

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: NOUN MODIFIERS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This research study starts with an assumption that standard English used by Thai users in Thailand may have some certain characteristics that reflect Thainess. Even though the status of English in Thailand is set only as a foreign language, almost all Thai people perceive its importance as a more special language than its so-called status. As a result, standard English is widely learnt and used by Thai people in Thailand. Thai competent users of standard English base the use of English on some native varieties' grammar, however, some deviations can be observed.

Noun modifiers are a common unit in both Thai and English languages. their function is to provide further information to the noun that it modifies. There is no limit for the number of modifiers used with one head noun. This means the users can use as many modifiers as they like to describe a head noun. In the English language, modifiers can occur before or after the noun which they modify. So, they are called premodifiers and postmodifiers accordingly. Premodifiers are normally in forms of words, i.e. adjectives, nouns, and so on and postmodifiers are in forms of longer units like phrases and clauses. The main difference in noun modification systems between English and Thai is that, in Thai, there is no use of premodifiers. So, in the Thai language, the noun modifying units, no matter whether they are words, phrases, or clauses, are always placed after the noun that they modify. Although the Thai language does not have noun premodifiers, it does not cause any serious problem for Thai competent users to use the English language.

From several studies done on Thai English and experience in observation on the use of Thai English in several written media, it is hypothesized in this study that noun modifiers may be used more often by Thai writers than by British writers. The study aims to prove this point and identify whether the point is significant enough to be claimed as a distinctive characteristic of Thai English.

This chapter presents findings from the analysis of noun modifiers used by Thai writers and British writers. The topics of discussion are divided into 4 main sections. The first section involves the overall preference for the use of noun

modifiers in Thai English and British English. The second and the third sections present the information on the use of premodifiers and postmodifiers respectively. And last, the conclusion is provided.

## 4.2 Noun modifiers in Thai English and British English

With an attempt to find out whether noun modifiers are used differently in Thai English and British English, this study initially compares the frequencies of modifiers used in Thai English articles (TEA) and British English articles (BEA) as a whole. Before getting into details on the use of particular types of noun modifiers, this section shows the overall picture of the use of noun modifiers by Thai and British writers.

In this part, the frequency count of modifiers is separated into two groups: the total modifiers (closed-system modifiers together with open-system modifiers) and only the open-system modifiers (see Chapter II, pp. 22-26). From these two groups, it can be further observed whether there is any difference in the use of modifiers when it includes grammatical modifiers (closed-system modifiers) and when it has only those freely-used modifiers (open-system modifiers).

The following table illustrates details of the general preference for the use of noun modifiers by Thai and British writers.

**Table 4.1** Proportion of noun modifiers per head noun in TEA and BEA

	TEA		BEA	
		Modifier/head		Modifier/head
<b>Total Head Nouns</b>	2027		2632	
<b>Total Modifiers</b>	3330	<i>1.64</i>	3231	<i>1.23</i>
<b>Open-system Modifiers only</b>	1561	<i>0.77</i>	1661	<i>0.63</i>

For the analysis of noun modifiers, a total of 2027 prominent head nouns were identified from Thai English corpus; and a total of 2632 prominent head nouns from British English corpus. A total number of modifiers, including closed-system modifiers, gathered from TEA and BEA are 3330 and 3231 respectively; and a total

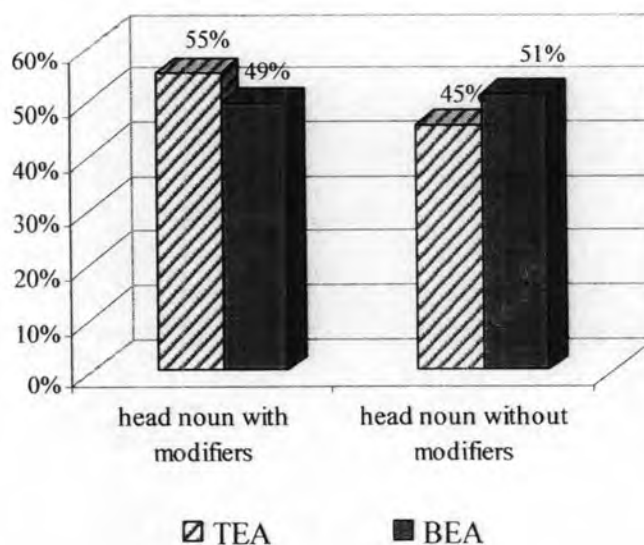
number of open-system modifiers, excluding closed-system modifiers, found from TEA and BEA are 1561 and 1661 respectively. For the sake of comparison, the proportions of modifiers per one head noun are computed. Then for TEA, it obtains a proportion of 1.64 for total modifiers per head noun and 0.77 for open-system modifiers per head noun. And for BEA, it makes a proportion of 1.23 for total modifiers per head noun and 0.63 for open-system modifiers per head noun.

The proportions of modifiers per head noun indicate that TEA contains more modifiers than BEA does for both groups of modifiers. For the first group, the proportions, 1.64 for TEA and 1.23 for BEA, make a difference of 0.41. Thus, it can be interpreted that the overall modifiers tend to be used 41% more often in TEA than in BEA. The findings go in the same way for the open-system modifiers. The proportions, 0.77 for TEA and 0.63 for BEA, make a difference of 0.14. Hence, it can be interpreted that the open-system modifiers occur 14% more often in TEA than in BEA.

Since the study is based on the assumption that Thai writers may provide more information to the head noun than British writers do, the analysis in the next step would be focused only on the occurrence of those open-system modifiers. This is because those closed-system modifiers do not really serve this purpose. They are added to the head noun for grammatical reasons with limited meanings. Thus, from this point forward, when the term 'modifiers' is used, it means only those open-system modifiers.

In the English language, it is possible for head nouns to take or not to take any modifiers. Therefore, two main categories of head nouns can be considered: the head noun with modifiers and the head noun without modifiers. The following figure illustrates the occurrence of these two categories gathered from Thai English articles and British English articles.

**Figure 4.1** The occurrence of head nouns with and without modifiers in TEA and BEA



From figure 4.1, it can be seen that the preference for the use of head nouns with and without modifiers in TEA is noticeably different. The use of head nouns with modifiers is approximately 10% higher than the use of head nouns without modifiers. Meanwhile, the preference for the two categories in BEA seems to be slightly different, head nouns without modifiers occur only about 2% higher than head nouns with modifiers.

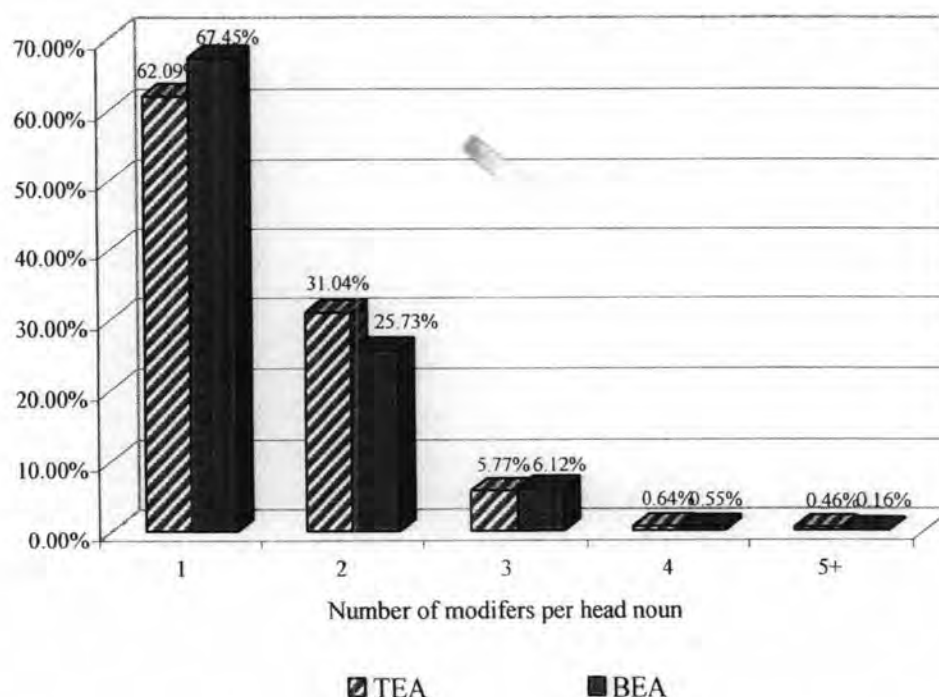
In comparison between the two groups of writers, it can be interpreted that Thai writers prefer to add modifiers to head nouns rather than British writers do (6% higher in TEA than in BEA). Contrastively, it can be seen that British writers' preference for the use of head nouns without modifiers is higher than Thai writers' preference (6% higher in BEA than in TEA).

It can be assumed from these findings that the more use of modifiers in TEA may result from the preference to add modifiers to head nouns. Since Thai writers highly prefer to have the head noun with some modifiers, it is quite obvious that the number of modifiers in TEA would be higher than that in BEA.

However, since there is no such limitation for the number of modifiers per one head noun, the higher number of head nouns that take modifiers may not be the only interesting point. The number of modifiers attached to one head noun also has an important role in giving explanation of how modifiers are used more in TEA.

Figure 4.2 below compares the distribution of modifiers towards all of the head nouns that take modifiers between TEA and BEA.

**Figure 4.2** Distribution of modifiers towards head nouns



The distributions of noun modifiers towards head nouns in both TEA and BEA, in general, display the same pattern. The first group, head nouns with one modifier, possesses the highest percentage among all other groups. The distribution reduces continuously from the first to the last group (the group of head nouns that have five or more modifiers). The findings exhibit that the use of one modifier per head noun is precisely the most common choice in both TEA and BEA. Head nouns with two modifiers are the second most common type that frequently appears in TEA and BEA. In comparison with the first two groups, head nouns with three modifiers are a little bit uncommon; but it can occasionally occur. Then, the last two groups – head noun with four modifiers and head noun with five or more modifiers – are merely uncommon: they rarely appear in both TEA and BEA. From the observation of this study, the highest number of modifiers per head noun is six and it appears only once in TEA. Thus, it may be interpreted from the findings that, in both TEA and BEA, the common number of modifiers attached to a head noun is up to 2, while 3 is

still possibly observable. Too many modifiers per one head noun is not quite preferable in both TEA and BEA.

According to the comparison between TEA and BEA for each group of noun modifier, group 1 and group 2 show big differences in their proportions. British writers' preference for the use of one modifier per head noun is higher than Thai writers'. In contrast, Thai writers favour the use of two modifiers per head noun more than British writers do. The differences for the preferences of Thai and British writers for three, four, and five and more modifiers per head noun seem to be not distinctively different. Thus, they may not really be a major influence on the differences in the number of modifiers used in TEA and BEA.

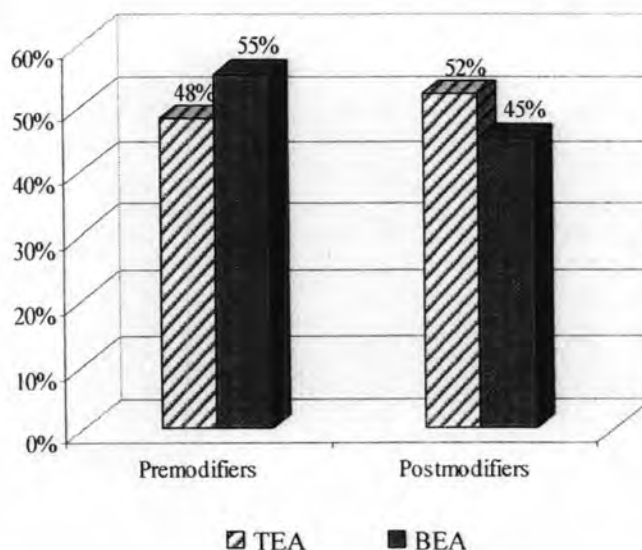
Figure 4.2 illustrates that the use of one modifier per head noun is about 5 percent higher in BEA than in TEA. This means, with 100 head nouns, BEA should contain 5 more modifiers than TEA does. For the second group, the figure shows that the use of two modifiers per one head noun is about 5 percent higher in TEA than in BEA. This difference can be interpreted that with 100 head nouns, Thai writers may use 10 more modifiers than British writers do. According to this, the use of two noun modifiers with one head noun should be claimed as a major source of higher occurrence of modifiers in TEA.

Apart from the information on distribution, positions of noun modifiers towards head nouns – premodifiers and postmodifiers – are another point of concern. The following table and figure show the proportion of premodifiers and postmodifiers used in TEA and BEA.

**Table 4.2** Proportion of premodifiers and postmodifiers in TEA and BEA

Type	TEA		BEA	
Premodifiers	748	(48%)	909	(55%)
Postmodifiers	813	(52%)	752	(45%)
<b>Total</b>	1561	(100%)	1661	(100%)

**Figure 4.3** Proportion of premodifiers and postmodifiers in TEA and BEA



In TEA, the total number of all modifiers is 1561, with 748 premodifiers and 813 postmodifiers. In BEA, the total number of all modifiers is 1661, with 909 premodifiers and 752 postmodifiers. By comparing the proportion of each main type of modifiers, in TEA, premodifiers gain 48% of all modifiers and postmodifiers gain 52% of all modifiers. In BEA, premodifiers gain 55% of all modifiers and postmodifiers gain 45% of all modifiers.

Therefore, it is found from TEA that postmodifiers occur more often than premodifiers, which means the preference for the use of postmodifiers is higher than that of premodifiers. Contrastively, it is found from BEA that premodifiers occur more often than postmodifiers, which means the preference for the use of premodifiers is higher than that of postmodifiers. Thus, it can be quickly concluded that the general preferences for premodifiers and postmodifiers of Thai and British writers are dissimilar.

In the next sections, elaborated information for each particular type of noun modifier is presented. The results of frequency comparison between articles from Thai and British English magazines should be exhibited. Then, the significant types of modifiers are stated and further explored for the knowledge of their use and construction.

### 4.3 Premodifiers

Noun premodifiers are those units that are added in front of a noun which they modify. General premodifiers in English are in forms of a single word of different word classes. In this study, the categories of single word as premodifiers comprise adjectives, noun adjuncts (shortly refer to as nouns in this study), nouns with -'s genitive (shortly refer to as -'s genitive in this study), and others<sup>1</sup>.

In addition, the observation shows that phrases such as noun phrases and adjective phrases can also function as premodifiers. However, in comparison with the above categories, their occurrences are relatively rare. Thus, for the sake of counting and comparison, the phrases as premodifiers are put together in the same category.

Table 4.3 below shows the findings on the frequency of occurrence for each type of premodifiers and their proportions in percentages in TEA and BEA together with the results from the comparison between the two corpora ( $\chi^2$ ).

**Table 4.3** Overall findings and comparison results of premodifiers between TEA and BEA

Types	TEA		BEA		Et	Eb	$\chi^2$	
	HN = 2027 f	%	HN = 2632 f	%				
<b>Words</b>	adjective	556	74.33	617	67.88	509.90	662.10	7.07 *
	noun	144	19.25	197	21.67	148.36	192.64	0.18
	-'s genitive	34	4.55	60	6.60	40.90	53.10	1.77
	others <sup>1</sup>	0	0.00	1	0.01	0.44	0.56	0.02
<b>Total</b>	<b>734</b>		<b>875</b>		<b>699.6</b>	<b>908.4</b>	<b>2.83</b>	
<b>Phrases</b>	phrases	14	1.87	34	3.74	21.32	27.68	3.45
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>		<b>34</b>		<b>21.32</b>	<b>27.68</b>	<b>3.45</b>	
<b>Premodifiers</b>	<b>748</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>909</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>720.9</b>	<b>936.1</b>	<b>1.74</b>	

$p < 0.05$

HN = Total number of head nouns      f = frequency of occurrence

Et = expected frequency of occurrence in Thai English articles

Eb = expected frequency of occurrence in British English articles

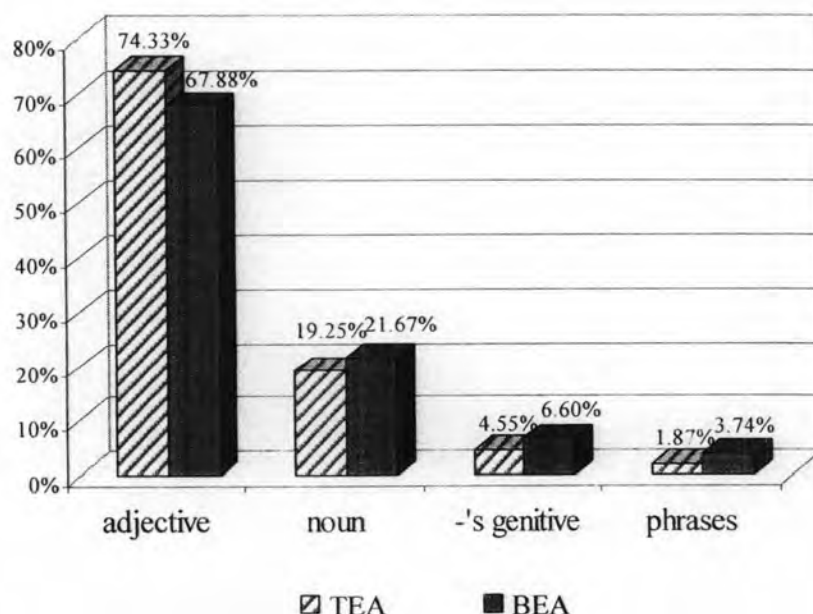
$\chi^2$  = chi square value

\* = significant at  $p < 0.05$ , cut off point  $\chi^2 = 3.84$



Before discussing the statistical results from the comparison, the general preference for each type of premodifiers of Thai writers and British writers is to be considered. The raw frequency of each type of modifier in TEA and BEA are converted into percentage in order to see the distribution of each type of modifier used by Thai and British writers. The following figure displays the distribution.

**Figure 4.4** Distribution of each category of premodifiers



With this figure, it can be broadly mentioned that the preference for different types of premodifiers of Thai and British writers goes in the same direction. Adjectives are the most preferable type of premodifiers in both corpora. Nouns are the second frequently used type. -'s genitives are the third common type of premodifiers however, in comparison with adjectives and nouns, they tend to be far less used. Phrases are rarely used as premodifiers but still observable. 'Others' group never occurs in TEA and only occurs once in BEA, so it comprises 0% and is not displayed in the figure.

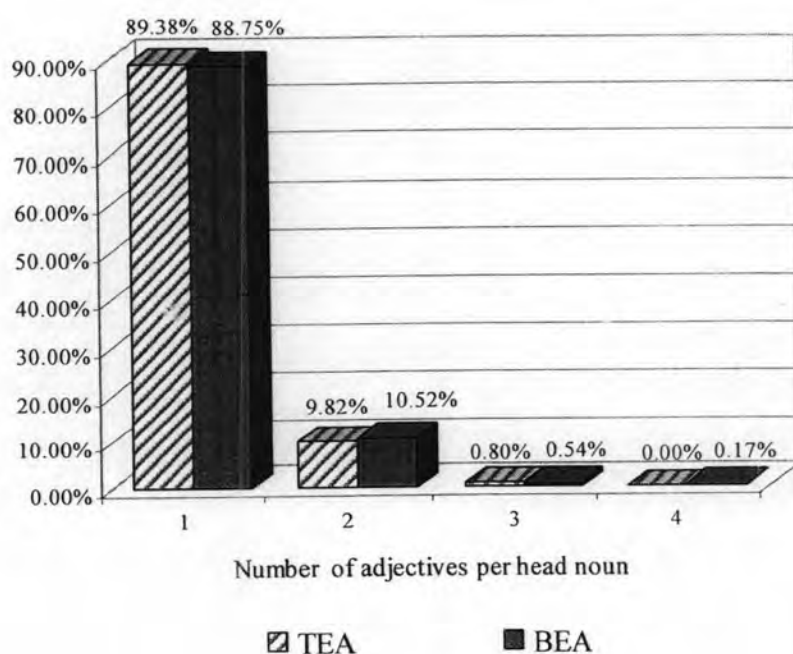
Next, from the comparison of the frequency of occurrence of premodifiers in TEA and BEA, the chi-square value of the total number of premodifiers used in TEA and in BEA (1.74) indicates that the overall preferences for premodifiers of Thai and British writers are not significantly different. In other

words, premodifiers do not occur more often in Thai English than in British English as it is previously hypothesized.

Although the total numbers of occurrence of premodifiers in TEA and BEA are not different, when looking into subcategories, the difference is signified by the frequency of occurrence of adjectives. A chi-square value of 7.07 denotes that the occurrences of adjectives as premodifiers in TEA and BEA are significantly different. For TEA, the observed frequency is 556 and the expected frequency is 509.9 and for BEA, the observed frequency is 617 and the expected frequency is 662.1. These values show that Thai writers use more adjectives as premodifiers than is expected, while British writers use fewer adjectives as premodifiers than is expected. Therefore, it can be interpreted that when the number of total head nouns are equal, adjectives tend to be used significantly more often in TEA than in BEA.

When looking further into details on the use of adjectives in TEA and BEA, there is not any major difference in terms of construction. The proportions of number of adjectives distributed to head nouns appear to be fairly similar in both TEA and BEA as can be shown in figure 4.5.

**Figure 4.5** Comparison of the proportion of head nouns with different number of adjectives in TEA and BEA



From the comparison columns of head noun with different number of adjectives attached to it, it can be seen that the proportions of the use of each category in TEA and BEA are very similar. For all categories, TEA and BEA show the difference of only less than 1 per cent. Hence, it can be claimed that the two groups of writers have a similar preference for the number of adjectives per head noun. Both groups of writers mostly prefer to add one adjective to a head noun so as to modify it. The use of two adjectives with one head noun is sharply less than the first category. However, according to the percentages (9.82 in TEA and 10.52 in BEA), this construction can be observable in both TEA and BEA. Head nouns with three and four adjectives are seldom found from the observation. In addition, the use of more than four adjectives with one head noun does not occur at all in the current data.

Thus, the difference in the occurrence of adjectives in TEA and BEA should be accounted only for the frequencies, not in terms of distribution. This means Thai writers use many more adjectives than British writers do, but the way they use adjectives as noun premodifiers is similar. Since the statistical result (table 4.3) shows that there is no significant difference in the overall frequency of premodifiers in TEA and BEA, the proportion of each type of premodifiers should be considered. As shown in figure 4.4, when frequencies of all classes of premodifiers are converted into percentages, it can be seen that Thai writers use greater number of adjectives than British writers do and as such Thai writers use fewer of other kinds of modifiers.

In conclusion to the use of premodifiers in TEA and BEA, the overall frequency of occurrence does not state any significant difference. But for each type of premodifiers, the preference for the use of adjectives is significantly higher in TEA than in BEA.

At this point, the first research question can partly be answered that the use of noun modifiers in Thai English articles and British English articles is not significantly different in terms of premodifiers. The use of plenty premodifiers to provide additional information to head nouns is not a distinctive feature of Thai English, as it was earlier hypothesized. Even though the use of adjectives as premodifiers is significantly higher in Thai English, the number is not high enough to give any effect to the overall use of premodifiers. Moreover, the use of the adjectives in Thai English and British English does not exhibit any noticeable deviation in terms

of construction. Thus, it cannot be claimed as one of distinctive characteristics of Thai English.

#### 4.4 Postmodifiers

Noun postmodifiers are those constituents of noun phrase that are placed after the head noun in order to provide additional information to the noun. Postmodifiers can be in forms of words, phrases, or clauses. In the analysis, these three general types of postmodifiers are subdivided. Words as postmodifiers comprise three different subclasses which are adjective, noun, and others. Phrases as postmodifiers, mentioned in literature as the most common type of postmodifiers, include prepositional phrases and a group of those minor groups of phrases as postmodifiers like noun phrases, adjective phrases, and so on. In this study, the prepositional phrases are further divided into two subgroups which are of-phrases and other prepositional phrases. The reasons for the subdivision are that, firstly, in comparison to other kinds of prepositional phrases, of-phrases seem to appear notably more often; secondly, of-phrase can be used to show genitive case so it might be a counterpart of -'s genitive (in premodifiers). Clauses as postmodifiers consist of relative clauses, ed-participle clauses, ing-participle clauses, and to-infinitive clauses.

Theoretically, there is no limit on the number of postmodifiers per one head noun and there is no rule to show that any type of postmodifiers can obstruct others. Therefore, their occurrences are independent. Thus, the comparison of a total frequency for each subclass of postmodifiers obtained from TEA and BEA should be done independently across the groups of writers.

The overall findings and results from the comparison are shown in the following table.

**Table 4.4** Overall findings and comparison results of postmodifiers

Types		TEA		BEA		Et	Eb	$\chi^2$
		HN = 2027 f	%	HN = 2632 f	%			
<b>word</b>	Adjective	10	1.23	9	1.20	8.27	10.73	0.33
	Noun	25	3.08	28	3.72	23.06	29.94	0.16
	others	10	1.23	5	0.66	6.53	8.47	2.40
<b>Total</b>		<b>45</b>	<b>5.54</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>5.59</b>	<b>37.85</b>	<b>49.15</b>	<b>2.07</b>
<b>phrase</b>	prepositional phrase							
	<i>of-phrase</i>	187	23.00	188	25.00	163.15	211.85	5.91 *
	<i>other prep. phrase</i>	230	28.29	227	30.19	198.83	258.17	8.38 *
	other phrase	42	5.17	54	7.18	41.77	54.23	0.00
	<b>Total</b>	<b>459</b>	<b>56.46</b>	<b>469</b>	<b>62.37</b>	<b>403.75</b>	<b>524.25</b>	<b>13.14 *</b>
<b>clause</b>	relative clause	170	20.91	154	20.48	140.96	183.04	10.23 *
	ed-participle	43	5.29	26	3.46	30.02	38.98	9.18 *
	ing-participle	28	3.44	24	3.19	22.62	29.38	1.86
	to-infinitive	68	8.36	37	4.92	45.68	59.32	18.44 *
	<b>Total</b>	<b>309</b>	<b>38.01</b>	<b>241</b>	<b>32.05</b>	<b>239.29</b>	<b>310.71</b>	<b>35.43 *</b>
<b>Postmodifiers</b>		<b>813</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>752</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>680.89</b>	<b>884.11</b>	<b>45.03 *</b>

$p < 0.05$

HN = Total number of head nouns      f = frequency of occurrence

Et = expected frequency of occurrence in Thai English articles

Eb = expected frequency of occurrence in British English articles

$\chi^2$  = chi square value      \* = significant at  $p < 0.05$ , cut off point  $\chi^2 = 3.84$

According to the comparison of the total frequency of all postmodifiers used in TEA and BEA, the chi-square value of 45.03 indicates that postmodifiers are used significantly different in TEA and BEA. When considering the observed frequencies and expected frequencies of both groups of writers, it can be claimed that postmodifiers are used much more often than it is expected in TEA ( $f = 813$  and  $Et = 680.89$ ), while they are used less often in BEA ( $f = 752$  and  $Eb = 884.11$ ). Thus, it signifies that postmodifiers are used much higher in TEA than in BEA.

Before looking into details of each significant type of postmodifiers, the overall preference of Thai writers and British writers for each main type of post modifiers (word, phrase, and clause) should be viewed.

**Figure 4.6** The preference for the use of main types of postmodifiers

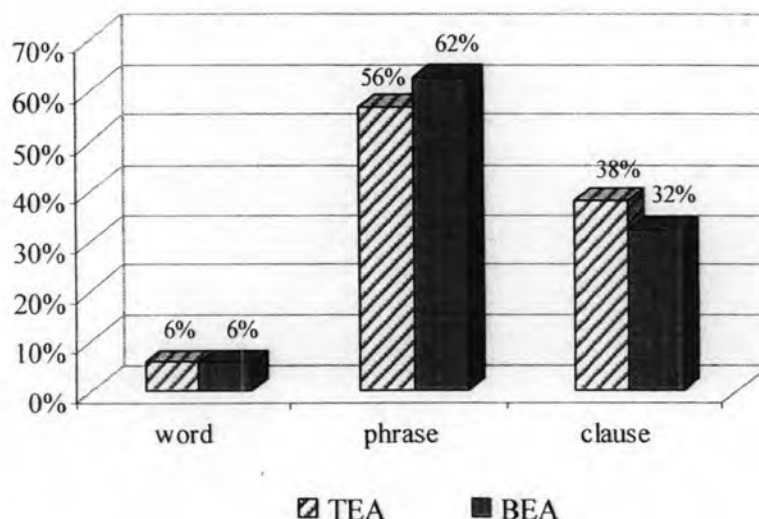


Figure 4.6 illustrates that the distribution of each main type of postmodifiers in TEA and BEA is quite similar. Phrase is the most frequently used type of postmodifiers, followed by clause and word respectively. In comparison to phrases and clauses, words as postmodifier are rarely used. This finding conforms to the theoretical description of English postmodifiers that phrase should be the most frequently used postmodifiers. According to Biber et al. (1999), their findings - from large English corpus - show that the proportion of phrases as postmodifiers should be 65-80% of all postmodifiers. Proportion of phrases as postmodifiers in BEA (62%) seems to agree with the finding of Biber et al. (only 3% less), but the proportion of phrases as postmodifiers in TEA (56%) is noticeably less (about 9% less). The smaller proportion of phrases in TEA should be noted as a result of the greater proportion of clauses as postmodifiers.

At this point, it can be claimed that the proportions of phrases and clauses as postmodifiers used in TEA and BEA are observably different. Instead of using phrases as postmodifiers, when it is possible for the interchange, Thai writers probably prefer to use clauses.

In the following sections, elaborated details for the use of the significant subcategories of postmodifiers, found in this study, are to be discussed.

#### 4.4.1 Phrases as postmodifiers

As it is mentioned earlier, phrases are used most as postmodifiers in both TEA and BEA. The comparison between the total frequencies of occurrence of phrases in TEA and BEA indicates the significant difference,  $\chi^2 = 13.14$  (table 4.4). Thus, it initially shows that Thai writers use phrases as postmodifiers differently from British writers: Thai writers used more phrases as postmodifiers than British writers do. When looking into details of the subcategories for types of phrases, the findings exhibit significant differences in the use of of-phrases and other kinds of prepositional phrases.

Among all types of prepositional phrases, of-phrases are used mostly as noun postmodifiers in both TEA and BEA: it takes 41% (187 out of 459) and 40% (188 out of 469) of all kinds of prepositional phrase in TEA and BEA respectively. Even though the proportion taken by of-phrases in TEA and BEA is similar, the comparison of the raw frequencies of occurrence (table 4.4) shows that, in average to the total head noun, of-phrases as postmodifiers appear more often in TEA than in BEA with  $\chi^2 = 5.91$ . This means with the same number of head nouns, Thai writers would use of-phrases more often than British writers would.

The use of of-phrases can be divided into two subgroups: general of-phrases and genitive of-phrases. General of-phrases are used for describing characteristics or functions of the head noun it modifies (e.g. She has *the face of an angel*). Genitive of-phrases are used to mark possession (e.g. David is *a friend of mine*). When looking into these two functions of of-phrases, it is interesting that the proportion of Thai writers' preference for the use of genitive of phrases is extremely higher than that of British writers'.

**Table 4.5** Proportion of general and genitive of-phrase in TEA and BEA

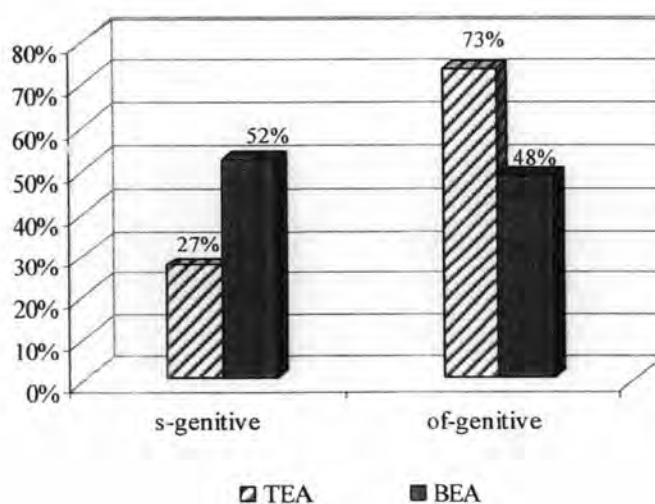
Of-phrases	TEA		BEA		$\chi^2$ if only each category exists
	f	%	f	%	
general	93	49.73	133	70.74	0.42
genitive	94	50.27	55	29.26	22.45
<b>Total</b>	<b>187</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>188</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>5.91</b>

$p < 0.05$

According to table 4.5, of the total number of of-phrases; genitive of-phrases take about 50% proportion in TEA, while they take only about 29% in BEA. Here, it can be seen that the proportion of genitive of-phrases in TEA is nearly twice as high as in BEA. Moreover, if subtracting the frequency of genitive of-phrases from the total frequency of all of-phrases, the chi-square value obtained from the comparison between TEA and BEA for general of-phrases shows no significant difference ( $\chi^2 = 0.42$ ). In contrast, if considering only the genitive of-phrases, the chi square value signifies a very significant difference ( $\chi^2 = 22.45$ ). Thus, this information strongly confirms that the use of genitive of-phrases is a major factor that makes the occurrence of of-phrases as postmodifiers significantly more frequent in TEA than in BEA.

A point that must be considered for the more use of genitive of-phrases is the use of their counterpart, -'s genitives. The chi-square value in table 4.3 shows that in TEA, -'s genitives are used less often than it is expected, while in BEA, they are used more often. In other words, the value indicates that -'s genitives tend to be used less often in TEA than in BEA. Although the chi-square test does not prove the significant difference between the frequency of -'s genitives in TEA and BEA; when considering the proportions of the two genitive forms used in TEA and BEA, they show very interesting information in the preference for each genitive construction of Thai writers and British writers.

**Figure 4.7** Proportion of the genitive constructions used in TEA and BEA





It is found that in TEA, of-genitives are greatly more preferable than -'s genitives (73% for of-genitives and 27% for -'s genitives), while in BEA, the two constructions seem to be used equally, with a little bit higher proportion of -'s genitive (52% for -'s genitives and 48% for of-genitives).

When looking into how -'s genitive s are used in TEA and BEA, the data show no distinction. Thai and British writers similarly use -'s genitive.

e.g.	<i>Margot's most prized <u>roles</u></i>	(BEA16)
	<i>Wisit's unnatural <u>style</u></i>	(TEA22)

However, the situation is different for of-genitive. Apart from the difference in terms of frequency of occurrence, the detailed analysis of the concordance lines of of-genitives used in TEA and BEA shows the difference in the use of of-genitives in TEA and BEA.

Thai writers tend to use as many of-genitives as they prefer in order to provide additional information, while British writers tend to limit their use. For British writers, -'s genitives are firstly considered. Of-genitives are used only when it is necessary.

According to Quirk et al. (1972), there are two common situations that of-genitives are selected instead of -'s genitive in English.

First, of-genitives are generally used when the head noun has other premodifiers. In this situation, instead of using -'s genitives, the use of of-genitives is suggested so as to keep the balance between pre- and postmodifiers in terms of the number. According to the observation, this is a common manner for the use of of-genitives in BEA: about 56% of the head nouns with of-genitive show this manner.

e.g.	<i>the rich volcanic <u>soil</u> of the island</i>	(BEA15)
	<i>the spooky <u>interior</u> of the caves</i>	(BEA13)

Second, of-genitives are used when its noun phrase is complex, i.e. the noun in an of-genitive phrase has modifying units. In this case, even though the head noun is simple, it does not have other premodifiers as in the first case; of-genitive has to be used as a postmodifier.

e.g.      **Head noun    of-phrase [modifying unit]**  
the branches    of the [lime] and [tamarind] trees [in the garden]  
(BEA04)

the ghost      of an [Indian] princess [who died in a shipwreck  
offshore]  
(BEA13)

In TEA, these two criteria seem not to be taken into consideration. Namely, it is common for simple head nouns, head nouns without other premodifiers, to take of-genitive: about 68% of the head nouns that have of-genitive as postmodifiers occur in this way. Moreover, it is not necessary for the noun phrase in the of-genitives to be complex. Of-genitives as postmodifiers are usually selected over -'s genitive in TEA even when the head nouns and the noun phrases in the of-genitive are simple.

e.g.      *members of the group* (TEA19)  
the name of the temple (TEA08)

In these two examples, it can be seen that the two suggested conditions for of-genitive to be used instead of -'s genitive in English are violated. That is, the head nouns in of-genitive do not have modifying units, still the of-genitive is used. In BEA, the forms preferred for these expressions would be 'the group's member' and 'the temple's name'.

Apart from -'s genitives and of-genitives, in the English language, possessive adjectives are another possible choice to mark genitive case. Possessive adjectives can be used as (closed-system) premodifiers of head nouns when they have clear antecedents. When applying the chi square test, the chi square value does not state the significant difference in terms of the frequency of occurrence of possessive adjectives between TEA and BEA ( $\chi^2 = 0.77$ ). However, from the qualitative analysis, it is found that when the use of possessive adjective is available, British writers tend to use it instead of using -'s genitive or of-genitive.

e.g. The city of Managua remains Nicaragua's capital but it has never been *its heart*.

(BEA04)

Contrastively, in TEA, when the possessive adjective can be used, Thai writers still prefer of-genitive rather than possessive adjective. Examples can be given as in the following excerpts.

“At the seaside, I dropped in to a strange-looking decorated coffeehouse in the neighborhood. *The owner of this coffeehouse* is a French man who loves tropical countries like Thailand and has married a Thai woman.”

(TEA07)

The noun phrase ‘the coffeehouse’ has already been mentioned in the discourse, so the usage of possessive adjective as ‘its owner’ is possible. Still the Thai writer prefers the use of of-genitive.

Sometimes, it seems that Thai writers tend to keep providing information, even though it is repetitive and thus omission is possible.

“Wat Chang is a prestigious sanctuary for its exquisite Sim, or ordination hall, which is of a kind that is rare today. *The Sim of Wat Chang* has been heralded as one of the most beautiful pieces of local architecture of the E-Sarn region that displays the proficient skills of the local artisans.”

(TEA08)

In the above example, only the use of the head noun ‘the Sim’, without the of-genitive (of Wat Chang), is clear enough for readers to understand since they can associate it with the earlier context.

From this point, it can be said that Thai writers prefer the repetition of the same word that has been mentioned, while British writers prefer not to do so or if

the old information has to be referred to, they often use possessive adjective as the reference instead. It is interesting that this characteristic of TEA, repetition of words, can be claimed as a transfer from Thai rhetorical style mentioned in Chapter II.

In conclusion for the use of of-genitives as postmodifiers, firstly, it is very clear that the of-genitive is used extremely more often in TEA than in BEA. Thai and British writers use of-genitives in different occasions. Thai writers seem to prefer the use of of-genitives as postmodifiers to provide information to the head noun, both as the additional new information and the repetitive old information. Meanwhile, British writers seem to use of-genitives as postmodifiers only when it is necessary. In short, of-genitives are used in a wider scope in TEA. Their use can cover the area where -'s genitives are more recommended, as in a native speakers' perspective. In BEA, the use of of-genitive is limited. Of-genitives tend to be selected when other methods to mark genitive case (i.e. -'s genitives or possessive adjectives) are not available.

In consideration of the compactness in the use of -'s genitives, possessive adjectives, and of-genitives, it can be claimed that British writers may generally prefer the compact form marking genitive case. Therefore, they tend to select -'s genitives or possessive adjectives rather than of-genitives. But, Thai writers may prefer the full form with complete words, not just the inflected form, to present genitive features. Thus, their choice falls on of-genitives rather than -'s genitives or possessive adjectives.

Furthermore, the higher preference for of-genitives of Thai writers over British writers can be explained as an influence from Thai language system. In Thai, there is only one way to mark genitive case and it can be considered equivalent to the of-genitive in English. The use of constructions similar to -'s genitive or possessive adjective do not exist in Thai.

- e.g.     แม่ ของเด็กคนนั้น  
           mae khong dek khon nan  
           mother of boy that  
           mother of that boy

Although the word ‘ของ’ or ‘of’ can sometimes be omitted, it can be understood as a short form of the genitive construction (e.g. แม่เด็กคนนั้น (mae dek khon nan : mother that boy).

Apart from of-phrases as postmodifiers, the group of other prepositional phrases also show a significant difference in their frequencies of occurrence between TEA and BEA. When looking into details on the use of this group, firstly it is found that, in both TEA and BEA, prepositional phrases can be used as both restrictive and non-restrictive postmodifiers, but the restrictive prepositional phrases are much more common, with more than 90% in comparison with the non-restrictive one. In other words, the use of non-restrictive prepositional phrases as postmodifiers is rather uncommon in both TEA and BEA.

e.g. **Restrictive:**

*The strategic importance for the British* was that the Boers held the high ground ... .

(BEA13)

**Non-restrictive:**

*The battle, in 1900,* lasted four days before the Boers were driven off the mountain.

(BEA13)

From the two corpora, seven most common preposition heads of prepositional phrases as postmodifiers can be stated. They are (all types of) ‘of’, ‘in’, ‘for’, ‘on’, ‘with’, ‘from’, and ‘to’. Other types of preposition heads rarely occur, they take only 1 to less than 1 per cent (e.g. at, between, beyond, through etc.). The following table shows the percentages of the common prepositional postmodifiers found in TEA and BEA in this study.



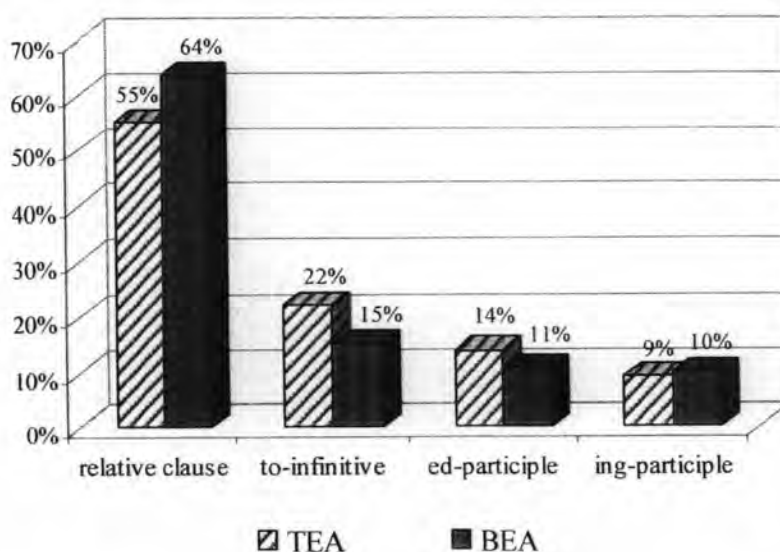
**Table 4.6** Common prepositional phrases as postmodifiers

<b>Preposition head</b>	<b>TEA</b>	<b>BEA</b>
of	45%	45%
in	16%	14%
for	8%	5%
on	7%	6%
with	5%	7%
from	5%	3%
to	2%	6%
etc. <sup>2</sup>	13%	13%

According to this table, it can be seen that the proportions of prepositional phrases with different heads in TEA and BEA tend to be similar. Since each type of prepositional phrases has its particular meaning (except of-phrases that can mark genitive), the significant difference shown by the statistical test (table 4.4) can be explained only in terms of the frequency. This means, Thai writers just prefer to add general prepositional phrases to modify the head noun more often than British writers do. However, the constructions, functions, and meanings of the prepositional phrases are not different.

#### **4.4.2 Clauses as postmodifiers**

The results shown in Table 4.4 display the significant difference in total numbers of clauses as postmodifiers between TEA and BEA. The chi square of 35.43 indicates that clauses as postmodifiers are used significantly more often in TEA than in BEA. According to the raw frequencies shown in table 4.4, distribution of each type of clauses as postmodifiers in TEA and BEA can be illustrated by the following figure.

**Figure 4.8** Distribution of clausal postmodifiers in TEA and BEA

Among the four subcategories of clausal postmodifiers, relative clauses are the most common type used in both TEA and BEA, 55% and 64% respectively. Infinitive clauses are the second most common type in both TEA and BEA, 22% and 15% respectively. The third one is past participle clauses, with 14% in TEA and 11% in BEA. And the least common one is present participle clauses with 9% and 10% in TEA and BEA respectively. When looking into each subcategory of clauses as postmodifiers, the chi-square values denote that relative clause, ed-participle clause, and to-infinitive clause are used significantly more often in TEA than in BEA. ing-participle clauses are the only type of clausal modifiers that the chi square value does not state the significant difference. In the following sections, the detailed analysis only discusses further information on the use and construction of the clausal postmodifiers which are statistically significant.

#### 4.4.2.1 Relative clause

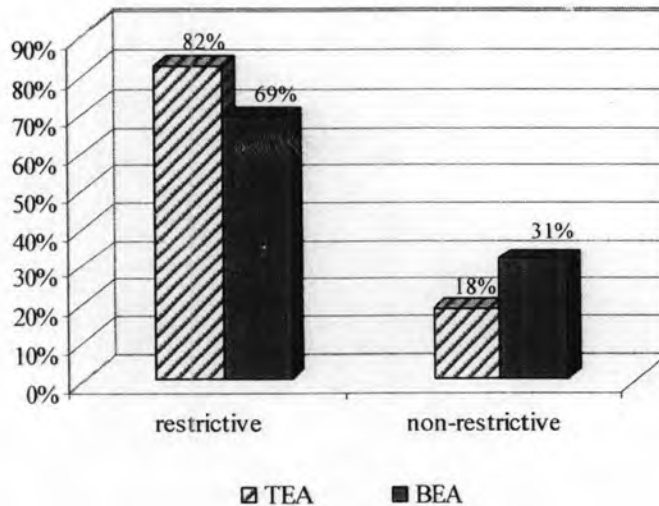
Relative clauses are the most common type of clausal postmodifiers used in both TEA and BEA. From figure 4.8, the proportion of relative clause, among other types of clausal postmodifiers, in BEA is notably higher than in TEA. It indicates that among all type of clausal postmodifiers, British writers may prefer the use of relative clauses more than Thai writers do. However, when considering the raw frequencies of occurrence of relative clauses in relation to the total number of

head nouns, the result shows that Thai writers use relative clauses significantly more often than British writers do.

Apart from the difference in terms of frequency of occurrence, the use and construction of relative clauses in TEA and BEA are to be presented. The following discussion provides further information on relative clauses in TEA and BEA concerning types (restrictive and non-restrictive), usage of relative clauses, complexity, and relative pronouns.

The first dimension to be considered for the use of relative clauses is their functions as restrictive and non-restrictive. For the classification in terms of construction, the non-restrictive relative clauses are those placed after or between comma(s), hyphen(s), or in parentheses. Figure 4.9 below presents the proportions of the two types of relative clauses in TEA and BEA.

**Figure 4.9** Proportion of restrictive and non-restrictive relative clause in TEA and BEA



Of all relative clauses, restrictive relative clauses are more common than non-restrictive relative clause in both TEA and BEA. However, the proportions of the two types differ in TEA and BEA. Thai writers tend to prefer the construction of restrictive relative clauses more than British writers do.

The chi-square test is also done for these two subtypes of relative clause. The results from the comparison are as follows.



**Table 4.7** Comparison of frequency of occurrence of restrictive and non-restrictive relative clause in TEA and BEA

Types	TEA	BEA	Et	Eb	$\chi^2$
	HN = 2027 f	HN = 2632 f			
restrictive relative clause	140	108	107.90	140.10	16.38 *
non-restrictive relative clause	30	46	33.07	42.93	0.35

$p < 0.05$ .

Chi-square values, from table 4.7, present that only the use of restrictive relative clauses in TEA and BEA signifies the difference. This means the difference in the overall use of relative clauses in TEA and BEA is influenced by the use of the restrictive type rather than by the use of non-restrictive relative one.

The use of more relative clauses in TEA implies that Thai writers probably value the importance of the clarity of the modifying unit since the relative clause is described as the clearest type of all noun modifiers (Quirk et al, 1972). Furthermore, the higher frequency of the construction of restrictive relative clauses in TEA denotes that, for Thai writers, the modifiers provided are mostly considered essential, even though sometimes it can be omitted without any problem in identifying the head noun.

e.g. *Another exquisite sanctuary **Uncle Cyclist took me to** was Wat Sri Ubon Rattanaram or Wat Srithong.*

(TEA08)

Earlier in the text, the writer has mentioned the means of transportation. Then, the writer changes the topic to the explanation of several places that the writer visited. The place mentioned in the example is another place to be explained. Readers have already known from earlier context that the writer traveled by a tricycle driven by an old man. Thus without the relative clause, there is nothing different in terms of identification of the place. Moreover, this relative clause does not provide any specific information for identification of the head noun. It can be reckoned that the writer put this relative clause in in order to build up an imaginary picture for the

readers. Also, the restrictive type is used probably because the writers feel that sharing the context with readers is important.

The following excerpt is also an example of this point.

*"I had a chance to visit an astonishing ancient village called "Song village," an old community settled over 2,000 years ago. All of the constructions in the village have remained almost the same as they were in primitive times. The oldest building **that is still left** is over 600 years old."*

(TEA04)

With this excerpt, it can be seen that the writer mentions in the previous sentence that all constructions have remained. Therefore, although the bold relative clause is cut off, there is no difference in interpretation since the clause does not really help identify the head noun.

Apart from the use of relative clauses used for repeating the information, in TEA, the higher number of relative clauses found in this study can be resulted from the preference for indirect messages of Thai writers. Instead of directly mentioning the main point, Thai writers may delay it by adding another broad head noun with relative clauses before introducing the main head noun. With this method of presenting information, relative clauses are highly used.

e.g. *Besides darkness and sleepiness, the other [things] **that held us up** were the thorns of plants along the path.*

(TEA03)

*Another local [product] **that the people of Koh Yao are proud of, which I found quite exciting**, is "Sator", a kind of perennial plant (*Parkia speciosa* Hassk) mostly found in the southern part of Thailand.*

(TEA06)

In these examples, the bracketed nouns are the head nouns that are identified for the analysis in this study (based on the set criteria), while the underlined ones are those nouns that seem to be the real topics that the writers want to convey. With these examples, it can be seen that Thai writers delay their main point by placing other generic nouns, instead of the specific ones that they aim to present, in the subject position. To scope down the meaning of those generic nouns to the real discussion point, relative clauses are used.

In this case, if the writers present their messages directly, numbers of relative clauses as the identified postmodifiers can be reduced. The first example may be rewritten as '*Besides darkness and sleepiness, the thorns of plants along the path held us up.*', where the construction of a relative clause does not occur. Also in the second example, the sentence can be '*"Sator", a kind of perennial plant (*Parkia speciosa* Hassk) mostly found in the southern part of Thailand, is another local product that the people of Koh Yao are proud of, which I found quite exciting.*'. In this case, 'Sator' should be identified as the prominent head noun and its modifier is a noun phrase.

Since this kind of construction is commonly observed in TEA but rarely in BEA, it can be concluded as a factor causing the higher number of relative clauses.

Another explanation for the high use of relative clauses in TEA is the frequent occurrence of cleft sentences. Cleft sentences are used when the writers want to shift the focus from theme (old information) to rheme (new information). Thus, instead of putting theme before rheme, in cleft sentences, rheme is put before. Rheme is usually introduced by 'it is/was' and theme is provided in forms of a relative clause. Since the construction of cleft sentences requires the relative clause, the higher occurrence of cleft sentences in TEA than in BEA leads to the higher number of relative clauses.

According to Jacobs (1995) and Kaplan (1995), the relative clauses in cleft sentences are the background propositions that are assumed to be shared by addressers and addressees.

e.g. *It may have been Sally who called you.*

(Kaplan, 1995)

In the above example, the addresser and the addressee share background knowledge that ‘someone called you’ and the addresser of wants to emphasise the new information ‘Sally’, the person who called, rather than the shared background. Kaplan also points out that the background proposition shared by the addresser and addressee is important for the interpretation of old and new information in cleft sentences. Thus, it may be expected that, in writing, before cleft sentences, background information should be provided.

The observations show that in BEA, background propositions of cleft sentences are usually provided in the preceding sentences.

e.g. Only the hardest pioneers made it over the silent peaks in their covered wagons. *It's a place where everything seems epic.*

(BEA11)

In this example, the relative clause in the cleft sentence is the old information that has been presented in the preceding sentence. Readers can interpret the relation of old and new information from the text.

On the contrary, for cleft sentences in TEA, it is not always necessary for the background knowledge to be explicitly mentioned in the earlier text. In fact, the writers tend to assume that readers already have the background which is general in Thai context and can interpret it by themselves even if the writers do not provide it.

e.g. Early in the morning, I also saw a beautiful scene of the local culture when the monks walked up in a row for food offerings. *It was a lovely picture that can rarely be seen in the present day.*

(TEA07)

In this example, the writer may assume that readers are in or understand Thai contexts that in the past, it is common to see the mentioned scenery but in the present, it is uncommon. Therefore, the writer does not explicitly mention the old information presented by the relative clause of the cleft sentence in earlier text, since it is, in the writer's point of view, the general knowledge.

According to this point, firstly, it can be concluded that since cleft sentences occur more often in TEA than in BEA and relative clauses are a part of the construction, the higher number of relative clauses is certain. Secondly, it is found that cleft sentences can be constructed in TEA even though the assumed background propositions are not explicitly mentioned in the texts. Thai writers tend to expect that they have the shared knowledge with the readers. And this can be interpreted as a characteristic of high context communication, as mentioned in Chapter II.

Apart from the factors causing the higher number of relative clauses in TEA than in BEA, in terms of construction, relative clauses in TEA and BEA also show differences. Relative clauses in TEA are found to be more complex than those in BEA. For Thai writers it is rather common for a relative clause to contain a number of other long units modifying some other elements in the clause.

e.g.     It is a big *market* [*where tourists [heading to Phu Soi Dao] usually stop [to stock up on some fresh food [to cook at the campsite [on the mountain]], [as there is no restaurant available up there]]*].

(TEA15)

Contrastively, this complicated construction of relative clause is never observed in the British English corpus of this study. In other words, British writers, in their construction of relative clauses, do not usually add lengthy embedding units or many other modifiers in their relative clauses as Thai writers do. Thus, relative clauses in BEA are far less complicated than those in TEA.

e.g.     Most of the old *havelis* **that once belonged to the wealthy merchant families [of the region]** had been abandoned.

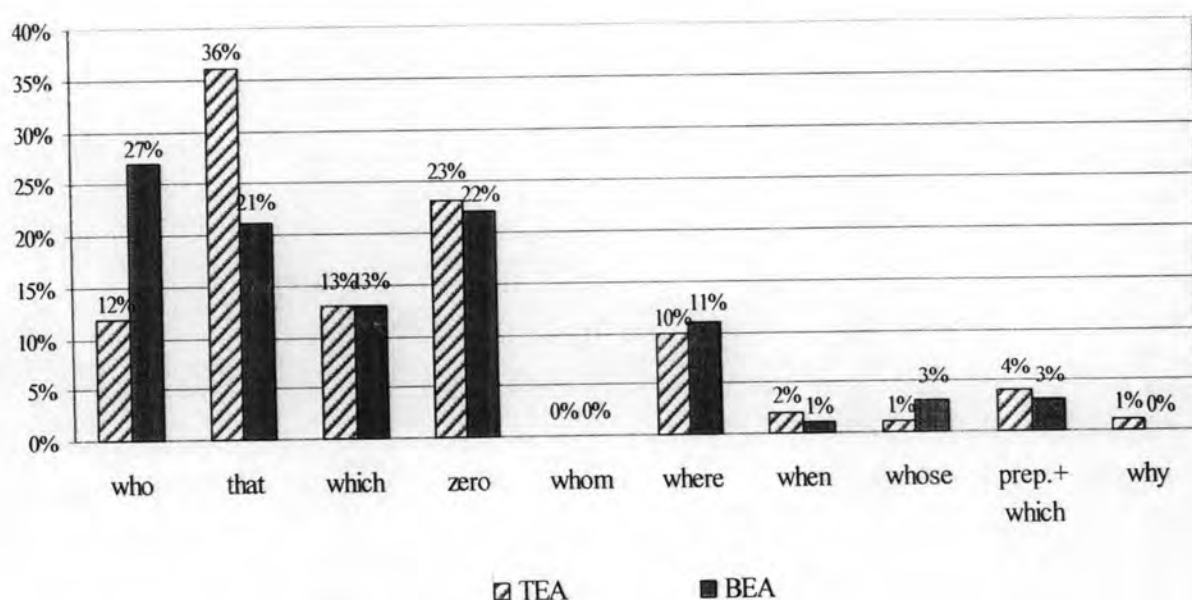
(BEA02)

Lengthy and complicated construction of relative clauses in Thai English can be explained as transfers from Thai language and rhetorical style. According to the information on the Thai language and rhetorical style provided in Chapter II,

sentences or units in sentences can be at any length. It depends on the number of information that writers want to add. Since the ability of writers to provide as much information as possible at once is preferable, long sentences or long sentence elements with layers of modifying units are very common and are considered as a good style of writing. According to the findings, it is clear that Thai writers, when writing in English, keep this Thai rhetorical style and present them through their use of relative clauses in English.

Another dimension that should be considered when studying relative clause is the use of relative pronouns. The following figure presents the distribution of relative pronouns in TEA and BEA.

**Figure 4.10** Distribution of relative pronouns in TEA and BEA



According to the figure, it can be seen that proportions of relative pronouns are distributed differently in TEA and BEA.

In TEA, 'that' is the most common relative pronoun of all types and it is used sharply more often than others. The second common type is 'zero'. 'which', 'who', and 'where' are still common and are next in the rank respectively. The rest of relative pronouns: 'preposition + which', 'when', 'whose', and 'why' are rather uncommon. A relative pronoun 'whom' never occurs in TEA.

On the other hand, in BEA, a relative pronoun 'who' is first in the rank. 'zero' is the second common type and 'that' is the third. These top three common relative pronouns take slightly different proportions. The fourth common relative pronoun in BEA is 'which' and the fifth one is 'where'. Other types of relative pronouns are quite uncommon and, as well as in TEA, 'whom' never occurs in BEA.

By comparison across the two groups of writers, the two types of relative pronouns that exhibit major difference are 'who' and 'that'. Preferences for 'who' is 15% more in BEA than in TEA, while preferences for 'that' is 15% more in TEA than in BEA. Since 'who' can only be used in a relative clause that modifies subjective personal head noun, the difference in the proportion can be interpreted that in comparison to all relative clauses, British writers prefer to use relative clause to modify people more than Thai writers do.

The high use of the relative pronoun 'that' in TEA can be explained by considering other types of relative pronouns that are interchangeable. With inanimate subjective head nouns, 'that' can be replaced by 'which'. And with inanimate objective head nouns, 'that' can be replaced by 'which' or 'zero'.<sup>3</sup>

According to the proportions of these three interchangeable relative pronouns in TEA, it is clear that Thai writers very much prefer 'that'. In contrast, the proportions of the three relative pronouns in BEA show only slight differences. Therefore, it can be expected that these three relative pronouns are used differently by Thai and British writers. Since 'that' takes very high proportion in TEA, it can be claimed to have wider use in TEA than in BEA: in cases that 'which' and 'zero' are commonly selected by British writers, Thai writers may select 'that' instead. To support this point, differences between the use of 'that' versus 'which' and 'that' versus 'zero' in TEA and BEA are provided accordingly.

The proportions of 'that' and 'which' in TEA show great difference. 'that' occurs 26% higher than 'which' in TEA. Meanwhile, in BEA, the difference between the proportions of 'that' and 'which' is smaller. 'that' occurs 8% higher than 'which'. This means, in the selection of relative pronouns 'that' and 'which', Thai writers strongly prefer 'that' rather than 'which'. Meanwhile, the difference in British writers' preferences for 'that' and 'which' is not as strong as that of Thai writers.

In BEA, that-relative clauses are mostly used with simple head nouns: head nouns that do not have many other modifying units, especially other postmodifiers that intervene between the head noun and the relative clause.

e.g. *the walkway that connects Phara Nang to its neighbour*  
(BEA14)

With complex head nouns, which-relative clauses tend to be more preferable.

e.g. *strange mounds on the ground which, on closer inspection, turned out to be a community of Earthships*  
(BEA12)

Differently from those in BEA, complex head nouns with a that-relative clause are rather common in TEA, even if there is another modifying unit inserted between the head noun and that-relative clause.

e.g. *one particular city on the vast mainland of China that all people, from emperors, aristocrats, and philosophers, down to common folks wish to visit at least once in their life time*  
(TEA04)

*many, many more places in inland Krabi that possess great natural beauty*  
(TEA02)

The use of 'that' and 'zero' also shows some differences. In terms of quantity, proportion taken by 'that' is much higher than 'zero' (13%) in TEA. Meanwhile, in BEA, the proportion taken by 'that' is similar to 'zero', with only one percent higher. The preferences for 'that' and 'zero' of Thai and British writers are different because Thai writers tend to keep 'that' in a kind of relative clauses in which British writers usually drop 'that' and use 'zero' instead.



In BEA, relative clauses that have a personal pronoun as their overt subject are mostly used with ‘zero’ relative pronoun instead of ‘that’.

e.g. *one of the many reasons **I** married her*  
(BEA17)

*the route **we** followed also took us... .*  
(BEA09)

Relative clauses with relative pronouns ‘that’ (or ‘which’) followed by a personal pronoun as their subject are hardly observed in BEA. Meanwhile, such a construction is easily observable in TEA.

e.g. *something **that** **I** have dreamed of doing since I was a child*  
(TEA21)

*half-functioning van **that** **I** traveled in*  
(TEA15)

In conclusion to this section, it is found that relative clauses are used significantly more often in TEA than in BEA. The point that makes it different is the use of restrictive relative clauses. That is, Thai writers highly prefer to use restrictive relative clauses to modify head nouns more than British writers do. In terms of construction, relative clauses in TEA are usually longer and more complicated than those in BEA. By considering the types of relative pronouns, it is found that in TEA, Thai writers prefer the use of relative pronoun ‘that’ in most occasions. The use of ‘that’ relative pronoun in TEA covers the areas where ‘which’ and ‘zero’ are normally used in BEA. According to the information presented in this part, using of restrictive relative clauses for different purposes, long and complicated relative clauses, and high preference and wider use of ‘that’ relative pronoun can be concluded as characteristics of Thai English.

#### 4.4.2.2 Past participle clause

Past participle clauses (ed-clauses) are non-finite clauses that can be used as noun postmodifiers. In comparison with relative clauses, ed-clauses occur less often in both TEA and BEA. The result from the statistical test (table 4.4) shows that, in relation to all head nouns, ed-clauses as postmodifiers are used significantly more often in TEA than in BEA. For convenience, table 4.4 is repeated again.

**Table 4.4** Overall findings and comparison results of postmodifiers

Types		TEA		BEA		Et	Eb	$\chi^2$
		HN = 2027 f	%	HN = 2632 f	%			
<b>word</b>	Adjective	10	1.23	9	1.20	8.27	10.73	0.33
	Noun	25	3.08	28	3.72	23.06	29.94	0.16
	others	10	1.23	5	0.66	6.53	8.47	2.40
<b>Total</b>		<b>45</b>	<b>5.54</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>5.59</b>	<b>37.85</b>	<b>49.15</b>	<b>2.07</b>
<b>phrase</b>	prepositional phrase							
	<i>of-phrase</i>	187	23.00	188	25.00	163.15	211.85	5.91 *
	<i>other prep. phrase</i>	230	28.29	227	30.19	198.83	258.17	8.38 *
	other phrase	42	5.17	54	7.18	41.77	54.23	0.00
<b>Total</b>		<b>459</b>	<b>56.46</b>	<b>469</b>	<b>62.37</b>	<b>403.75</b>	<b>524.25</b>	<b>13.14 *</b>
<b>clause</b>	relative clause	170	20.91	154	20.48	140.96	183.04	10.23 *
	ed-participle	43	5.29	26	3.46	30.02	38.98	9.18 *
	ing-participle	28	3.44	24	3.19	22.62	29.38	1.86
	to-infinitive	68	8.36	37	4.92	45.68	59.32	18.44 *
<b>Total</b>		<b>309</b>	<b>38.01</b>	<b>241</b>	<b>32.05</b>	<b>239.29</b>	<b>310.71</b>	<b>35.43 *</b>
<b>Postmodifiers</b>		<b>813</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>752</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>680.89</b>	<b>884.11</b>	<b>45.03 *</b>

$p < 0.05$

Apart from the difference in terms of frequency of occurrence, the use of ed-clauses in TEA and BEA also shows some interesting distinction.

In BEA, ed-clauses are usually attached immediately after the head nouns that they modify. Moreover, ed-clauses in BEA are short and simple.

e.g. *The city formerly known as Saigon*

(BEA02)

On the other hand, in TEA, ed-clauses can be placed far apart from the head noun, with some other long postmodifiers put in between.

e.g. *a huge candle sculpture [22 meters high] [on a vessel] **carved in the shape of a garuda (mythical half-bird, half-man creature) and naga (serpent)***

(TEA05)

Moreover, ed-clauses that occur in TEA can be long containing a layer of modifier.

e.g. *a small cascade **located at the point [where mixed evergreen forest turns into pine forest]***

(TEA10)

Interestingly, in TEA, ed-clauses can even be placed after the predicate. According to Quirk et al. (1972), this position of ed-clauses is not recommended. In fact, ed-clauses should occur immediately after the head noun they modify. Thus, this construction never occurs in BEA.

e.g. *A small roofed boat with a capacity of not over 6 passengers [(predicate) took me traveling along the canal], **steered by a skilled oarsman who was over half a century old.***

(TEA04)

In sum, the above information shows that ed-clauses as postmodifiers are used much more often in TEA than in BEA. In BEA, the ed-clauses are normally placed right after the head noun they modify. Meanwhile, in TEA, ed-clauses can be placed after other postmodifiers. Furthermore, short and simple ed-clauses as postmodifiers are common in TEA, however, long and complex ed-clauses are not unusual in TEA as well. In contrast, in BEA, only short and simple ed-clauses as postmodifiers are preferable. As well as those relative clauses, the different use and construction of ed-clauses can be claimed as transfers from Thai language and

rhetorical style. Thai writers use long and complex ed-clauses to serve their need in adding lots of information at once, which is a good style of writing in Thai. Moreover, the information provided by the use of ed-clauses in TEA is usually for giving imaginary pictures rather than for identifying the head noun. Thus, this is also to serve Thai rhetorical style which values the provision of detailed information.

#### 4.4.2.3 Infinitive clause

The infinitive clause or to-clause is mentioned as a more flexible type of all non-finite clauses because it can occur with both subject and non-subject gaps (Biber et al., 1999). In general, to-clauses contain covert subjects, which can be easily understood from the contexts. However, overt subjects of to-clauses are possible and they are marked by 'for', e.g. 'a time *for me to explain*'. When a head noun has an objective relation to the to-clause, the verb in the to-clause can be in either active or passive forms, e.g. 'the bill *to pay*' or 'the bill *to be paid*'.

According to the analysis of the frequency of occurrence of to-clauses used in TEA and BEA, the chi-square value (table 4.4) indicates that to-clauses are used significantly more often in TEA than in BEA.

However, apart from the frequency, the ways to-clauses are used in TEA and BEA are not notably different. Most of the to-clauses are used with covert subjects. Usually, the head nouns that to-clauses modify cannot be interpreted as subject or object of the clauses. In addition, to-clauses with passive construction never occur in both TEA and BEA.

An interesting point found in TEA for the use of to-clause is the occurrence of the overt subject introduced by 'for', since this construction does not occur in BEA at all. The analysis shows that Thai writers use this construction when the subject of the to-clause is not explicitly stated in the sentence, even though the subject can somehow be interpreted from the context of the article.

e.g. *It was time for me to explain to him.*

(TEA18)

e.g. *This is the only chance for Montien Boonma's admirers to see his acclaimed works from the initial pieces until the most recent fantastic installation.*

(TEA24)

This example occurs in an article written about Montien Boonma. In earlier sentences, the writer describes his works and the exhibition. Thus, the subject of the to-clause can be understood even though it is not explicitly provided. However, still the Thai writer prefers to mention it.

In contrast to Thai writers, British writers, in BEA, never use this construction, even though the subjects of to-clauses are not really explicit but can be interpreted from the contexts.

e.g. *As daylight slowly faded and streaky pink clouds hung low in the sky, it was time to think about dinner.*

(BEA12)

According to this point, it can be mentioned that, for Thai writers, clarity of information seems to be important. Even though the information can be easily interpreted from the contexts, Thai writers prefer to explicitly present it anyway.

Another point to discuss for the use of to-clauses is that, in TEA, some common head nouns that occur with to-clauses can be identified. The head nouns are the words 'chance', 'time' and 'way'. The common head nouns for to-clause, found from TEA, conform to those mentioned in the study of Biber et al. on mostly British English data. Interestingly, these common words do not occur as head nouns of to-clause observably more frequent than other words in BEA.

#### **4.4.3 Number of noun postmodifiers and complexity of noun phrases**

In the earlier sections, each type of noun postmodifiers used in TEA and BEA has been described in isolation. In fact, all kinds of the postmodifiers can occur together to modify one head noun.

According to Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al. (1999), it is suggested that since postmodifiers are usually long and far more complicated than premodifiers, one head noun should have only one postmodifier, especially, when it is a clausal postmodifier. British writers tend to limit their use of postmodifiers in accordance with this suggestion. When a long postmodifier (usually the clausal one) is used to modify a noun, British writers do not usually add any other postmodifiers to the noun.

e.g. *Leaving the beach, I packed up a path [that passed through Camelle to Arou].*

(BEA07)

But Thai writers tend to do it differently. For Thai writers, using a number of lengthy postmodifiers to modify one head noun seems to be favourable.

e.g. *It was a single-story concrete building [painted in yellow], [elevated from the ground], [with a terra cotta roof [in the style [that was popular [during the reign [of King Rama VI]]]].*

(TEA08)

With the above examples, it can also be observed that, for Thai writers, although the postmodifiers are long and complicated (containing layers of other modifying units); still they keep adding many postmodifiers to a head noun. This seems to be a preferable way for Thai writers to provide information. As a result, long and complicated noun phrases can be concluded as one of the distinctive characteristics of Thai English.

## 4.5 Conclusion

This chapter discusses the results from the analysis of noun modifiers used in Thai English magazine articles and British English magazine articles. The findings show that the overall preferences of noun modifiers of Thai writers and British writers are different. In relation to total head nouns, Thai writers use more

noun modifiers than British writers do. In general, Thai writers prefer to use postmodifiers rather than premodifiers, while British writers prefer to use premodifiers rather than postmodifiers.

The comparison of total frequencies of occurrence of premodifiers in Thai English articles and British English articles does not indicate a significant difference. Therefore, preferences for premodifiers of Thai writers and British writer can be concluded for similarity. However, among all types of premodifiers, adjectives seem to be used much more often in Thai English articles than in British English articles.

Next, the use of noun postmodifiers in Thai English articles and British English articles proves the significant difference. In relation to total head nouns, Thai writers use much more postmodifiers than British writers do. Phrasal postmodifiers are the most common type of all postmodifiers in both Thai English articles and British English articles, followed by clausal postmodifiers. Words as postmodifiers are rare in both Thai English articles and British English articles.

Among all types of phrasal postmodifiers, the *of*-phrase is the most common one used by Thai and British writers. The comparison shows that Thai writers use *of*-phrases more often than British writers do. The main cause of the dissimilarity is the use of the *of*-phrase with its genitive function. Thai writers used genitive *of*-phrases much more often than British writers do. Even for those which their counterpart, *'-s*-genitive, is available, Thai writers still prefer the use of *of*-phrases. Meanwhile, British writers prefer to use *'-s* genitive and they reserve the *of*-genitive for specific purposes.

Prepositional phrases are the second most common postmodifiers. The result from the comparison tells that they are used differently by Thai writers and British writers. That is, Thai writers use more prepositional phrases than British writers do. Since the use of prepositional phrases is relevant to grammatical rules and meanings, different ways to use them cannot be identified. However, it is found that the common types of prepositional phrases used in Thai English articles and British English articles are fairly similar. Therefore, it can be concluded that the difference in the use of prepositional phrases, excluding those genitive *of*-phrases, should only be accounted for the frequency of occurrence.

Other phrases as postmodifiers, i.e. noun phrases, adjective phrases, and so on do not denote any difference.

Clausal postmodifiers are used differently by Thai writers and British writers. Thai writers used clausal postmodifiers much more often than British writers do. Relative clauses are the most common clausal postmodifiers, to-clauses is the second one, ed-clauses is the third, and ing-clauses is the last common type. According to the comparison, the first three common clausal postmodifiers show a significant difference in terms of frequency of occurrence. Only ing-clauses do not show the difference.

Restrictive relative clauses are frequently used in Thai English articles and they are the main cause for the quantitative difference. The explanation for the ways that Thai writers used relative clauses differently from British writers is provided. Also, preferences for relative pronouns are discussed.

For the two non-finite clausal postmodifiers that prove significant differences in their occurrence, again, they occur more frequently in Thai English articles than in British English articles. In addition, there are some certain differences found from the use of ed-clauses and to-clauses by Thai writers and British writers.

The differences found from the use of postmodifiers by Thai writers and British writers concerns several points. The main reason that Thai writers favour postmodifiers should be their quality of explicitness. It seems that Thai writers highly value the clarity of the head noun and also of modifying units. Not only by using large number of modifiers, but also Thai writers prefer to make things clear by using explicit types and complicated modifiers containing layers of additional information.

With higher numbers of relative clauses in Thai English articles than in British English articles together with the mentioned characteristics of lengthy sentences in Thai language, great number of complex sentences used in Thai English articles can be expected. In the next chapter, the findings in terms of sentence constructions that occur in Thai English articles and in British English articles are to be discussed.



**Note:**

1. Premodifiers of 'others' category found in this study are only adverbs. To have 'others' as a name of this category is to purposively leave some room for other possible word classes.

2. The 'etc' group covers all minor preposition heads that have specific meanings and occur rarely in TEA and BEA. The following table provides information on the preposition heads of the 'etc' group in TEA and BEA.

<b>Preposition head ('etc' group)</b>	<b>TEA</b>	<b>BEA</b>
about	0.48%	0.96%
above	0.00%	0.24%
after	0.00%	0.24%
along	0.72%	0.48%
among	0.48%	0.00%
around	0.48%	0.72%
as	0.72%	0.96%
at	0.96%	0.72%
behide	0.24%	0.00%
between	0.24%	0.72%
beyond	0.48%	0.48%
by	0.72%	0.72%
down	0.00%	0.96%
during	0.48%	0.24%
including	0.48%	0.24%
like	0.48%	0.00%
near	0.48%	0.72%
next to	0.48%	0.00%
off	0.00%	0.24%
outside	0.00%	0.24%
under	0.48%	0.48%
over	0.48%	0.00%
through	0.24%	0.72%
within	0.72%	0.48%
without	0.96%	0.72%
towards	0.72%	0.24%

3. In both TEA and BEA, 'which' is always used in non-restrictive relative clauses. 'That' never occurs with this type. Thus, it is clear that non-restrictive relative clause is not a point to consider.