3 days/week
A 12	F	18	-	-	"	4 days/week
A 13	F	19	2 months	-	Prathom 1	seldom
A 14	F	19	-	-	"	"
A 15	M	18	-	yes	Prathom	4 times/week
A 16	F	20	-	-	Kindergarten	often
A 17	F	19	10 months	-	"	often
A 18	F	18	-	-	"	seldom
A 19	F	19	1 year	-	Kindergarten 3	often

Participants	Sex	Age	Length of Living in English- speaking countries	Regular Contact with Native English Speakers	Age of English Exposure	Frequency of English Use
A 20	F	18	-	-	Prathom 1	everyday

Intermediate learners

Participants	Sex	Age	Length of Living in English- speaking countries	Regular Contact with Native English Speakers	Age of Exposure	Frequency of English Use
I 1	F	18	-	-	Kindergarten	everyday
I 2	F	18	-	-	Kindergarten 2	seldom
I 3	F	19	10 months	yes	Prathom 1	seldom
I 4	F	18	-	-	Kindergarten	everyday
I 5	F	19	-	-	"	"
I 6	F	18	-	-	"	7 hours/week
I 7	M	18	1 month	-	Prathom 1	Seldom
I 8	M	20	6 months	-	Kindergarten	5 days/week
I 9	M	19	-	-	Prathom 1	4 days/week
I 10	F	18	-	yes	"	everyday
I 11	F	19	2 weeks	-	Kindergarten 3	2 hours/week
I 12	F	18	-	-	"	often
I 13	F	19	-	-	Prathom	seldom
I 14	F	18	-	-	"	seldom
I 15	F	19	-	-	Kindergarten 3	3 hours/week
I 16	F	18	-	-	Kindergarten	seldom
I 17	F	18	-	-	"	9 hours/week
I 18	M	19	9 weeks	-	Prathom	often
I 19	M	19	1 month	yes	Kindergarten	"
I 20	F	19	-	-	Prathom	seldom

Appendix B: Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT)

List of grammatically correct sentences in the GJT

3. She <u>deleted</u> all of the files in her laptop this morning.

6. His hand <u>knocked</u> against the glass.

10. The Conservatives <u>won</u> the seat from Labor in the last selection.

19. Maria <u>made</u> us coffee this morning.

22. Yesterday Jim <u>told</u> us all about the accident.

26. The two clerks <u>blamed</u> themselves for the mistake.

27. John <u>stopped</u> working some time ago.

40. She <u>bent</u> forward to pick up the newspaper.

36. She <u>wasted</u> no time in rejecting the offer.

37. Last holiday, we <u>traveled</u> all over Europe by bus.

30. Last night I <u>saw</u> a stranger walking around Mr. Smith's house.

46. They <u>called</u> Peter a fool.

48. In 1994, America <u>assumed</u> her role as a world power.

49. She <u>brought</u> her boyfriend to the party.

51. He <u>washed</u> the car after having it fixed.

53. Amanda <u>laughed</u> aloud at a random comedy show last night.

84. Jenny <u>threw</u> back her head bursting into laughter.

69. My father <u>planted</u> a flower in the back yard yesterday.

58. His death <u>came</u> as a terrible shock to us.

60. I already <u>added</u> your name to the list.

List of ungrammatical sentences in the GJT

4. Troops invade on August 9th that year.

9. The jacket sitting beautifully on her shoulders.

13. A few minutes ago, Pippa shouting at her boyfriend with anger.

14. I repeating the question for her to expand.

16. Last year her parents pay for her to go to Canada

18. She arrive at 4.25 pm. precisely.

24. He borrowing $2000 from her parents.

29. I hearing footsteps behind me.

32. I already book the tickets for all of us.

41. Lucy slip over the ice this morning.

44. It rain hard yesterday.

55. John F. Kennedy serving in the U.S. Senate from 1953 until 1960.

57. He beginning his political career as a student.

61. My grandmother passing away last night.

63. She sleep soundly at her sister's apartment last night.

66. She punching him on the nose.

73. A few minutes ago I impatiently dig around in my bag for a pen.

76. The plane land safely.

80. I give a lot of thought to the matter at the meeting yesterday.

88. David building us a shed in the back yard.

Appendix C: Cloze Test
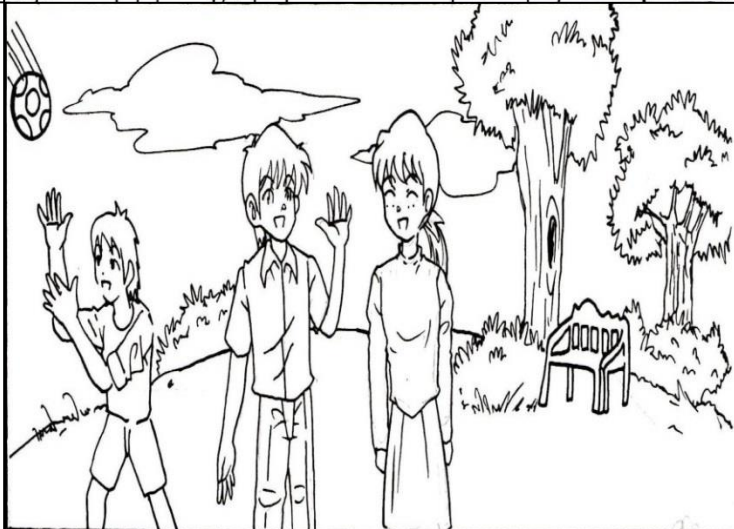
<u>List of test items in the Cloze Test</u>

2. The nurse _____ (stick) the needle into my arm.

6. We _____ (collect) samples from over 200 local people.

9. My mother _____ (bake) some cake for us this morning.

10. Sadly, a few birds _____ (survive) the severe winter.

15. I _____ (drive) to work today.

17. They _____ (cross) the finishing line together.

19. I can drive because my father _____ (teach) me well.

21. Yesterday we _____ (talk) with the principal about the school policies.

23. Emma _____ (grow) up in urban area.

26. He _____ (defeat) the champion in three sets.

27. In 1994, Germany _____ (declare) war on France.

29. Jacob accidentally _____ (meet) his old friend at a flea market yesterday.

32. My Math teacher _____ (assign) me too many tasks.

35. Her husband just _____ (arrive) last night.

36. She unintentionally _____ (step) on his toes.

39. The other night I _____ (spend) most of my time chatting with my big brother.

40. They _____ (end) the play with a song.

43. Alex _____ (sell) me his watch for $100 last June.

46. Pete accidentally _____ (crash) his car into a wall a couple days ago.

48. She _____ (send) the letter to her parents by airmail.

49. His lawyer _____ (defend) him quite well in a court today.

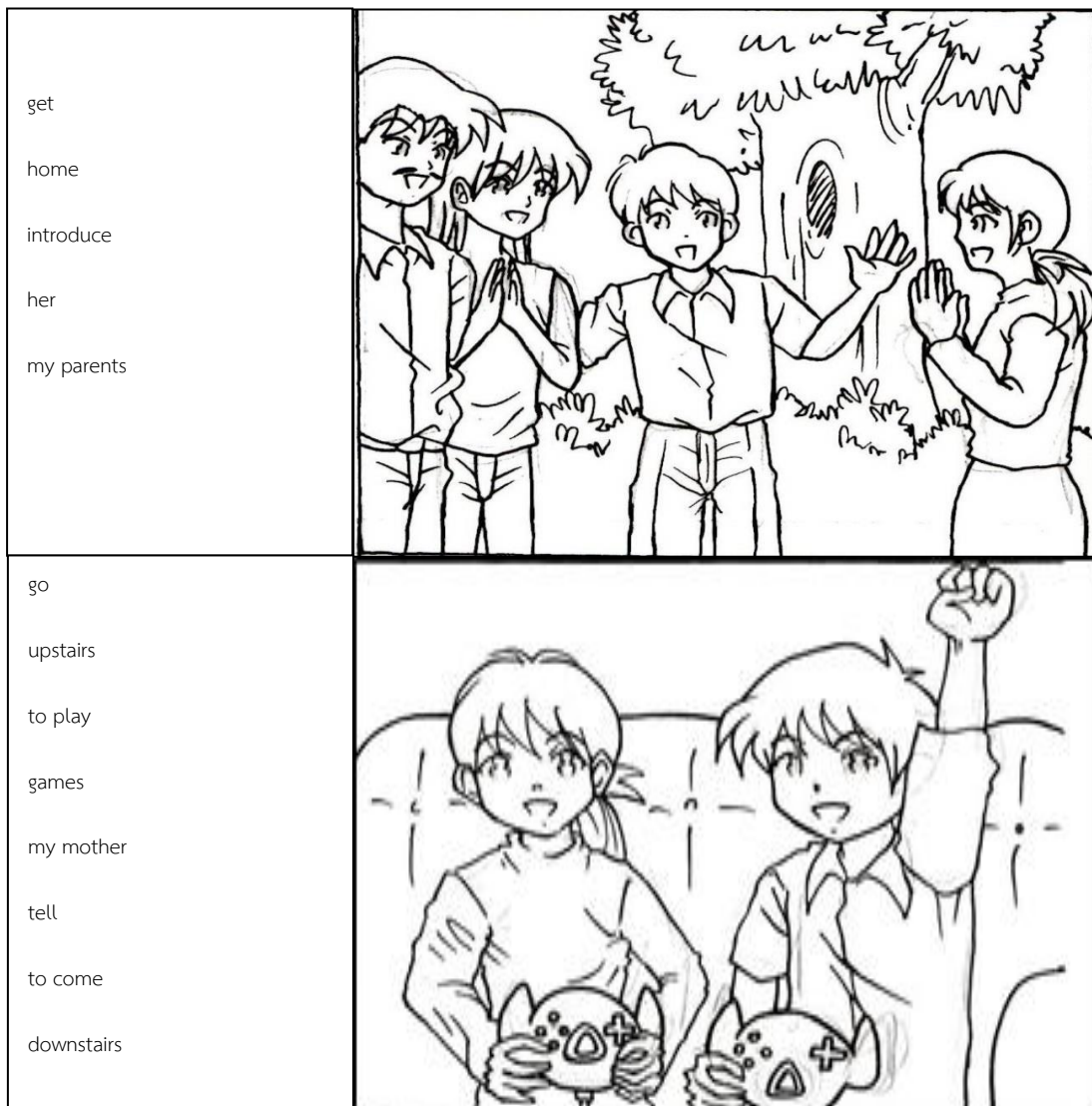52. Her parents _____ (die) in a car accident.

54. Last weekend we _____ (rent) a car to travel to San Francisco.

57. They _____ (play) my favorite song on the radio the other day.

59. Peter _____ (wash) his car after a long road trip.

61. She bravely _____ (hold) back her tears.

63. Professor Dylan _____ (board) the plane a few minutes ago.

65. She _____ (unpack) her bags before taking a shower.

67. Last night fans _____ (pack) the hall to see the band.

68. I completely _____ (forget) what to buy for my mother.

70. I _____ (spot) the mistake in my paper just now.

73. She _____ (decide) to leave France and now she lives in London.

75. My friend _____ (make) a funny face in front of the whole class a few seconds

77. I _____ (order) brand-new gloves from an online-store the day before yesterday.

80. He _____ (shoot) himself during a fit of depression last week.

82. She _____ (fall) over the stairs two days ago because of the darkness.

84. He _____ (tell) his wife about his work and so his wife is feeling upset.

86. He _____ (fill) himself with beer.

87. My younger brother and I _____ (seek) in vain for our old DVD this morning.

ago.

90. Tina _____ (pay) the bill by herself.
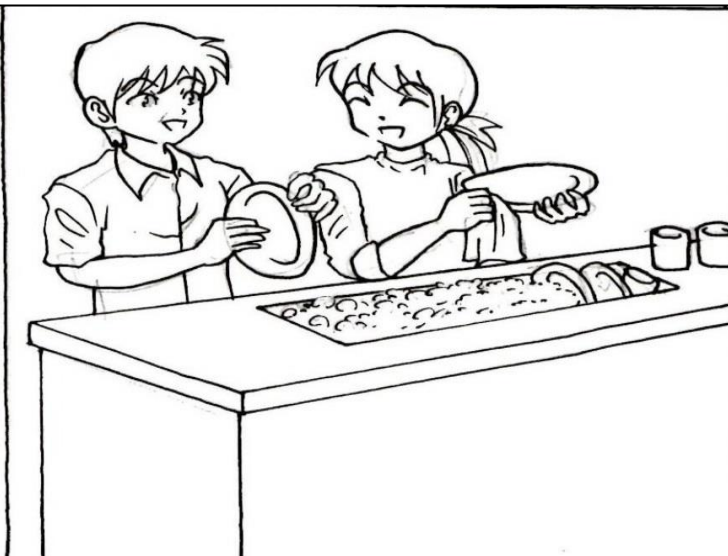
Appendix D: Story-telling Test

Six illustration frames in the story-telling test

Situation: Yesterday, while I was walking at the market, I accidentally ...

meet old friend greet invite to have dinner my family	
decide to come talk laugh a lot of things the park walk my house	

| get

home

introduce

her

my parents | |
| go

upstairs

to play

games

my mother

tell

to come

downstairs | |

have dinner help my mother wash dishes	
spend time watch TV talk say goodbye leave	

Appendix E: Evaluation of Test Validity

Test Item	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	IOC
27	+1	+1	+1	1.00
53	+1	+1	+1	1.00
41	+1	+1	+1	1.00
61	+1	+1	+1	1.00
48	+1	+1	+1	1.00
37	+1	0	+1	0.83
44	+1	+1	+1	1.00
55	+1	0	+1	0.83
69	+1	+1	+1	1.00
3	+1	+1	+1	1.00
4	+1	+1	+1	1.00
13	+1	+1	+1	1.00
51	+1	+1	+1	1.00
6	+1	+1	+1	1.00
32	+1	+1	+1	1.00
66	+1	+1	+1	1.00
46	+1	+1	+1	1.00
26	+1	+1	+1	1.00
18	+1	+1	+1	1.00
24	+1	+1	+1	1.00
60	0	+1	+1	0.83
36	+1	+1	+1	1.00

Test Item	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	IOC
76	+1	+1	+1	1.00
14	+1	+1	+1	1.00
30	+1	+1	+1	1.00
80	+1	+1	+1	1.00
22	+1	+1	+1	1.00
63	+1	+1	+1	1.00
10	+1	+1	+1	1.00
73	+1	+1	+1	1.00
19	+1	+1	+1	1.00
16	+1	+1	+1	1.00
84	+1	+1	+1	1.00
57	+1	+1	+1	1.00
49	+1	+1	+1	1.00
29	+1	+1	+1	1.00
58	+1	+1	+1	1.00
9	0	+1	+1	0.83
40	+1	+1	+1	1.00
88	0	+1	+1	0.83

Validity of Cloze Test

Test Item	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	IOC
21	+1	+1	+1	1.00
9	0	+1	+1	0.83
47	+1	+1	+1	1.00
68	+1	+1	+1	1.00
58	+1	+1	+1	1.00
34	+1	0	+1	0.83
36	+1	+1	+1	1.00
77	+1	0	+1	0.83
64	+1	+1	+1	1.00
49	0	+1	+1	0.83
55	+1	+1	+1	1.00
70	+1	+1	+1	1.00
17	-1	+1	+1	0.67
66	0	+1	+1	0.83
60	0	+1	+1	0.83
30	+1	+1	+1	1.00
87	0	0	+1	0.67
12	+1	+1	+1	1.00
32	0	+1	+1	0.83
53	+1	+1	+1	1.00
73	+1	+1	+1	1.00
41	0	+1	+1	0.83

Test Item	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	IOC
6	-1	+1	+1	0.67
26	+1	+1	+1	1.00
83	+1	+1	+1	1.00
15	-1	+1	+1	0.67
87	+1	+1	+1	1.00
44	+1	+1	+1	1.00
28	+1	+1	+1	1.00
81	+1	+1	+1	1.00
39	+1	+1	+1	1.00
75	+1	+1	+1	1.00
23	0	+1	+1	0.83
79	-1	+1	+1	0.67
19	+1	+1	+1	1.00
85	+1	0	+1	0.83
62	0	+1	+1	0.83
3	0	+1	+1	0.83
51	0	0	+1	0.67
90	0	+1	+1	0.83

VITA

My name is Montira Khumdee. I graduated with a bachelor's degree from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Mahasarakham University. Currently, I am a graduate student in the Department of English, Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn Univeristy. My academic areas of interest include second language acquisition and interlanguage analysis.