



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses related literature that is useful for constructing a theoretical framework for the study. The discussion begins with concepts of world Englishes including nativisation and some studies on Thai variety of English. Then, linguistic principles on noun modifiers and sentence constructions of English and Thai languages are presented. In order to prove the distinctive characteristics of Thai English as results of nativisation process, discussion on cultural frameworks, Thai language culture, as well as norms of communication is given.

2.1 World Englishes

2.1.1 General concept of world Englishes

“A language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country.”

Crystal (1997 p. 2)

According to Crystal, there are two main ways for people in every country to recognize the special roles of a language. Firstly, it is when the language is set as an official language of that country. That is, the language becomes a second language for people in the country who already have their first or native language. The second language is used as a medium of communication in some domains such as government, the law courts, the media, and the educational systems.

Secondly, the language is recognized as a special language that is taught as a foreign language to children in school; or adults in the country mostly know or learn it as a common foreign language. In this case, even though the language does not have any real use in general contexts, as much as in the country where the language is a second language, it still seems important for people in the country to learn and know the language.

At present, English is a language that most people in the world know and use. The English language is set as a second language of many countries i.e. Ghana, Nigeria, India, Singapore etc. Moreover, English is the most common language to be taught as a foreign language in many countries such as Thailand, China, Russia, Germany, Spain etc. With this fact, it can be seen that English has developed a special role in various countries around the world. Global people in international contexts recognize its importance. Thus, there should be no doubt of the status of English as a global language.

For English to be a global language, its great status leads to several new varieties of English according to its users in different regions. For all varieties of English to be treated equally, the plural form “Englishes”, first coined by Kachru, is now accepted and used widely in the field of ‘World Englishes’.

Englishes in the world can be described by the three concentric circles proposed by Kachru (1992); namely the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle. The circles represent different ways in which English has been acquired and is currently used.

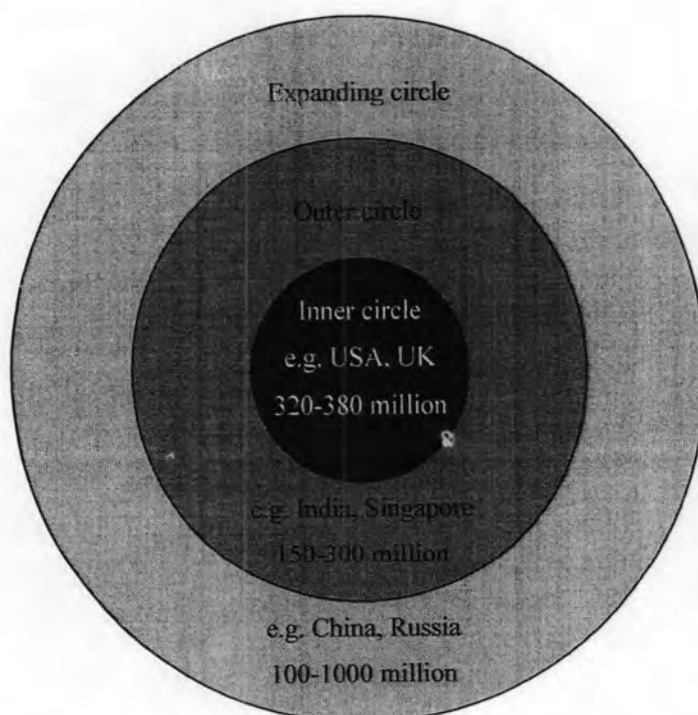


Figure 2.1 Kachru's three circles of English

Crystal (1977, p. 53) provides description of the three circles as follows.

“*The inner circle* refers to the traditional bases of English, where it is the primary language: it includes the USA, UK, Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

The outer circle or extended circle involves the earlier phases of the spread of English in non-native setting, where language has become part of a country’s chief institutions, and plays an important ‘second language’ role in a multilingual setting: it includes Singapore, India, Malawi, and over fifty other territories.

The expanding circle involves those nations which recognize the important of English as an international language, though they do not have a history of colonization by members of the inner circle, nor have they given English as a special administrative status. It includes China, Japan, Greece, Poland, and (as the name of this circle suggests) a steadily increasing number of other states. In these areas, English is taught as a foreign language.”

In a discussion of world Englishes, the focus is generally placed on new English varieties of users in the outer circle in comparison with those varieties of users in the inner circle. According to McKay (2002, p. 134), the explanation of the term ‘world Englishes’ is given as “...varieties of English spoken in outer circle countries in which the wide spread use of English has led to the development of particular standards of use. They are also called ‘nativised varieties’ of English.”

Hence, it leaves some questions on English varieties of users in the expanding circle. Kachru suggests that in order for Englishes to claim for their own nativised varieties, users of English in those communities should use English enough in certain range and depth. According to Kachru (1998, p.92), “*range* refers to the domains of function and *depth* refers to the degree of social penetration of the language”. With this notion, it can be assumed that if English is used enough; even though it is used in the expanding circle, it is possible for that English to obtain a status as a nativised variety.

McArthur (2002, p.3) describes two main factors that strengthened the role of English in non-native areas, especially Asia: “first, the efforts of ministries of

education worldwide to provide English-as-a-second-language programmes for their school populations; second, the determination of millions of non-native-speaking parents to get English for their children from the earliest possible age, with or without state help". He also mentions that even though there are only few indigenous mother-tongue English communities in Asia, the use of English has been significantly extending.

However, there has long been a controversial topic of Englishes in the expanding circle whether they should be regarded as varieties of international English or interlanguage (IL). Davies (1989) defines EIL as any one of the standard varieties across the world, while IL as learner's systematic approximations toward the target language.

To be counted as a variety of EIL, that English should be able to prove for its standard. McArthur mentions 'prestige' as a key for the standard variety. This means, the users of that standard variety should be proud for being owners and users of it. They feel that their English is not inferior to other standard varieties, even though they are not included in the inner circle. Apart from prestige, 'intelligibility' is also another point to be considered for the standard variety of EIL.

Hence, the discussion of nativised varieties of English should not be limited to only Englishes in the inner circle or the outer circle. In fact, if any Englishes in the expanding circle can prove itself to be standard, by definition of McArthur, that English should also be accepted as a variety of world Englishes.

This section has discussed main concepts of world Englishes. In the section, the term 'nativised variety' of English is frequently used. To obtain a nativised variety of English, the language should have been through the process of 'nativisation'. Details of nativisation and nativised variety of English are to be discussed in the following section.

2.1.2 Nativisation and nativised varieties of English

A concept of nativisation has been discussed by many scholars in the field of world Englishes. Kachru (1992) discusses the process of nativisation that it occurs when a language is used in different places by different groups of people. People will use the language to serve their needs in communication in their own

cultural contexts. As a result, the language used in different communities will have their own characteristics in accordance with several particular factors in each community. According to Kachru, the nativised varieties of a language should be viewed as the productive linguistic innovations that make the language different rather than deficiency.

In Kachru (1986), the differences in language use can be determined by the localized functions of a second language variety, the “culture of conversation” and communicative strategies in new situations, and the “transfer” from local languages. In addition, nativisation can also occur because of some other reasons for example acquisition limitations, inadequate teaching, the lack of a consistent model for practice, and a political reason in the past that the colonizers wanted to maintain the “language distance” between them and the “non-ingroup”.

Widdowson (1993) discusses that the use of language “is not simply a means of communication but the symbolic possession of a particular community, expressive of its identity, its conventions and values.” (Jenkins, 2003: p.165)

He suggests that all languages have the ‘dual character’ that is “they provide the means for communication and at the same time express the sense of community, represent the stability of its conventions and values, in short, its culture.”

The concept of dual character proposed by Widdowson can be a good explanation for the nativisation of a language. When non-native speakers in the non-native community use English, they would use it as a mean for communication and also they would show their identity through the use of the language.

As a result, when the language is used in the new environment, the features or characteristics of the original language would be changed in order to serve the new functions in the new contexts.

Jenkins (2003) uses the term “new Englishes” for the nativised varieties of English. The new Englishes are the result of the spread of English to many different regions. When the language is used in new places, the differences would occur because of the influence from the indigenous language - in all levels such as pronunciation, lexis, syntax, and so on, the influence from the native culture of the new place, and also the acquisition of the language. Jenkins points out that “the new Englishes should be considered in their own right, and not in terms of their differences from a standard variety.” (p.22)

Jenkins then defines new English in accordance with Platt et al. (1984) as follows.

1. It has developed through the education system. This means that it has been taught as a subject and, in many cases, also used as a medium of instruction in regions where languages other than English were the main language.
2. It has developed in an area where a native variety of English was not the language spoken by most of the population.
3. It is used for a range of functions among those who speak or write it in the region where it is used.
4. It has become 'localised' or 'nativised' by adopting some language features of its own, such as sound, intonation patterns, sentence structures, words, and expressions.

In the contexts of non-native speaking countries, the English language is used, developed, and mostly taught by non-native speakers; therefore, the language would gain new functions to serve local communication. Thus, the new Englishes would have their own characteristics.

Even though Thai English is not now clearly accepted as new or nativised variety of English, by comparison with the above criteria, it is found that standard Thai English can easily be identified for the first three criteria of Jenkins' new Englishes. In order to claim Thai English as one variety of world Englishes, the last point, 'nativisation' needs to be proven. Therefore, for this research to make a contribution to the field, it aims to provide evidence showing that distinctive characteristics of Thai English are results of nativisation. Then, Thai English, to some certain degree, can be claimed as a nativised or a new variety of world Englishes.

2.1.3 Related studies on Thai variety of English

For over a decade, research studies on Thai English have been a point of interest for many scholars. They have tried to explain Thai English and its distinctive characteristics in various points, using various methods. Followings are a brief review of studies on Thai English.

Chutisilp (1984) conducts a dissertation on “A Sociolinguistic Study of an Additional Language : English in Thailand”. In her study, she aimed to present the overall picture of the use of English by Thai people as an additional language in Thai contexts. Data used in her study were collected from two English newspapers in Thailand, two Thai magazines, and four original and translated novels. The methodology used in her study was content analysis.

The results of her study confirm that English use in a Thai context has certain distinctive characteristics. Thais tend to transfer their cultural and social notions to the use of English. In terms of word use, there are certain characteristics such as translation, shifts, lexical borrowing, hybridization, and reduplication. There are also differences in the discourse style of Thai English writing which are transferred from Thai ways of writing presented in her study. She points out that the characteristics of the discourse style of Thai English writing are 1) long sentences, 2) one-sentence paragraphs, 3) figurative descriptions, 4) pretentious words, and 5) wordiness.

Navarat (1989) studied characteristics of Thai varieties of English in business news in newspapers. In her work, she compared business news in a Thai English newspaper: *The Nation* with business news in an American newspaper: *The Wall Street Journal*. She used the method of discourse analysis to compare her data. She counted for the frequency of occurrence of abbreviation, nominalization, passive construction with ‘by’, and personal pronouns. She concluded in her study that English business news in Thailand is more formal than business news in America. The findings show that Thai English business news uses fewer abbreviations but more nominalizations and passive constructions.

Comparative study of Thai English and native speaker English in terms of cohesive features was done by Pingkarawat (2002). She studies “Cohesive Features in Documentary Articles from English Newspapers in Thailand and in America”. She aimed to compare the use of cohesive devices in documentary articles from English newspaper in Thailand: the *Bangkok Post* and in America: the *Herald Tribune*. Halliday and Hasan’s framework for cohesion analysis (1976) was used in the study. The findings show that English documentary articles in Thai newspapers have higher numbers of repetitions and demonstratives as cohesive devices than those in American newspapers. Moreover, with respect to the types of *tie distance* (the

distance between a cohesive device and its antecedent): *immediate*, *mediated*, and *non-mediated*, documentary articles in Thailand and in America show the differences. Cohesive devices in documentary articles from American newspapers exhibit uniformity across subcategories, all types of cohesive devices occur most in the mediated and non-mediated type of distance. In contrast, in documentary articles in Thai newspaper, repetitions and synonyms occur most in the non-mediated type while collocations occurs most in the immediate type of distance. Her study has proven that there is a characteristic in terms of the use of cohesive devices to distinguish the Thai variety from the American variety.

Another study on characteristics of Thai English was conducted by Vadhanasindhu (2002). The topic of her study was “Contrastive Discourse Analysis and Reader Perception of Newspaper Editorials in Thai and English”. She primarily aimed to describe the results of a comparison of newspaper editorials in Thai written by native speakers of Thai, in English written by both native speakers and non-native speakers of English published in Thailand, and in English written by native speakers of English published in America. For her primary aim, she used the method of text analysis for the comparison of the data. Her secondary aim was to explore the readers perceptions relating to English-language editorials in Thailand and America. For this, she used a questionnaire to obtain a response from Thai and American subjects.

The results of her study show that Thai texts are more linguistically complex than English. English-language editorials published in Thailand are more similar to English-language editorials published in America than to Thai-language editorials. For the point of perception, most of the America subjects could answer correctly about the place of publication of the editorials, while Thai subjects' answers were only at the level of a chance. American subjects mentioned that editorials written by native speakers have linear organization, strong voice, certain grammatical structures and certain idiomatic expressions.

According to the above presentation, studies on Thai English have been done in several aspects. Obviously, the findings illustrate different features of Thai English, in comparison to another native variety. Likewise, this study aims to prove some further distinctive characteristics of Thai English, basing on the concept of nativisation. Distinctive features in terms of noun modifiers and sentence construction are to be identified and discussed. Thus, the findings add some more knowledge of

Thai English in terms of its characteristics. Furthermore, the results from this study should signal some proofs for nativisation of Thai English. So, they can be parts of the evidence to confirm the existence of a Thai English variety.

2.2 Noun modification

Nouns are a universal unit of any languages. Users of a language have words for naming or referring to things. To identify a thing, modifiers are needed. Hence, noun modifiers are also common elements and people of different languages have their methods to use noun modifiers.

Since one of the main objectives of this study is to compare the use of noun modifiers in Thai and British English, theories on noun modifiers in English language need to be reviewed. Furthermore, background knowledge on the Thai system of nouns and noun modification is also required for further discussion on nativisation.

2.2.1 Noun modifiers in English

A noun phrase is an element in sentences that is used to refer to people or things. Typically in sentences, the noun phrase can function as subject, object, and complement.

In English, basic components of the noun phrase consist of determiner, (premodification), head noun, and (postmodification and complementation); where the elements in parentheses are optional. However, if the head noun is a pronoun or a common noun in plural forms, the determiner can be omitted.

Since the use of modification units of the head noun is optional, it might vary according to the purpose of the user of the language in certain contexts. Thus, it is interesting to explore the use of noun modification.

Noun modifiers can be divided into two broad types based on positions: premodifiers and postmodifiers. Both types function in a noun phrase as elements which make reference or add further information to the head noun. Premodifiers are placed before a head noun they modify while postmodifiers after.

2.2.1.1 Premodifiers

In Quirk et al. (1972), premodifiers can be divided into two broad categories namely, closed-system premodifiers and open-system premodifiers. Closed-system premodifiers are those words that commonly provide some grammatical meanings or references to the noun they modify. On the other hand, open-system premodifiers are those words that provide added information to the noun they modify. Words in the closed-system class are limited in number and their use is restricted by grammar rules. In contrast, words in the open-system class are numerous and their use is more flexible. Words in the two classes (closed-system and open-system) can be also referred to as parts of function words and content words accordingly.

According to Quirk et al. (1972), the closed-system premodifiers can be subdivided into six groups which are predeterminer, article, determiner, ordinal, cardinal, and quantifiers. The following table demonstrates some examples of each subgroup of closed-system premodifiers.

Table 2.1 Examples of closed-system premodifiers

Closed-system premodifiers	Examples
predeterminer	all, both, half, (multipliers such as) double, twice, tree times..., (fraction such as) one-third, one-fifth
determiner	articles, this, that, those, these, no, what, every, each, such, some, many, possessive(my, his,her...), either, niether, any, enough, etc.
ordinal	first, second, third etc.
cardinal	one, two, three etc.
quantifier	a large numbers of (students), a lot of (people), a slice of (cake) etc.

Closed-system premodifiers do not really provide further information to describe characteristics of the head noun; in fact, it is mainly used to serve the grammar system. In some new syntactic theory, minimalist, this class can be viewed separately from the noun phrase as a determiner phrase. According to their limited

function, closed-system premodifiers are not taken into the main discussion of the study. Thus, elaborated details on the use of this class would not be provided. Further in discussion of this study, the term 'premodifiers' should refer to only those open-system premodifiers.

In terms of open-system premodifiers, common premodifiers of a head noun are adjectives and nouns. In addition to adjectives and nouns, adjectival units, the present- and past participle forms of verbs: -ing adjective and -ed adjective (as called in *Collins Cobuild English Grammar*), and noun genitive ('s) can also be used to pre-modify a head noun.

<i>Examples</i>	<i>adjective</i> : a <u>pretty</u> girl
	<i>noun</i> : my <u>trouser</u> pocket
	<i>-ing adjective</i> : a <u>welcoming</u> smile
	<i>-ed adjective</i> : a <u>satisfied</u> customer
	<i>- 's genitive</i> : the <u>boy's</u> shirt

Nouns and -'s genitive can only be placed, as a noun modifier, in front of a noun that they modify while adjectives and adjectival units can be placed either before or after the head noun.

The use of nouns as modifiers of the head noun is mentioned as a productive feature. It is common in English to use a noun as a modifier of another noun and almost every noun can be used as a noun modifier. The noun modifiers can be used to indicate a wide range of relationships between the two nouns e.g. what something is made of: 'a silk dress', what is made in a particular place: 'a glass factory', what someone does: 'a football player', where something is: 'my bedroom curtain', when something happens: 'the morning mist', and also the nature or size of something: 'a surprise attack' (*Collins Cobuild English Grammar*).

However, if the use of two nouns produces a fixed expression naming common things and used regularly, it will be referred to as compound nouns rather

than a 'noun (as modifier) + noun' construction: e.g. credit card, bus stop, can opener, address book, etc. Therefore, the compound noun will be viewed as a unit of the head noun, not a noun as a modifier of another noun.

Possession in English can be presented in two forms – *'s genitive* and *of genitive*. *'s genitive* is used as a premodifier of a noun while *of genitive* is used as a postmodifier. Quirk et al. (1972) mention that the selection for the use of *'s genitive* and *of genitive* is sometimes overlapping. It is suggested that the *'s genitive* is normally used with animate nouns, especially human. However, inanimate nouns can also take *'s genitive* if the user wants to give prominence to the modifying noun e.g. '*Hollywood's studio empty*' and '*the studio of Hollywood empty*'. According to this, it can be seen that *of genitive* can sometimes replace *'s genitive* for some reasons. However, this does not mean that *'s genitive* can also sometimes replace *of genitive*. To do so, we have to think of the subjective and objective characteristics of the genitive. With objective genitive, replacement of *of genitive* by *'s genitive* may be uncommon or unnatural.

For example '*The love of power*' cannot be *'*Power's love*'

The replacement of *'s genitive* for *of genitive*, in this case, can be accepted when the head noun is a nominalised verb.

For example '*The imprisonment of the murderer*' can be '*The murderer's imprisonment*'

Adjectives and adjectival participles are used to modify nouns. They are different in a way that adjectives describe general characteristics of the noun while participles describe actions or states of the noun.

Generally, adjectives and adjectival units are placed before a head noun as pre-modifiers. However, it is usual for them to be put after the noun.

For example *Soldiers timid or cowardly don't fight well.*

Quirk et al. (1972) explain that the postposition of adjectives can usually be regarded as a reduced relative clause. Therefore, for ‘Soldiers timid or cowardly don’t fight well’ can be understood as ‘Soldiers (who are) timid or cowardly don’t fight well. Furthermore, indefinite pronouns ending in *-body*, *-one*, *-thing*, and *-where* can be modified only postpositively.

For example *something large*

The position of adjectives and participles as modifiers in a noun phrase signals some underlying meanings. Mostly, if the adjectives are placed after the head noun, they will have only temporary application. Thus, if they are placed before the head noun, the status described should be more permanent.

For example ‘*the stars visible*’ refers to stars that are visible at a time specified or implied.

But

‘*the visible stars*’ refers to a category of stars that can be seen.

In noun phrases, it is common for a head noun to be pre-modified by several modifiers. The following table suggests the natural order of premodifiers of the head noun.

Table 2.2 Premodification

determiners	general	age	colour	participle	provenence	noun	denominal	head
etc.								
the	hectic						social	life
the	extravagant					London	social	life
a				crumbling		church		tower
a			grey	crumbling	Gothic	church		tower
some	intricate	old		interlocking	Chinese			designs
a	small		green	carved		jade		idol
his	heavy	new					moral	responsibilities

(Quirk et al. 1972)

Empirical study on the use of premodifiers

Biber et al. (1999) – in comparing the use of modifiers among four registers: conversation, fiction, news, and academic prose – suggest that premodifiers are three or four times more common in expository written registers than in conversation. Among the four common types of premodifiers: *adjectives*, *nouns*, *ing-adjective*, and *ed-adjectives* ('s genitive is not mentioned in this comparison), common adjectives are the most common type of premodifiers in all registers. Nouns are the second common type in all registers. The other two are rather uncommon in comparison with adjectives and nouns. It is also noted that ed-adjectives are more common in academic prose than in other registers.

In addition, the length of sequence of premodifiers is also discussed. In all registers, one word premodifiers are most preferable (70-80%). About 20% of head nouns have 2-word modifiers. Only 2% of the overall head nouns have 3-word or 4 or more-word premodifiers.

According to the above information, we can see that in English the most common types of premodifiers of nouns are adjectives and nouns. Participles, -ing and -ed forms, can function as premodifiers but they are less preferable. The lengthy premodifiers, in terms of the number of words, seem not to be that common.

2.2.1.2 Postmodifiers

Postmodifiers of a head noun can be divided to three general types: words, phrases, and clauses. The word type of postmodifiers has already been discussed in the earlier section, the adjectives and adjectival elements. Phrases as postmodifiers of nouns are those of prepositional phrases. Lastly, clauses as postmodifiers can be further divided into two different types: *finite postmodifying clause*: relative clause and appositive clause, and *non-finite postmodifying clause*: to-clause, ing-clause, and ed-clause.

Quirk et al (1972) describe that the prepositional phrases are the most common type of noun postmodifiers in English. The study of Biber et al. (1999) also supports that prepositional phrases are the most common type of noun postmodifiers in all registers (65-80%). Even though prepositional phrases may lack the quality of explicitness comparing to the use of clausal modifiers e.g. they do not give

information about tense and aspect, when the context is clear, the preposition phrases might be more preferable because they are more compact than clausal postmodifiers.

2.2.1.2.1 Prepositional phrases

According to Quirk et al. (1985), the prepositional phrase is the commonest type of post modification in English. Its meaning can naturally be related to be-sentences. For example, 'the car *outside the station*' can be related to 'the car *is outside the station*'. The followings are examples of prepositional phrase as postmodifiers of head nouns.

the road *to Lincoln*

a man *from the electric company*

two years *before the war*

The prepositional phrase as a noun postmodifier can be either restrictive (the modifier is important for the identification of the head noun) or nonrestrictive (the modifier is not that important for the identification of the head noun i.e. it can be omitted):

The children *behind the fence* jeered at the soldiers.
(Restrictive)

The children, *behind the fence*, jeered at the soldiers.
(Non-restrictive)

The non-restrictive prepositional phrases can be moved in front of the head noun as in '*Behind the fence*, the children jeered at the soldiers'. However, the interpretation of the non-restrictive phrase is poised between postmodifier and adverbial. Hence, in this study, the prepositional phrase to be counted as noun modifier is only the restrictive one.

2.2.1.2.2 Clauses

Clausal postmodifiers can be classified into two main categories: finite clauses and non-finite clauses. Finite clauses are those of relative clauses, which can

be sub-classified as restrictive and non-restrictive, and appositive clause. Non-finite clauses are those of ing-participle clauses, ed-participle clauses, and infinitive clauses.

Finite clauses: restrictive relative clause, non-restrictive relative clause and appositive clause

Relative clauses are clauses added to the main clause in order to modify the noun preceding them. Relative clauses are added to main clauses by using relative pronouns. However, relative pronouns can sometimes be omitted. Common relative pronouns are 'who', 'that', 'which', and zero (an omission of relative pronoun). There are also minor groups of relative pronouns which are other wh-words. Quirk et al. (1972) mention that the selection of relative pronouns may depend on types of head nouns and styles. Generally, 'who' is used with nouns that refer to people, 'which' is used with nouns that refer to things, and 'that' can be used with any kinds of head nouns. However, it is mentioned that if the head noun is more complex than 'determiner + noun', 'which' is more preferable than 'that' e.g. 'I have interests outside my immediate work and its problems which I find satisfying'. Also, if the head noun is simple and the subject of the relative clause is a personal pronoun, zero tends to be preferred e.g. 'The milk I bought has gone sour'. In terms of style, it is mentioned that 'wh-relative pronoun' is more preferable in formal style while 'that' and 'zero' are less preferable respectively. In other words, for less formal style 'that' may be selected instead of 'which' or 'who' and it is very common in informal style to omit the relative pronoun.

Relative clauses can be restrictive and non-restrictive. The restrictive relative clause is a modifier that is necessary for the identification of the head noun. That is, if it is taken off, the identification of the head noun will be unclear. In contrast, the non-restrictive relative clause is a clause that is not really significant in the identification of the noun. It is added only to provide added information to the head noun. Hence, if it is cut off, there is no effect on the identification of the head noun. According to the study of Biber et al. (1999), 'that' and 'zero' rarely occur in non-restrictive relative clauses.

The appositive clause is different from relative clauses in a way that it is not added to the main clause with a purpose to identify or provide more information to the head noun. In fact, it acts as a clause that refers to the same thing as the head

noun. Biber et al. (1999) suggests that appositive clauses are almost always non-restrictive in their functions.

Below are examples of restrictive relative clause, non-restrictive relative clause, and appositive clause.

Restrictive relative clause: Children who have been good will get many presents.

The relative clause specifies the group of children i.e. not all children will get many presents.

Non-restrictive relative clause: His children, who are playing outside, are clever.

It is assumed that the reader or listener has already known who 'his children' refers to.

Appositive clause: The fact that she loves him annoys me.

'she loves him' is the content of fact.

Non-finite clauses: ing-participle clauses, ed-participle clauses, and infinitive clauses.

Non-finite clauses are postmodifiers that obtained blurred relationships (Quirk et al, 1972). That is the explicitness of the clauses can be reduced. With this type of post modifiers, the meaning can be interpreted in many different ways.

ing-participle clause: The man writing the obituary is my friend.

Interpretation:

The man who	}	will write will be writing writes is writing wrote was writing	}	the obituary is my friend.
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ed-participle clause: The only car repaired by that mechanic is mine.

Interpretation: The only car that $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{will be repaired} \\ \text{is being repaired} \\ \text{was being repaired} \end{array} \right\}$ by that mechanic is mine.

infinitive clause: He wants a girl to finish the cleaning.

Interpretations: He wants a girl who will finish the cleaning.

He wants a girl in order that she will finish the cleaning.

He wants a girl in order that he can finish the cleaning (with her help).

(Quirk et al, 1972)

It can be assumed that people use this type of postmodifiers when they aim to blur or neutralize the distinction between noun phrase modification and certain other types of construction. As in the given examples, we may not want to give any emphasis to tense or process of the modifying parts. However, it can be seen that the non-finite clauses as postmodifiers can cause ambiguity in the interpretation. Thus, this kind of modifiers should be used when the context is clear or there is no high requirement of explicitness.

2.2.1.3 Pre- and post modifiers vs. head nouns

For one head noun, numbers and types of modifiers are not limited. However, the study of Biber et al. (1999) shows that in general a head noun rarely has modifiers, especially in conversation. The use of noun modifiers is more frequent and common in news and academic prose. However, a head noun rarely have both pre- and post modification within the same time. It is also discussed that when the noun is already known, there is no need of modification. As in conversation, generally the interlocutors make reference to thing or people all the time and they mostly have shared knowledge. Furthermore, the use of noun modification also depends on types

of head nouns. The following table shows the relationships between the use of modifiers and types of head nouns.

Table 2.3 Co-occurrence of premodifiers vs. postmodifiers with different head noun types

head type	use with	use with
	premodifiers	postmodifiers
common noun	common	common
pronoun one	moderate	very common (in writing)
indefinite pronoun	rare	common
proper noun	rare	rare (except news)
personal pronoun	rare	rare
demonstrative pronoun	rare	rare
those	unattested	very common (in writing only)
other demonstrative pronoun	unattested	relatively rare

(Biber et al., 1999)

In conclusion, noun modification in English language can be divided into two main types according to their positions: premodification and postmodification. The noun modification can be restrictive or non-restrictive. The use of modifiers can be different depending on registers, purposes, and styles of writing. In addition, types of head noun also have some relation to the use of noun modifiers.

2.2.2 Noun modifiers in Thai

2.2.2.1 Classification of head nouns in Thai

In order to identify noun modifiers in the Thai language, the types of head nouns should be reviewed. Panupong (1970) divides head nouns in the Thai language into 6 types:

1. A simple noun

ช้อน	กระดาษ
chon	kradart
(spoon)	(paper)

2. A pronoun

ฉัน	ไหน
chan	nai
(I)	(where)

3. A compound noun

คนไทย
khon thai
(Thai people)

4. A sequence of two nouns either with or without a nominal linker

- *without a nominal linker*

บ้านเพื่อน
ban puean
(a friend's house)

- *with a nominal linker*

ไข่กะนม
khai ka nom
(eggs and milk)

5. A sequence of two pronouns or a noun and a pronoun, with a nominal linker

- two pronouns with a nominal linker

เชอกะเรา

thoe ka rao

(you and I) or (you and me)

- a noun and a pronoun, with a nominal linker

ดนตรีกะเรา

dontri ka rao

(music and I)

6. A sequence of three nouns with two linkers in between, or a sequence of two nouns and a pronoun with two linkers in between

- three nouns with two linkers in between

ถุงเท้าหรือรองเท้าของพ่อ

thungthao rue rongthao khong po

(father's socks or shoes)

- two nouns and a pronoun with two linkers in between

ปากกาและดินสอของเธอ

pakka ka dinso khong thoe

(a pen and pencil of yours)

2.2.2.2 Classification of noun modifiers in Thai

In the use of noun-modifiers in the Thai language, it is normally suggested that the modifier should occur immediately after the noun that it modifies. Consider the following sentences;

- a. มีทุนการศึกษา มอบให้แก่ นักศึกษา ในมหาวิทยาลัยต่างๆ ที่ยากจน
mi tun kan sueksa mop hai kae naksueksa nai mahawitthayalai tang tang thi yakchon
have scholarship given to students in universities that are poor
(scholarship given to students in universities that are poor)
- b. มีทุนการศึกษา มอบให้แก่ นักศึกษา ที่ยากจน ในมหาวิทยาลัยต่างๆ
mi tun kan sueksa mop hai kae naksueksa thi yakchon nai mahawitthayalai tang tang
scholarship given to students that are poor in universities
(There is a scholarship given to students in universities who are poor.)

In sentence a. and b., the underlined clause is a modifier. In sentence a., there seems to be ambiguity in interpretation. The clausal modifier can be interpreted as either modifying the noun ‘นักศึกษา’ (naksueksa : students) or ‘มหาวิทยาลัยต่างๆ’ (mahawitthayalai tang tang : universities). Therefore, to make it better, the modifier should be placed right after the noun that it modifies. In sentence b., the modifier is clearly understood as a modifier of the noun ‘นักศึกษา’ (naksueksa : students).

Noun modifiers in Thai can only be placed after the head nouns. In other words, there are only postmodifiers used to modify head nouns in Thai language.

Panupong (1970) describes that noun phrases in Thai consist of five elements which are *head*, *intransitive modifier*, *adjunctive modifier*, *quantifier*, and *determinative*. Apart from the head, Jotikasthira (1972) specifies the later four elements as modifiers of nouns. In her work, she terms them as the *intransitive modifier*, *the downgraded sentence*, *the quantifier*, and *the determinative*, respectively. It should be noted that in Panupong and Jotikasathira the terms referring to the second type of noun modifiers are different: *adjunctive modifier* and *the downgraded sentence* respectively. Actually, these different terms refer to the same

type of noun modifiers in the Thai language. For Panupong, the term *downgraded sentence* refers to the whole noun phrase (head noun + adjunctive modifier). Later in this study, Panupong's term *downgraded sentence* is to be used in describing Thai sentence construction. In discussion of noun modifiers; even though it follows the classification proposed by Jotikasathira (1972), the term *adjunctive modifier*, proposed by Panupong (1970), is used instead of the term *the downgraded sentence*.

2.2.2.2.1 The intransitive modifier

Phraya Uppakritsilpasarn (cited in Jotikasthira, 1972, p. 100-101) calls intransitive modifiers as 'คำวิเศษณ์' (kamwiset). He mentions that in the English language intransitive modifiers can be divided into adjective classes and adverb classes because the English language has different forms of words for the two groups. However, in the Thai language, there is only a single form of word acting for those two functions. Therefore, it should not be classified into subcategories as in the English language.

To make it easier to understand and for the sake of comparison between noun-modifiers in English and Thai, in this section, intransitive modifiers will be referred to as adjectives. However, it should be noticed that in Thai, words classified as adjectives in English may sometimes act as an intransitive verb rather than an adjective if they are placed in a position of verb of a sentence. For example, in a Thai sentence 'ฉันหิว' (chan hio : I hungry), the word 'หิว' (hio) or 'hungry' in Thai sentence should be viewed as an intransitive verb rather than an adjective. The words will be viewed as adjectives only if they are used to modify a noun in a noun phrase construction e.g. 'หมาหิวตัวนั้น' (ma hio tua nan : dog hungry classifier that, 'that hungry dog'). The same word 'หิว' (hio) in this case can be viewed as an adjective.

The structure of the noun phrase having intransitive modifiers as a modifier of a noun follows the rule of adding modifiers in Thai language. That is the modifying unit must be placed after the noun that it modifies. The following are examples of noun phrases that are modified by intransitive modifiers.

นักเรียนยากจน

nakrian yakchon

student poor

a poor student

ดอกไม้สวย

dokmai suai

flower beautiful

a beautiful flower

2.2.2.2.2 The adjunctive modifier

The ‘adjunctive modifier’ or ‘downgraded sentence’, in Jotikasathira, is a sentence that the status of which is reduced. This means, instead of being a sentence, its status is changed to be a dependent clause of a sentence. The adjunctive modifier can be constructed by adding a *relative linker* to the sentence. According to the given definition, it seems that the adjunctive modifier is, somewhat, equivalent to the relative clause in English language. The structure of the adjunctive modifier is shown as follows.

adjunctive modifier = relative linker + sentence

Common relative linkers in the Thai language are ‘ที่’ (thi), ‘ซึ่ง’ (sueng), ‘อัน’ (an).

To modify a noun, the adjunctive modifier is added immediately after the noun. Then, the structure of a noun phrase having it as a modifier will be as follows.

Noun phrase : noun + downgraded sentence

The followings are examples of noun phrases that have the adjunctive modifier as a modifier.

คน ซึ่ง + เกียจคร้าน

khon sueng + kiatkran

man relative linker + lazy

(a man who is lazy)

ม้า ที่ + ฉันขาย

ma thi + chan kai

Horse relative linker + I sell

(a horse that I sell)

ค่ำคืน อัน + แสนหวาน

kamkuen an + san wan

Night relative linker + very sweet

(a night that is very sweet)

Tianchareon (1987) mentions that the use of the three types of relative linkers, ‘ที่’ (thi), ‘ซึ่ง’ (sueng), ‘อัน’ (an), varies according to the degree of formality. ‘ที่’ (thi) occurs in all contexts, and it seems to be less formal. ‘ซึ่ง’ (sueng) occurs in semiformal contexts and ‘อัน’ (an) occurs in formal contexts.

2.2.2.2.3 The quantifier

The quantifier is a kind of noun-modifiers used for adding further information about quantity to a noun that it modifies. A quantifier unit consists of a 'quantity word' and a 'classifier'. And sometimes a modifier of quantity words can also be added.

Quantity words are cardinal numbers, ordinal numbers, and words such as 'หลาย' (lai), 'บาง' (bang), 'เดียว' (diaw), 'กี่' (ki), and 'เท่าไร' (thaorai). There are two groups of modifiers of quantity words: modifiers that can occur before quantity word (e.g. 'ราว' (rao), 'อีก' (ik), 'ตั้ง' (tang), 'เพียง' (piang)) or modifiers that can occur after the quantity word (e.g. 'แรก' (raek), 'สุดท้าย' (sutthai), 'หน้า' (na), 'หลัง' (lang), 'เท่านั้น' (thaonan)).

The following are examples showing structures of each quantifier unit used to modify a noun.

- a. noun + quantifier [cardinal number + classifier]

ปฏิทิน 2 อัน

patithin 2 an

calendar 2 classifier

(2 calendars)

- b. noun + quantifier [classifier + ordinal number]

รถ คัน ที่ 2

rot kan thi 2

car classifier second

(the second car)

c. noun + quantifier [determiner + classifier]

เด็ก หลาย คน

dek lai khon

children many classifier

(many children)

d. noun + quantifier [modifier of quantifier + cardinal number + classifier]

แขก ราว 30 คน

khaek rao 30 khon

guest about 30 classifier

(about 30 guests)

e. noun + quantifier [cardinal number + classifier + modifier of quantifier]

สินค้า 10 ชิ้น สุดท้าย

sinkha 10 chin sutthai

goods 10 classifier last

(the last 10 goods)

2.2.2.2.4 The determinative

The determinative is a kind of noun modifiers added to specify the noun. In Thai, Jotikasthira (1972) mentions that there are two sets of the determinative. Determinatives in the first set are the words ‘นี่’ (ni), ‘นั่น’ (nan), and ‘โน้น’ (non). And in the second set, they are the words ‘นี้’ (ni), ‘นั้น’ (nan), and ‘โน้น’ (non). Words in the two sets determine the distance between a noun they modify and the speaker. ‘นี่’ (ni) and ‘นี้’ (ni) determine the nearest distance, ‘นั่น’ (nan) and ‘นั้น’

(nan) make the distance further, and ‘โน้น’ (non) and ‘โนน’ (non) determine furthest distance. The difference in the two sets concerns the use of them in the surface structure. That is, words in the first set can occur immediately after the classifier, while words in the second set cannot. The following are possible structures of noun phrase that have the determinative as a modifier unit.

Table 2.4 Structures of noun phrase with determinative as modifier

Structures	First set	Second set
noun + determinative	โต๊ะ / นี้ to / ni table / this (this table)	โต๊ะ / นี้ to / ni table / this (this table)
noun + quantifier + determinative	โต๊ะ / 2 ตัว / นี้ to / 2 tua / ni table / 2 classifier / this	โต๊ะ / 2 ตัว / นี้ to / 2 tua / ni table / 2 classifier / this
noun + classifier + intransitive modifier + determinative	โต๊ะ / ตัว /ใหญ่ / นี้ to / tua / yai / ni table / classifier / big / this (this big table)	โต๊ะ / ตัว /ใหญ่ / นี้ to / tua / yai / ni table / classifier / big / this (this big table)
noun + quantifier + intransitive modifier + determinative	โต๊ะ / 2 ตัว /ใหญ่ / นี้ to / 2 tua / yai / ni table / 2 classifier / big / this (this 2 big table)	โต๊ะ / 2 ตัว /ใหญ่ / นี้ to / 2 tua / yai / ni table / 2 classifier / big / this (this 2 big table)
noun + intransitive modifier + determinative	โต๊ะ /ใหญ่ / นี้ to / yai / ni table / big / this (this big table)	โต๊ะ /ใหญ่ / นี้ to / yai / ni table / big / this (this big table)
noun + classifier + determinative	โต๊ะ / ตัว / นี้ to / tua / ni table / classifier / this (this table)	-

Structures	First set	Second set
noun + intransitive modifier + classifier + determinative	โต๊ะ / ใหญ่ / ตัว / นี้ to / yai / tua / ni table/ big / classifier / this (this big table)	-
noun + classifier + intransitive modifier + classifier + determinative	โต๊ะ / ตัว / ใหญ่ / ตัว / นี้ to / tua / yai / tua / ni table/classifier/big/classifier / this (this big table)	-

In conclusion, it can be seen that nouns in the Thai language can be modified by adding four types of modifiers after head nouns. That is, in Thai there is no premodifiers of nouns. The four types of modifiers are the intransitive modifier, the downgraded sentence, the quantifier, and the determinative. One head noun can have more than one modifier. There are no stated rules for specific order of different types of modifiers in noun phrases. However, since intransitives can serve two functions: modifiers and intransitive verbs, the interpretation for functions of intransitives relies pretty much on the position of the words and their context. Therefore, when there is more than one modifier, for the intransitives to be interpreted as modifiers, they must occur immediately after the head noun. Or else, they would likely be interpreted as intransitive verbs.

For example	เสื้อ	สวย	(ตัวนั้น)	(ที่ฉันชอบ)
	suea	suai	(tua nan)	(thi chan chop)
	shirt	nice	(classifier)	(linker + I like)
	head noun	intransitive modifiers	determinative	downgraded sentence
				(that nice shirt which I like.)

But when the intransitive is moved to the end, it should be interpreted as an intransitive verb.

เสื้อ	(ที่ฉันชอบ)	(ตัวนั้น)	สวย
suea	(thi chan chop)	(tua nan)	suai
shirt	(linker + I like)	(that)	nice
head noun	downgraded sentence	determinative	intransitive verb
(that shirt I like is nice.)			

From the above examples, it can be observed that positions of the modifiers placed in parentheses are interchangeable. The arrangement of these modifiers depends on the emphasis given to each of the information that the modifiers provide. If the information is more emphasized, it should be placed closer to the head noun.

2.2.3 Noun modifiers in English vs. noun modifiers in Thai

This part attempts to provide a clear picture of differences and similarities on the noun modification systems and noun modifiers between English and Thai language. The following table shows the comparison. List of types of noun modifiers is based on those major categories classified in English.

Table 2.5 Comparison of noun modifiers in English and Thai language

Types of modifiers	English	Thai
<i>Premodifiers</i>	✓	-
Adjectives	✓	-
Noun adjuncts	✓	-
-‘s genitive	✓	-
<i>Postmodifiers</i>	✓	✓
Words (adjectives)	✓	✓
Phrases	✓	?/✓
Clauses	✓	?/✓

Explanations for the above table are as follows.

1. In English language a head noun can have both premodifiers and postmodifiers. But in Thai, only noun postmodifiers are allowed. In other words, there is no use of noun premodifiers at all in Thai language.

2. Noun postmodifiers are common in both English and Thai language.

3. Postmodifiers in English can occur in forms of words (e.g. adjective), phrases (e.g. prepositional phrase), and clauses (e.g. relative clause).

4. Postmodifiers in Thai are classified differently from those in English. Words as postmodifiers in Thai tend to be more similar to those in English, i.e. the so-called adjective (the intransitive modifiers) in Thai vs. adjectives in English. However, the Thai language has other categories for words as postmodifiers that do not exist in English, i.e. the quantifier and the determiner. However, in terms of meaning, these postmodifiers in Thai seem to be equivalent to those closed-system modifiers in English.

5. Phrasal postmodifiers in Thai are not clearly stated. In some constructions of the quantifiers and the determiner, group of words are used. But they seem to be fixed units rather than phrases. However, even unstated, those phrasal modifiers can be observed in Thai e.g. prepositional phrases เด็กในรถ (dek nai rot : ‘a boy in the car’), adjective phrase เขาใส่เสื้อผ้าแพงมาก (khao sai sueapha phang mak : ‘he wears very expensive cloths.’).

6. The Thai language tends to have only one type of clausal postmodifier classified: the adjunctive modifier, which is equivalent to English relative clause. In the Thai language, there is no verb inflection. Thus, the distinction of finite and non-finite verb does not exist. As a result, the use of non-finite clauses as postmodifiers cannot be stated.

The comparison shows that systems of noun modifications and types of noun modifiers in English and Thai tend to be different rather than similar. Therefore, it is interesting to explore whether these differences have any influence in the use of noun modifiers by Thai writers in their English writing.

2.3 Sentence constructions

This section aims to discuss different types of sentences in English language and in Thai language since this study focuses on similarities and differences between the use of sentences by Thai writers and British writers. Also, in order to do the comparison, concrete criteria for identification of sentence constructions must be stated, and they are based on the sentence constructions of English language.

2.3.1 English sentence constructions

Generally, sentences in English can be classified into four main types which are simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence, and compound-complex sentence. Sentence constructions, here, will be discussed in terms of clause(s) existing in sentences. Therefore, to explain sentence types elaborately, sound knowledge of clauses in English language is needed.

2.3.1.1 Clauses in English language

Clause is “a term used in some grammar to refer to a grammatical unit intermediate between PHRASE and SENTENCE. The distinctive feature of clauses is that they have a subject-predicate structure. A predicate is typically a claim or assertion made about a thing or person”. (Finch, 2000, p. 88)

In the simple form of clauses, a clause consists of common elements which are subject (S), verb (V), complement (C), object (O), and adverbial (A).

Another definition of clause given in *Collins Cobuild Student's Grammar* (1991) is "a group of words containing a verb". According to this, it is important that a clause should contain only one verb.

Quirk et al (1972) provide a general picture of simple clause patterns as follows.

Two-element: SV

e.g. *The child is laughing.*

Three-element: SV + $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} C \\ A \\ O \end{array} \right\}$

e.g. *Marry is kind.* (SVC)

Marry is in the house. (SVA)

Somebody caught the ball. (SVO)

Four-element: SVO + $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} C \\ A \\ O \end{array} \right\}$

e.g. *We have proved him wrong.* (SVOC)

I put the plate on the table. (SVOA)

She gives me expensive presents. (SVOO)

It is noted that in English an adverbial may be placed in various positions and its functions are also varied. But these do not cause any problem for identification of the sentence type.

Furthermore, clauses in English can be categorized into three main groups based on verbs. A clause can possess a finite verb, a non-finite verb or sometimes verb can be omitted. Thus, the three main classes of clause can be classified as finite clause, non-finite clause, and verbless clause.

Finite clause: A finite clause is a clause that contains a finite verb giving clear grammatical information (subject agreement, tense etc.). Moreover, a finite clause always contains a subject. In other words, it follows SV{OCA} construction.

e.g. because *John is working*

Non-finite clause: A non-finite clause is a clause that contains a non-finite verb making blurred grammatical information. This means, non-finite verbs do not clearly state their relations to other elements in the sentence. With non-finite forms of verbs, grammatical points, like subject agreement, tense, and so on, are not overtly presented. Grammatical information of non-finite verbs can usually be understood from the contexts or nearby elements. Therefore when the context is clear, the use of non-finite clause has its value in terms of compactness.

Non-finite clause can be subdivided into several classes as follows.

Infinitive with to

Without subject: *The best thing would be to tell everybody.*

With subject: *The best thing would be for you to tell everybody.*

Infinitive without to

Without subject: *All I did was hit him on the head.*

With subject: *Rather than John do it, I'd prefer to give the job to Mary.*

-ing participle

Without subject: *Leaving the room, he tripped over the mat.*

With subject: *Her aunt having left the room, I declared my passionate love for Celia.*

-ed participle

Without subject: *Covered with confusion, I left the room.*

With subject: *We left the room and went home, the job finished.*

Verbless clause: A verbless clause is a clause that has no verb. In addition, this type of clause is generally subjectless. Mostly the omitted verb can be assumed to be a form of verb to be and the omitted subject can be found from the context.

Without subject: *Too nervous to reply, he stared at the floor.*

With subject: *With the tree now tall, we get more shade.*

Since the types of clauses have been reviewed, the discussion of the English sentence constructions will be provided.

2.3.1.2 Sentences in English language

According to Finch (2000), sentences can be described as “grammatically complete units capable of standing on their own semantically independent”.

Sentences in the English language can be classified into four main types: simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence, and compound-complex sentence. In this part, each type of sentences will be discussed.

Simple sentence

Finegan (1999) describes that a simple sentence has one clause. Clauses usually consist of a noun group as the subject and a verb group. The verb group may be followed by another noun group, which is called the object (person or things affected by the action or situation). After linking verbs like ‘be’, ‘become’, ‘feel’ and ‘seem’, the verb group can be followed by a noun group or an adjective, called a complement.

According to the above information about clauses, it can be pointed out that when a complete finite clause - SV{CAO}- stands alone independently, it can be considered as a simple sentence.

e.g. *He became angry.*

The ice on the river melts quickly under the warm March sun.

Compound sentence

Compound sentences are sentences that consist of two or more independent clauses. The clauses in the compound sentence are equally important. They can be joined with a coordinating conjunction such as 'and', 'but', or 'or'.

Generally, the conjoined clauses in a compound sentence are in the forms of finite clause. However, in some cases, some element of the finite clause in a compound sentence can be omitted.

Quirk et al (1972) suggest possible cases for element omission in a compound sentence as follows.

Subject omission: When conjoined independent clauses share the same subject, the subject of the following clause(s) can be omitted.

e.g. *Mary washed the dishes, (Mary) dried them, and (Mary) put them in the cupboard.*

Subject and Auxiliary omission: When conjoined independent clauses share the same subject and auxiliary, the subject and auxiliary of the following clause(s) can be omitted.

e.g. *Alice is washing and (Alice is) dressing.*

Verb omission: When conjoined independent clauses share the same verb (in the identical form), the verb of the following clause(s) can be omitted.

e.g. *Alice is writing to her parents and Jack (is writing) to his friends.*

Subject and Verb omission: When conjoined independent clauses share the same subject and verb (in identical form), the subject and verb of the following clause(s) can be omitted.

e.g. *John made his first wife happy, but (John made) his second wife miserable.*

Predicate omission: When conjoined independent clauses share the same predicate, the predicate of the following clause(s) can be omitted.

e.g. *Joan will cook today and Zoo (will cook) tomorrow.*

Subject and Predicate omission: When conjoined independent clauses share the same subject and predicate, the subject and predicate of the following clause(s) can be omitted.

e.g. *It's cold in December in England, but (it's cold) in July in New Zealand.*

From the information about clauses, verbs seem to be a major element in the construction of any clauses. Therefore, the identification of a compound sentence should be based on predicate rather than other elements, such as noun phrase.

Consider a sentence like '*Joan and Zoo will cook tonight*'. In some circumstances, the sentence may be considered as a compound sentence if we interpret it as a sentence combining two clauses sharing the whole verb phrase: '*Joan will cook tonight*' and '*Zoo will cook tonight*'. However, Quirk et al. (1972) suggest that to understand it in that way, it requires lots of interpretation. Therefore, to avoid too complicated interpretation, the sentence should be considered as a simple sentence with a compound subject (Joan and Zoo).

Hence, in this study, the identification of compound sentences will be based on the predicate units joining in a sentence. In a case of a compound sentence with verb or predicate omission, the verb or predicate omitted must be able to be traced from the surrounding element like adverbial. Different adverbials in the conjoined clauses help indicate that the same actions occur in different contexts. Thus, even though the verb or predicate is dropped, it can be understood easily that the sentence describing two situations. Since the omitted verb or predicate can be clearly traced from the contexts as two separated activities, those kinds of sentence should be considered as compound sentences. (See above examples for elements omission)

Complex sentence

Complex sentences are sentences that consist of two or more clauses and the clauses hold unequal status. One acts as a main clause that can stand

independently as a simple sentence - *independent clause*. The other is embedded or subordinated to the main one. The embedded or subordinated clauses cannot stand alone as a simple sentence - *dependent clause*. Generally, the dependent clause is attached to the independent clause to give further description to the whole independent clause, for example to give reason, cause, purpose, result, place, time, and so on. Or sometimes the dependent clause provides further information only for the noun that it follows (see relative clause as post modifier).

The dependent clause of a complex sentence can be in any constructions: finite, non-finite, or verbless clause. The most obvious type of dependent clause may be that of finite verb. The non-finite and verbless clause, sometimes are rather confusing to identify. The followings are discussion and examples of complex sentences with those different types of dependent clause: finite dependent clause, non-finite dependent clause and verbless dependent clause.

Complex sentence with finite dependent clause

This is a sentence construction that contains two (or more) finite clauses. One acts a main clause (independent clause) that the other one (dependent clause) is embedded to. The dependent finite clause is generally introduced by an element called subordinator or relative pronoun (in relative clause), such as 'because', 'if', 'that', or a 'wh'-word, and so on. However, the subordinator or relative pronoun ('that' or some wh-words) can sometimes be omitted.

*e.g. I quickly shut the door before the animal could escape.
Although my friend invited me to a party, I do not want to go.*

The girl who is talking to him is my sister.

David is the only person (who) she wants to go out with.

Apart from giving further information to the independent clause, the dependent finite clause can also serve as nominal elements of the sentence.

e.g. Subject:

That she is still alive is a consolation.

What he is looking for is a wife.

Direct object:

I knew that he was wrong.

I can't imagine what made him do it.

Indirect object:

He gave whoever came to the door a winning smile.

Subject complement:

The assumption is that things will improve.

Home is where your friends and family are.

Object complement:

You can call me whatever you like.

Appositive:

My original question, why he did it at all, has not been answered.

Adjectival complement:

I'm sure that things will improve.

I wasn't certain whose house I was in.

Prepositional complement:

No one was consulted on who should have the prize.

You should vote for which candidate you like.

Complex sentence with non-finite dependent clause

This is a kind of complex sentence that has a non-finite clause embedded to the main clause. Similar to the finite dependent clause, the non-finite can be put in the sentence as a separate clause, providing further information to the independent clause or some noun, or as a nominal element of the sentence.

e.g. Separate clause

Going into the sitting room, I met Peter.

The royal prisoner, allowed unusual privileges, seemed to enjoy his captivity.

However, not every kind of non-finite verbs can be placed as a nominal element in the sentence. In fact, only two kinds of them, the to-infinitive clause and the ing-clause, can do so.

e.g. Subject:

For a bridge to collapse like that is unbelievable.

Eating people is wrong.

Direct object:

He likes everyone to be happy.

No one enjoys deceiving his own family.

Subject complement:

To be a member of the Space Club is to be one of the most privileged citizens in the world.

His favourite pastime is playing practical jokes.

Appositive:

His ambition, to be a straight actor, was never fulfilled.

His one claim to fame, being secretary of the local tennis club, is the recurrent theme of his conversation.

Adjectival complement:

I'm glad to help you.

The children were busy building sandcastles.

Prepositional complement

I'm tired of being treated like a child.

Since to-infinitive clauses and ing-clauses can act as a nominal element in the sentence, sometimes it causes ambiguity in the classification of the element, whether it is a clause or not.

For the to + verb construction, the confusion normally occurs when it is placed after a verb. Consider the sentences like 'I want to go' and 'I have to go'. The first sentence should be considered as a complex sentence with 'want' as a verb of the matrix clause and the to-infinitive clause 'to go' as direct object. While in the following sentence, we know that it is a simple sentence with 'go' as a main verb and 'have to' as an auxiliary verb.

The above example is rather obvious since 'have to' is commonly understood as an auxiliary. However, there are other verbs that are not classified in the auxiliary class but they behave similarly. Quirk et al (1972) call this kind of verb as 'semi-auxiliary'. This is because this group of verbs possesses some intermediate characteristics between those of lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs.

In active sentences, semi-auxiliary verbs act similarly to lexical verbs. They take an inflection for subject agreement and tense. Also, they require do-support when being turned to question, or negation.

Inflection for past tense:

e.g.	<i>Joe <u>should</u> see the play.</i>	[auxiliary]
	<i>Joe <u>happened to</u> see that play.</i>	[semi-auxiliary]
	<i>Joe <u>expected to</u> see the play.</i>	[lexical verb]

Question and negation:

e.g.	<i><u>Should</u> he see the play?</i>
	<i>He <u>should not</u> see the play.</i>
	<i>* <u>Happened to</u> he see the play?</i>
	<i><u>Did</u> he <u>happen to</u> see the play?</i>
	<i>*He <u>happened not to</u> see the play</i>
	<i>He <u>didn't happen to</u> see the play</i>
	<i>* <u>Expected</u> he to see the play?</i>
	<i><u>Did</u> he <u>expect to</u> see the play?</i>
	<i>*He <u>expected not to</u> see the play</i>
	<i>He <u>didn't expect to</u> see the play</i>

In order to test whether the verb+to construction is lexical or semi-auxiliary verb, passivization has to be applied. Compare the following sentences;

The play *should be seen*

The play *happened to be seen*

*The play *expected to be seen*

Here, we have 'should' as an auxiliary, 'happened to' as (what we now call) a semi-auxiliary, and 'expected' as a lexical verb. We can observe that 'happened to' acts similarly to an auxiliary in a way that both of them do not take passivisation. And this is a characteristic of auxiliary verbs. In other words, passivisation can occur only with the main or lexical verb. As in the last sentence, since 'expect' is the main verb, passive construction is required to make the sentence grammatically correct.

On another way round, auxiliary and semi-auxiliary verbs can be tested by applying passive construction to them.

The play was	{	<i>*should</i>	}	<i>be seen</i>
The play was	{	<i>*happened to</i>		
The play was	{	<i>expected to</i>		

Since 'should' and 'happen to' are not the main verbs, they cannot have passive construction.

Some examples of semi-auxiliary provided by Quirk et al (1972) are the verbs like 'come to', 'fail to', 'get to', 'tend to', 'appear to', 'seem to', 'turn out to' etc.

Apart from the verbs that are always classified as semi-auxiliary as in the above examples, some lexical verbs can sometimes be perceived acting as semi-auxiliary. For example the verb 'begin', generally it should be classified as a lexical verb as in 'She begins her new book'. However, in a sentence like 'She begins to smile', it seems more like the semi-auxiliary in a way that 'begin' tends to describe the manner of the main verb 'smile' rather than to behave as a main verb itself.

With the above explanation, it can be concluded that when the matrix verb is proven as a lexical verb, the following to + verb construction should be classified as an infinitive clause. Thus, a sentence consisting of this construction

(lexical verb + to infinitive clause) is classified as a complex sentence. On the other hand, if the matrix verb is semi-auxiliary, the to + verb construction is not the to infinitive clause. Hence, a sentence with a construction of 'semi-auxiliary verb + to + verb' should be classified as a simple sentence.

As mentioned earlier, not only the to-infinitive type of non-finite clause is problematic, but also the ing-clause; when used as a nominal element in a sentence. This is because in English there is a verbal noun functioning as a noun phrase – gerund - that has a construction of V-ing. Similarly to the sentence with to-infinitive, for a sentence with V-ing construction to be determined as a complex sentence, the V-ing construction must be proved as a clause, not a gerund.

To test whether the V-ing construction is an ing-clause or a gerund, consider the following two examples given by Quirk et al (1972).

'*His dancing of the tango*' and '*His dancing the tango*'¹

The first example can be considered as a noun phrase consisting of possessive pronoun + head + prepositional phrase postmodifier and the latter can be considered as genitive subject + V-ing + object. Therefore, the former example of V-ing construction should be identified as a noun phrase with a gerund as a head while in the latter example V-ing construction should be identified as an ing-clause.

In the above examples, it can be seen that the two constructions can be distinguished by the preposition *of*.

In addition to preposition *of*, a gerund can also be tested by adding of an adjective to premodify it. If the V-ing is a gerund, adding of adjective should be applicable.

e.g. *His skilful dancing of the tango*

But if the V-ing construction is a clause, adding of an adjective may seem awkward.

e.g. ? *His skilful dancing the tango*

For the V-ing clause, it is possible to add the perfect aspect and an adverb.

e.g. *His having danced the tango skillfully*

Hence, when a sentence contains an ing-construction, it can be classified as either a simple sentence or a complex sentence. That is, if the V-ing is proved a gerund, the sentence is simple. If, on the other hand, the V-ing construction is proved a clause, then the sentence is complex.

Complex sentence with verbless dependent clause

Quirk et al. (1972) point out that the verbless clause is commonly subjectless like the non-finite clause. However, the verbless clause takes the ellipsis of clause elements one stage further than the non-finite clause (verb omission). The omitted elements can be recovered from context.

e.g. Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worst in argument.

(Whether he is right or wrong)

One should avoid taking a trip abroad in August where possible.

(where it is possible)

The verbless clause can also be seen as a reduction of a non-finite clause.

e.g. Too nervous to reply, he stared at the floor.

(Being too nervous to reply)

In the identification of sentence construction for complex sentences, a verbless clause seems not to be as problematic as the non-finite one because its position in the sentence is clearly separated from the independent clause (it generally functions as an adjunct). Thus it can be easily identified as a dependent verbless clause in a complex sentence.

Compound-Complex sentence

Compound - Complex sentences are sentences that consist of at least one subordinate dependent clause and two or more superordinate independent clauses. In

However, other patterns can also possibly be observed. When the addresser wants to emphasise any unit, that unit is placed first in the sentence.

e.g. To emphasise verb

เดินไปโน้นแล้วสามีคุณ

doen pai non laeo sami khun

Walk there already husband your.

(Your husband has already walked there.)

To emphasise object

เด็กคนนี้พ่อแม่รักมาก

dek khon ni pho mae rak mak

Boy (classifier) this parents love very much.

(The parents love this boy very much.)

Also it is not necessary for Thai sentences to have all elements: subject, verb, and object (of transitive verb). When the context is clear, so that omitted information can be induced, or the element(s) is not necessarily mentioned. The element(s) can be dropped.

e.g. Subject omission

มีอุบัติเหตุบนถนน

mi ubuthed bon thanon

Have accident on road.

(There is an accident on the road.)

Object omission

1 (context): ฉันอยากได้หนังสือเล่มนั้น

chan yak dai nangsue lem nan

I want book (classifier) that.

(I want that book)

2 : เธอหยิบมาให้ฉันหน่อย

thoe yip ma hai chan noi

You get for me please.

(Can you get it for me?)

From the above example, the underlined pronouns can also be omitted. ‘ฉัน’ (chan) in sentence 1 and ‘เธอ’ (thoe) in sentence 2 are subjects of the sentences, while ‘ฉัน’ (chan) in sentence 2 is an indirect object. Thus, it can be seen that it is possible for Thai sentences to be constructed with only a verb phrase.

In some cases, verb phrases can also be dropped from a sentence as in the following examples.

e.g. Verb Omission

เด็กคนนี้น้องฉัน

dek khon ni nong chan

Child (classifier) this sister my

(This child is my sister.)

In conclusion, one can see that there are several patterns of word order in Thai sentences. It depends on the focus of the addresser. Moreover, when the context is clear with given or inductive information, some main constituents of the sentence can be absent. Next, the discussion of Thai sentence construction in terms of types of sentences is provided.

Types of sentence construction in the Thai language can be categorised into three main categories namely; simple sentence, complex sentence, and compound sentence.

Simple sentence

Simple sentences are the construction, in any patterns mentioned earlier, that consists of one sentence unit (to avoid ambiguity, here the sentence unit would be called a 'clause'). Number of clauses is determined by verb constituents contained in the sentences. This means a simple sentence should contain only one verb phrase.

e.g. ของดีไม่ค่อยมี
 khong di mai khoi mi
 Things good hardly have
 (There is hardly anything good enough.)

ข้างนอกฝนตก
 khangnok fon tok
 Outside raining
 (It is raining outside.)

Complex sentence

According to Panupong (1970, 1989), a complex sentence is a sentence that contains one or more downgraded sentences. A downgraded sentence is described as a sentence the status of which has been reduced from an independent simple sentence to a sentence element. A sentence in Thai can be downgraded by inserting a particle, called 'relative linker' by Panupong, 'ที่' (thi), 'ซึ่ง' (sueng), and 'อัน' (an) between the subjective noun and the predicate of the sentence. Followings are some examples of downgraded sentences.

e.g. *Downgraded sentences*

ผู้ชายที่กำลังดื่มเบียร์

phu chai thi kam lang duem beer

Man (relative linker) drinking beer

(The man who is drinking beer)

เรื่องซึ่งไม่น่าจะเกิด

rueang sueng mai na ja koet

Things (relative linker) unlikely to happen

Those things which seem unlikely to happen

คืนอันแสนสุข

kuen an san suk

Night (relative linker) very happy

(The night that is full of happiness)

A downgraded sentence normally acts as a noun phrase of a complex sentence. Thus, it can serve as a subject or an object.

e.g. กุหลาบที่ยังตูมอยู่ ไม่ควรเด็ด

kulap thi yang tum yu mai kuan det

Roses (relative linker) still in bud not should pick.

(The roses which are still in bud should not be picked.)

อยากอ่านหนังสือที่อยู่บนโต๊ะ

yak an nangsue thi yu bon to

Want read book (*relative linker*) is on table.

(I want to read *the book which is on the table.*)

คนที่คุยอยู่กับแม่ เป็น คนที่เคยเลี้ยงหนู

khon thi kui yu kup mae pen khon thi koei liang nu

Person (*relative linker*) talk to mother is person (*relative linker*) used to look after me.

(*The person who is talking to mother is the one who used to look after me.*)

For Panupong, complex sentences are those sentences that have at least one downgraded sentence as a part of the sentence. However, Phanthumetha (1984) adds that sentences which have an embedded unit that modifies the main verb of the sentence can also be counted as a complex sentence.

e.g. ฉันหวัง ว่าคุณจะมา

chan wang wa khun cha ma

I hope (*linker*) you will come.

(I hope *that you come.*)

Furthermore, Phanthumetha (1984) mentions that within one complex sentence, it can contain both noun modifying unit and verb modifying unit. That results in a more complex construction.

e.g. จดหมายที่เราส่งไปอาจแสดงให้เขารู้ว่าเรารู้สึกกับเขาอย่างไร
chotmai thi rao song pai art sadaeng hai khao ru wa rao ru suek
kup khao yang rai

letter (*linker*) we sent may tell him (*linker*) we feel about him
 how.

(The letter (*that*) we sent may tell him (*that*) how we feel about
 him.)

Compound sentence

Compound sentences are those sentences that combine two or more sentences. Combination can be many types; e.g. a simple sentence and a simple sentence, a simple sentence and a complex sentence, a compound sentence and a simple sentence, and so on. To construct a compound sentence, the independent sentences are conjoined by an element called a sentence linker.

e.g. วันนี้จะไปหาหมอ แล้วก็ไปซื้อหนังสือ
 wannai cha pai ha mo laeo ko pai sue nangsue

Today *will see doctor* (*linker*) *buy book*.

(Today, I will see the doctor and buy a book.)

ก่อนที่ลุงจะย้ายบ้าน ผมเคยเข้าไปเล่นในบ้านท่านบ่อยๆ²

kon thi khun lung cha yai ban phom koei khao pai len nai ban
than boi boi

(*linker*) uncle would moved I used to play in his house often

(Before the uncle moved, I used to play in his house.)

It is possible that two sentences can be combined to a compound sentence without any sentence linker. This case usually occurs when the two sentences have same subjects. Also the subject of the following clause in the

compound sentence can be dropped. Moreover, if objects of the two sentences are the same, it is usually absent from the following clause.

e.g. เขาหยิบบุหรี่สูบ
 khao yip buri sub
 He pick cigarette smoke
 (He picks a cigarette and smoke.)

 ครูตรวจ แก้การบ้าน
 khru truat kae kan ban
 Teacher check correct homework
 (The teacher checks and corrects homework.)

 เขาคูมคนงานขุดดิน
 khao khum khon ngan khut din
 He supervise worker dig
 (He is supervising workers to dig.)

With the omission of many elements in a compound sentence, it produces compound sentences with similar surface structure but have different interpretation for the subject of the verb.

e.g แม่ อุ้ม ลูก เดินไป
 mae um luk doen pai
 Mother carry baby walk away
 (subject) (verb1) (verb2)
 (The mother carries her baby and walks away.)

ครู	ดู	นักเรียน	ร้องไห้
khru	<u>du</u>	nakrian	<u>ronghai</u>
Teacher	scold	student	cry
(subject 1) (verb1) (subject 2) (verb2)			
(The teacher scolds the students and they cry.)			

It is interesting that these structures are very common in Thai and Thais do not have any problem with the interpretation of the sentences. In other words, without any other added information, Thai users can automatically understand the relations of the elements in the sentences. They may induce them from their external experience or perception.

2.3.3 Sentence constructions in English vs. sentence constructions in Thai

In this part, sentence constructions in English and Thai language are compared and contrasted. Thus, similarities and differences can be overviewed. The table below concludes main points of sentence constructions in English and Thai.

Table 2.6 Comparison of English and Thai sentence constructions

English	Thai
1. Classification of types of sentence construction is based on numbers and types of clause(s) contained in the sentence	1. There is no clear concept of clause. Hence, classification of types of sentence construction is generally based on numbers of verb phrases (except for complex sentence).
2. Structure of simple sentences is SV[CAO], of which elements in the bracket can be, in some cases omitted. Positions of the elements are fixed, except the adverbials (A).	2. Structure of simple sentences is commonly described as SVO. However, this pattern does not have to be followed strictly. The more emphasized element can be placed in the initial position instead of the subject (S). Moreover,

	when context is clear, subject and verb omission is possible.
3. Compound sentences consist of two or more independent clauses. Element omission is allowed when it is formerly mentioned in the preceding clause.	3. Compound sentences consist of two or more sentences (clauses in English definition). In general, the construction is similar to that of the English language. However, since Thai does not have a clear concept of clauses, a sentence that consists of a dependent clause (classified in English grammar) is also counted as a compound sentence.
4. Complex sentences are those consisting of one independent clause and other dependent clause(s). Dependent clauses can have various functions e.g. subordinate clause, adverbial clause, relative clause, etc.	4. Complex sentences are those consisting of a downgraded sentence acting as a noun phrase in the sentences and/or a verb modifying unit.
5. Compound-complex sentences occur when two or more independent clauses, in which at least one of them contains dependent clause(s), are joined.	5. Compound-complex sentence type is not mentioned in grammar of Thai language. Although the same construction as mentioned in compound-complex sentences in the English language can occur, they are classified as compound or complex sentences.

According to the information listed in the above table, it can be seen that sentence constructions in English and Thai have some similarities and differences. In general, sentences in the two languages consist of similar basic sentence elements and similar common arrangement (SVO). However, classifications and details for construction of sentences are rather different, especially those compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. Classification of compound sentences in Thai is broader than that in English. It covers complex sentences of English language. Thus, classification of Thai complex sentences is rather different from that of English.

Moreover, classification of compound-complex sentences does not exist in Thai. Since this study aims at comparing Englishes used by Thai and British writers, the identification of sentence types is based on the classification of English sentences.

2.4 Cultural framework and language in communication

Relationship between culture and language has long been an interesting topic of discussion. Language can be claimed as a mirror reflecting the culture of the community in which it is used. Thus, underlying cultural features are usually observable from the language used by people in that community. Due to the discussion on the process of nativisation (see 2.1.2), it is noticeable that the tie between language and culture may not be observed only from the use of native language, but also in the second or foreign language as well. Especially for the English language, since it gains a special status as an international language, the language is used in certain range and depth by its non-native speakers in the new environment. Therefore, cultural features in the use of English language by people in different community can be traced.

In order to describe differences in the use of English by two different groups of people as features transferred from native norms and cultures of each community, cultural frameworks illustrating characteristics of different cultures are essential.

2.4.1 Individualism and collectivism

The first framework to review in this section is suggested by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005). According to his survey from over 100,000 IBM employees in seventy-one countries, he presents five different dimensions that dominate different patterns of culture, which are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and collectivism, masculinity and femininity, and long-term and short-term orientation to time. However, in this section, the presentation only focuses on individualism and collectivism, since this dimension is mostly relevant and necessary for the discussion of this current study.

The concept of individualism and collectivism represents people's perception of themselves and others. People in an individualist culture tend to

perceive themselves as independent identities. They pay much attention on their selves, interest, privacy, and so on rather than those of others or groups. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) explain that people in an individualist culture tend to think of themselves as 'I' and this 'I' is distinct from other people's 'I'. On the other hand, people in a collectivist culture tend to think of themselves as parts of a 'we' group. Their identities belong to the group they are in and they distinct themselves form other people who belong to 'they' group.

To identify and describe characteristics of people in these two different cultures, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) have listed key differences between collectivist and individualist cultures in several aspects. The issues relevant and necessary to the discussion in this study are provided as follows.

Table 2.7 Key differences between collectivist and individualist cultures: general norm and family

Collectivist	Individualist
People are born into extended families or other in-groups that continue protecting them in exchange for loyalty.	Everyone grows up to look after him or herself and his or her immediate (nuclear) family only.
Children learn to think in terms of "we."	Children learn to think in terms of "I."
Harmony should always be maintained and direct confrontations avoided.	Speaking one's mind is a characteristic of an honest person.
Friendships are predetermined.	Friendships are voluntary and should be fostered.
Resources should be shared with relatives.	Individual ownership of resources, even for children.
* High-context communication prevails.	* Low-context communication prevails.
Trespassing leads to shame and loss of face for self and group.	Trespassing leads to guilt and loss of self-respect.
Brides should be young, industrious and chaste; bridegrooms should be older.	Criteria for marriage partner are not predetermined.

** High- and Low-context communication will be further explained in the next section.*

Table 2.8 Key differences between collectivist and individualist cultures: language, personality, and behavior

Collectivist	Individualist
Use of the word <i>I</i> avoided.	Use of the word <i>I</i> is encouraged.
Interdependent self.	Independent self.
On personality tests, people score more introvert.	On personality tests, people score more extrovert.
Showing sadness is encouraged, and happiness discouraged.	Showing happiness is encouraged, and sadness discouraged.
Slower walking speed.	Faster walking speed.

Collectivist	Individualist
Consumption patterns show dependence on others.	Consumption patterns show self-supporting life styles.
Social network is a primary source of information.	Media is primary source of information.
A smaller share of both private and public income is spent on health care.	A larger share of both private and public income is spent on health care.
Disabled persons are a shame on the family and should be kept out of sight.	Disabled persons should participate as much as possible in normal day-to-day activities.

It can be observed that people in a collectivist community feel more secure to tie their 'self' with their group and society. They tend to perform according to what is accepted by the norms of society rather than what they really want to. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) also suggest that for people in collectivist community, their opinions are generally predetermined by group membership and collective interests prevail over individual interests.

In contrast to collectivist communities, people in individualist communities have a stronger sense of independent 'self'. According to Hofstede and Hofstede, everyone in individualist society is expected to have a private opinion. And for the interest, it seems that individual interests prevail over collective interests.

According to this information, it can be stated that people from different cultural backgrounds with different perceptions of 'self' tend to have different world view and different performance in the society.

In different societies, degrees of individualism and collectivism are varied. To explain the cultural background of people in different countries or regions in relation to their perception of self, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) have proposed an index for assessment of degree of individualism (IDV).

Table 2.9 Individualism Index Value (IDV)

Country/Region	Score	Rank	Country/Region	Score	Rank
United States	91	1	Russia	39	39-40
Australia	90	2	Arab countries	38	39-40
Great Britain	89	3	Brazil	38	41
Canada total	80	4-6	Turkey	37	42
Hungary	80	4-6	Uruguay	36	43
Netherlands	80	4-6	Greece	35	44
New Zealand	79	7	Croatia	33	45
Belgium Flemish	78	8	Philippines	32	46-48
Italy	76	9	Bulgaria	30	46-48
Denmark	74	10	Mexico	30	46-48
Canada Quebec	73	11	Romania	30	49-51
Belgium Walloon	72	12	East Africa	27	49-51
France	71	13-14	Portugal	27	49-51
Sweden	71	13-14	Slovenia	27	52
Ireland	70	15	Malaysia	26	53-54
Norway	69	16-17	Hong Kong	25	53-54
Switzerland German	69	16-17	Serbia	25	55
Germany	67	18	Chile	23	56-61
South Africa	65	19	Bangladesh	20	56-61
Switzerland French	64	20	China	20	56-61
Finland	63	21	Singapore	20	56-61
Estonia	60	22-24	Thailand	20	56-61
Luxemburg	60	22-24	Vietnam	20	56-61
Porland	60	22-24	West Africa	20	56-61
Malta	59	25	Salvador	19	62
Czech Republic	58	26	Korea (South)	18	63
Austria	55	27	Taiwan	17	64

Country/Region	Score	Rank	Country/Region	Score	Rank
Israel	54	28	Peru	16	65-66
Slovakia	52	29	Trinidad	16	65-66
Spain	51	30	Costa Rica	15	67
India	48	31	Indonesia	14	68-69
Suriname	47	32	Pakistan	14	68-69
Argentina	46	33-35	Colombia	13	70
Japan	46	33-35	Venezuela	12	71
Morocco	46	33-35	Panama	11	72
Iran	41	36	Ecuador	8	73
Jamaica	39	37-38	Guatemala	6	74

According to the IDV index, it can be viewed that Great Britain and Thailand come up with distinctive score and rank. Great Britain obtains very high score of individualism (89) and is ranked highly in the table. Meanwhile, Thailand's score is rather low (20) and is ranked towards the end of the table. Due to the IDV index, it can be interpreted that cultural backgrounds of people in Great Britain and people in Thailand are notably different. It can be expected that British people would perform as those mentioned in characteristics of individualist societies, while Thai people would act in a way of those in collectivist societies.

2.4.2 High-context and low-context cultures

Another popular cultural framework in discussion of intercultural communication is the high- and low-context cultural patterns proposed by Hall (1977). Hall describes that people in high-context (HC) cultures communicate or receive much of information from contexts. Concrete contents are rarely stated in words. People of HC cultures value the ability of being indirect when proposing ideas and the ability to interpret meanings from those indirect messages. In other words, covert messages are highly preferred in HC culture.

On the other hand, people in low-context (LC) cultures exchange information via explicit speech. They value the ability of negotiating exact meanings directly. People interpret meanings of others from words they use, so that overt messages are absolutely favourable.

HC and LC cultures can be associated with the perception of self and group: collectivism and individualism. People in HC cultures generally view themselves as parts of groups, collectivism. Meanwhile, People in LC cultures prefer to be different individuals. Since people in HC have a strong sense of solidarity, they tend to assume shared information. Therefore, there is no need to mention things explicitly and it is the addressees' responsibility to interpret meanings. Also with the use of implicit codes, people can easily distinguish their 'we' group from other people's 'they' group.

Another important goal of communication in HC culture is to promote and sustain harmony among communicators. People tend to be more careful for their reactions that could threaten face or social esteem of others. Thus, to be indirect is good and safe in communication. Furthermore, people in HC culture usually view HC communication as good art, while LC communication as bad art.

The situations are different in LC cultures. Since people in LC cultures are more individualist, they prefer to spell out what they want directly. Achievement of goals is a primary focus of communication. Hence, explicitness of messages is strongly required. Moreover, people in LC cultures regard direct communication as a sign of honesty. Being indirect may lead to doubts or misunderstanding.

Since people in LC cultures do not demand tight relationship with other people in the society, they do not take much time in communication. They just communicate in order to exchange the gist of their information. Unlike LC cultures, people in HC cultures spend more time to create rapport. Thus, their communication time is rather flexible, according to the immediate needs of people that they need to respond.

With Hall's concept, Lustig and Koester (2003) have highlighted characteristics of high- and low-context cultures as follows.

Table 2.10 Characteristics of high- and low-context cultures

High-context culture	Low-context culture
Covert and implicit	Overt and explicit
Messages internalized	Messages plainly coded
Much nonverbal coding	Details verbalized
Reactions reserved	Reactions on the surface
Distinct ingroups and outgroups	Flexible ingroups and outgroups
Strong interpersonal bonds	Fragile interpersonal bonds
Commitment high	Commitment low
Time open and flexible	Time highly organized

In Hein (1996), further discussion on communication in HC and LC cultures is provided. Hein adds a dimension of emotion into communication of people in HC culture. Building emotion seems to be an important factor in successful communication since decisions are taken on emotional basis. To do this, high context communication should be applied and there must be some space for others to interpret things freely. Contrastively, for LC cultures, people extremely emphasise complete information and time. They make decisions according to the basis of information. Blurred information leads to errors in interpretation and understanding. And this is unpardonable.

In general, HC and LC communication varied from culture to culture. However, it should be noted that sometimes even in a specific community pre-described as HC or LC, degrees of context can differ according to relationships between people involving in communication. With great feeling of solidarity, HC communication tends to be used. On the contrary, with those regarding as outgroups, LC communication may be more applicable.

Nevertheless, with general manners shared by people in particular societies, HC or LC type of culture can be mapped to countries or regions. According to Gudykunst (1988), Hall and Hall (1990), and Victor (1992), Hein (1996) mentions a figure representing a continuum of HC and LC cultures with countries or regions situated at the two ends of the continuum.

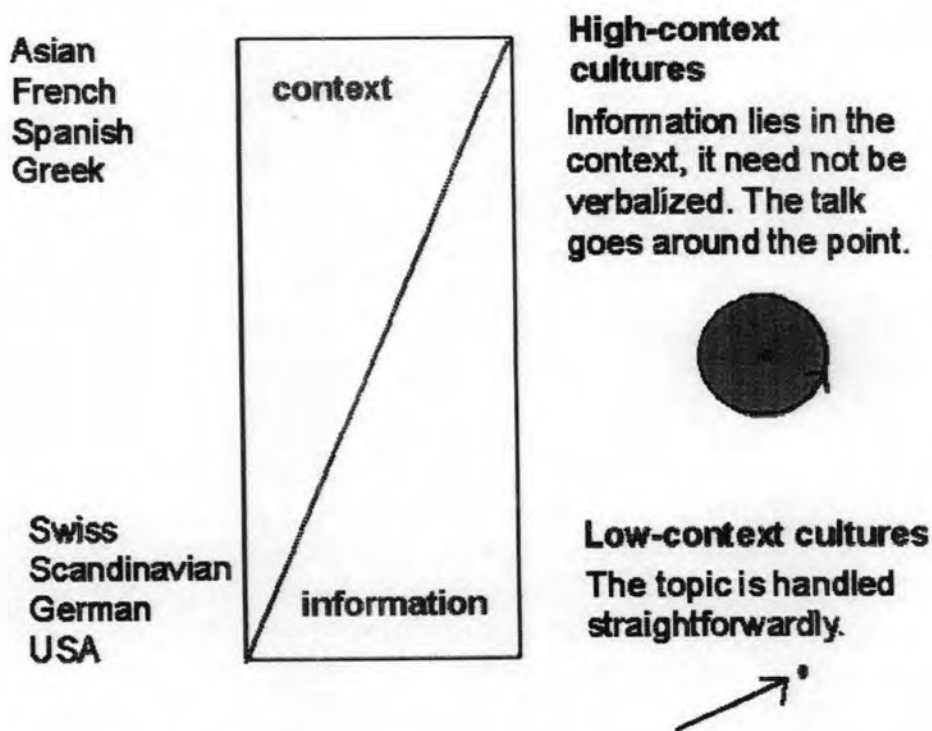


Figure 2.2 HC and LC continuum

2.4.3 Direct and indirect styles of communication

The discussions of the earlier two frameworks of cultures are derived mostly from the data of spoken language. In studies of contrastive rhetoric, cultures can also be explained based on features found in written language. The most classical framework that is still in focus in present days was presented by Kaplan (1966). Kaplan explains cultural differences of several regions based on the analysis of paragraph organization in written essays. His findings suggest that western culture tends to be direct, while oriental culture tends to be indirect. Kaplan also provides a diagram for illustration of different writing conventions learned in different cultures. The following figure, presenting cultural patterns of English speakers and most Asian languages speakers, is adapted from Kaplan's diagram.



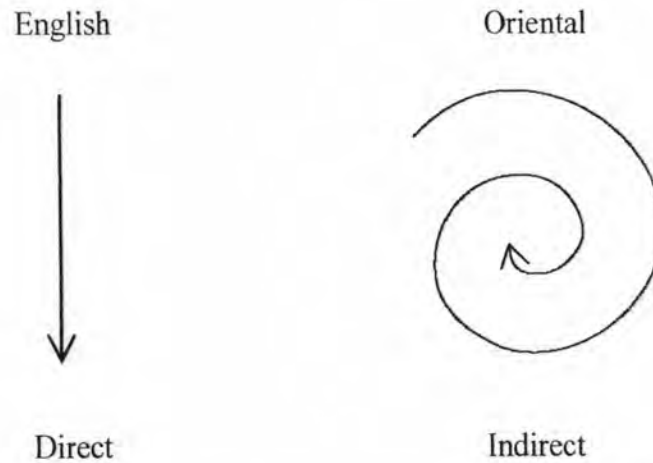


Figure 2.3 Direct and indirect communication patterns

Later, from several studies, Hinds (1990) gives support to and expands the concepts of Kaplan. Hinds describes the oriental group as including those Asian languages speakers such as Japanese, Thai, Korea and so on. For Hinds, to cope with counter arguments on Kaplan notions as being biased (since the first version of Kaplan's work seems to show underlying negative connotation of being indirect), the terms 'deductive' and 'inductive' are used instead of 'direct' and 'indirect'.

People from direct culture generally present their ideas straightforwardly with main theses or purposes clearly stated. They prefer to provide own opinions and arguments directly. The organization of contents flows in linear line starting with main idea or the most emphasized information.

People from indirect culture usually behave differently. Lots of both related and unrelated ideas are provided earlier before getting to main points. Being humble denotes good manners and politeness, thus it is more preferable than being straightforward which can mean a sign of aggressiveness. These people feel more comfortable to quote others' ideas than to present own ideas. And this method is regarded as good writing showing wisdom. Main ideas or core information should be softly placed last or sometimes even omitted. Hinds uses the terms 'semi-inductive' and 'inductive' to name these two methods of main idea presentation respectively.

According to the three frameworks presented, some interrelations among the three can be observed. With perception of 'self' and 'group' in individualist and

collectivist cultures, people base their communication on different things and prefer dissimilar methods of communication: LC vs. HC and direct vs. indirect.

People who are rooted in different background cultures experience and learn to view things from different perspectives. As a result, they think and behave differently. And since people are engaged in societies, cultural features can be observed from the ways they communicate.

As for this study, it is clear that British and Thai cultures have developed from completely different lines. Thus, it is obvious to expect that the two groups of people should possess different norms of communication according to their background cultures. Based on the three frameworks, characteristics of British culture can be described as individualist, low-context, and direct. Thai culture, on the other hands, can be described as collectivist, high-context, and indirect.

2.5 Thai language and culture

In order to discuss Thainess in English used by Thai people, understanding of Thai language and culture is essential. This is to show that Thai language and culture have long been developed; therefore, they are rooted strongly in Thailand. Moreover, with overview of historical evidence of the development, it is clear that the Thai language and culture have developed on completely different lines than the English language and culture.

2.5.1 History of Thai language

In order to understand the culture underlying the Thai language, history and development of the language should be considered. Siha-umpai (1995) has discussed the history of the Thai language as follows.

From stone inscription discovered in Thailand, there were many languages used in this region in the old days. The languages written there were ancient Thai, Sanskrit, Bihar, Mon, Khmer, and Tamil and other minor languages. The oldest stone is from the Tawarawadee period (around B.E. 1250). The languages used in that time were Bihar and Mon. Later in the Srivichai period (B.E. 1250-1650), the language were Sanskrit and Khmer. Then in the Sukhothai period (B.E. 1830-

2050), Thai written symbols were firstly invented and also Bihar language was also found inscribed on the stone.

Siha-umpai points out that in the past the Thai language did not employ any systematic grammar. It was not until the Rattanakosin period that grammar rules of the Thai language were first established.

Historical research suggests that in the past Thai people were living in the South of China. Then, they moved down and settled in the area of present day Thailand. Languages of the local people in the region were Mon, Khmer, and and Tai. Vongvipanond (1994, The “mai pen rai” people section, para. 2) provides more discussion for this point that “Thai people is a sub group in the language community in which the various languages of the *Tai-Kadai* family are spoken. The Tai-Kadai speakers live in an area which stretches east-west from the Southern coast of China to Assam in the North of India and north-south from Yunnan and Kwangxi in the South of China to the Indonesian Archipelago.” After the settlement, Thai people did a lot of trade mostly with the Chinese and Indians. Hence, the language obtained several influences from those two languages. Not long after that, Buddhism was very flourishing in the region. It held a very strong influence to the way of life of Thai people. Thai people adopted the language of the Buddha - Pali (one of Indian languages), culture, notion, philosophy, and literature.

The information above shows that the Thai language has such a long history and has come into contact with many languages. The most influential languages to the Thai language might be Chinese and Indian. Thus, the Thai language may share some certain features with those two languages. Siha-umpai mentions that Thai and Chinese are similar in their nature. Both are monosyllabic languages. They share similar grammar and they use tones to distinguish words and meanings. For Thai and Indian (especially Pali and Sanskrit) languages, Thai has borrowed many words from Pali and Sanskrit but the pronunciation might be adapted to assimilate into the Thai sound system. It is interesting that borrowed words from Pali and Sanskrit when used in Thai present formality, politeness, respect, and sometimes sacredness. Thai people also adopted literature from India. Therefore, most of the written features in Thai were influenced by the Indians. Thai letters also got an influence from letters used in Southern India during B.E 11-12. The Thai language

obtained rhetorical styles from Indian literature. Moreover, The Thai language also gained some poetic patterns from the Indian languages.

2.5.2 Culture in the use of Thai language

Social status and social ties play very important roles in Thai culture. Thai people highly value seniority and politeness. Vongvipanond (1994, "Thii tam thii soong" section, para. 1) writes "Almost everything in the Thais' perception is situated in a hierarchical system. People can be "high" or "low" according to their age, family background, occupation or professional rank and whether they are Buddhist monks or clergymen in other religions. A Buddhist monk is treated respectfully even by the king. Older people are usually honored and respected. People of the same age and social status also show respect for one another with the use of the title "khun". "Khun" can be literally translated as "Your goodness". Among good friends the title becomes optional." Thus, in the Thai language, there are words used in marking hierarchical status, word classes or particles in marking politeness. In addition, communication styles used in Thai also mark these things.

Siha-Umpai (1995) discusses that native Thai words, which are mostly monosyllabic, are regarded as informal. In formal or more polite styles, loan words from other languages, such as Khmer, Pali, and Sanskrit are used. The use of loan words not only makes the language more formal or polite, but also offers the beauty in the use of language.

As mentioned earlier, Thai written culture has developed mostly from literature. Siha-Umpai (1995) suggests two definitions of literature. In broad sense, it means all kinds of written work. And in more specific sense, it means written works which are considered highly valuable. The writers are experts in the use of words and in conveying the language beautifully with clear imaginative pictures and emotions.

Language characteristics in Thai literature are mentioned as follow.

1. It must be able to express emotions.
2. Imagination must be conveyed in the use of words e.g. figure of speech, metaphor, or rhetoric.
3. It must play with words and sounds.
4. It provides Dharma and Philosophy.
5. Moves should be organized according to moods and thoughts.

Furthermore, it is noted that good use of the Thai language in writing should be meticulous. That is, sentences must be nice in terms of grammar and sound rhythm. Words must provide clear pictures and glamorous sounds. According to this, it seems that, in Thai, the quality of the language depends much on imaginative pictures that writers can draw in readers' mind and the beauty of sound.

It cannot be denied that language and culture have a very strong tie. In successful communication, the use of language must be appropriate to the culture and language norms of that community. Therefore, it can be assumed that when people use a language, they may use it with their underlying cultural perceptions.

To conclude this part, In Siha-umpai (1995), a list of reflections of Thai culture from Thai language is presented.

1. The culture is highly associated with Buddhism.
2. The culture is associated with the Royal family.
3. It is the culture that values sacred ceremonies.
4. It is the culture that people value seniority, pay respect to older people, have strong ties to families and relatives, and emphasize on being grateful.
5. It is the culture that values happy and joyful living.
6. It is the culture that is harmonious to the nature.
7. The culture emphasizes gentleness, fastidiousness, politeness, and beauty.
8. It is a compromising culture.
9. The culture contains liberty.
10. The culture is flexible.

In summary, the Thai language has a long history. It has adapted and adopted several features from other languages that came into contact in particular periods of time. Moreover, the language has a very tight tie to its culture. When features from other languages were accepted, Thai people tried to match them to their native culture. Since English is another foreign language used in Thailand; it can be expected - as Thais did for other languages in the past - in its use, Thais should have ways to make it appropriate to Thai cultural norms.

2.5.3 Characteristics of Thai language

Since we know that the Thai language has created a strong connection to Thai culture, some certain norms for the use of the language that people in the community share and consider appropriate or preferable can be expected. This section aims to review some norms in the use of Thai language by Thai people in Thailand. Kettate (2005) concludes several norms in the use of written Thai language. Some of the norms that might be related to this study are presented as follow.

2.5.3.1 Using indirect words or phrases

In Thai, sometimes the words used by people do not convey their literal meanings. To mention unpleasant situations, things, or ideas, Thai people use this method with an aim to soften the messages or to make them more polite. To do so, euphemisms usually replace those exact meanings. Many times, the replacing words have different literal meanings from the words being replaced, for example instead of using the word ‘ตาย’ (tai : to die), Thai people may use ‘เสียบ’ (sia : to be broken). Or sometimes Thai people may use descriptive phrases instead of an exact word in order to be indirect and polite, for example instead of using a word ‘กระเทย’ to call ‘a gay’, in Thai a phrase ‘สาวประเภทสอง’ (sao prapate song : a second type woman) may be used in a more polite situation. The use of indirect words or phrases seems to be creative and more preferable in Thai. Kettate further discusses that this phenomena are due to Thai customs and culture.

It is interesting that this method is very common in Thai and even though the meanings are not presented directly, Thai people do not have any problems in understanding.

2.5.3.2 Having lots of specific words

The Thai language seems to be a descriptive language. People, when communicating, may like to give descriptive pictures. In other words, they want the addressees to understand things in detail. As a result, there are many distinctive words or synonyms for a set of similar things or actions. For example, there are many

words in Thai to describe 'eat' in many different ways e.g. 'ฉันท' (chan), 'เสวย' (sawoei), 'หม่ำ' (mam), 'แดก' (daek), 'ฟาด' (fard), 'ยัด' (yad), 'สาวปาม' (sawaparm), etc. The different words describe the action 'eat' elaborately in terms of feeling, social status, or formality. Sometimes different terms to call a thing may be used to reflect the worldview of the people. For example, in the past, lives of Thai people were closely tied to agricultural culture, their livings and work depended on the rain. Thus, Thai people have many different words to distinguish different types of rain e.g. 'ฝนโปรย' (fon phroi), 'ฝนพริ้ว' (fon phram), 'ฝนไล่ช้าง' (fon laic hang), 'ฝนชะช่อมะม่วง' (fon cha cho mamuang), 'ฝนชะลาน' (fon cha lan), 'ฝนหลงฤดู' (fon long rue-du), etc.

Since the Thai language is very descriptive, to use the language, one may have to think of many aspects and select the right words to use in different situations. Especially, in the Thai writing culture, the ability to select and use appropriate words seems to be very important. Good quality of written work depends highly on proper word selection.

2.5.3.3 Using of two sets of frequent collocation

In Thai, it is common for some words to be built up with two sets of words. Even though the two sets can be used separately without any damage in meanings, for the sake of emotional aspects, they are mostly used together. Generally the collocations duplicate the meaning of one another or sometimes another set is added without any importance in terms of meaning. The two set of words are usually related in terms of rhyme.

e.g. นิยม (ni-yom)	ชมชอบ (chom-chop)
Favorable	Favorable
ตึกราม (tuek-ram)	บ้านช่อง (ban-chong)
Buildings	Houses

ใส่ร้าย (sai-rai)	ป้ายสี (pai-si)
Defamation	Adding color
เลียดคู (lieng-du)	ปูเสื่อ (pu-suea)
To treat somebody	To put a mat on the floor

2.5.3.4 Reduplication of two synonyms

This is the use of two words that have same meaning but different pronunciation. It is more preferable and common for the two words to be used together.

- e.g. ละทิ้ง (la – thing) : to get rid of
เกลียดชัง (klicad – chang) : to hate
หมดสิ้น (mod-sin) : to be empty

Sometimes, the reduplication of words may be used in order to modify another word and describe more additional characteristics.

e.g. เงียบเชียบ (ngiab-chiab) : the two words mean ‘to be quiet’ but when they are used together ‘chiab’ may be view as a modifier to mark the high degree of quietness.

รักใคร่ (rak-khrai) : the two words mean ‘to love’. Here, ‘khrai’ adds more degree of love. So when they are put together the meaning is ‘to adore’.

Word reduplication can also produce compounds. For example, ‘อยู่’ (yu) and ‘กิน’ (kin) literally means ‘to live’ and ‘to eat’ but when they are put together, the compound means ‘to live together as husband and wife’.

Apart from the norms of language use, Kettate (2005) also discusses the methods of adding more descriptive details in the Thai language.

It is mentioned that adding details to the main message is very important in writing because this is a way that can help enhance readers' understanding. This part will discuss only the methods that may be relevant to noun modification.

To modify a noun the explanation can be given immediately after that noun. There is no limit for the length of the modification part. Sometimes modifiers are added so as to make imaginative pictures. The ability of the writers to use modifiers seems to be regarded as an important component of good writing because it can provide emotional sense and arouse the readers' feelings and imagination. There are no rules for the use of modifiers. It depends much on writers' aim of what feelings or pictures to give to readers. However, it is suggested that the use of modification may not be necessary for academic writing but it is very useful for artistic writing.

2.5.4 Thai rhetorical style of writing

This part aims to discuss Thai rhetorical styles in writing. According to the history and development of the Thai language, we know that the Thai rhetorical style is mostly influenced by the India and Chinese languages.

Obviously, Chinese rhetorical style is the 'indirect' style of writing. That is the detail information is provided earlier and the main idea tends to be delayed or sometimes it is not explicitly stated. In Thai writing, this kind of rhetorical style seems to be adopted. However, the Chinese rhetorical style does not directly affect the use of noun modification and sentence constructions – it plays more roles in text organization. Therefore, it will not be further discussed here.

It is interesting that the use of noun modification and complex sentence construction in the Thai language, as assumed in this study, seems to be similar to the Indian language. Kachru (2005) mentions English features of South Asia transferred from Indian languages that the language displays elaborate lexical ornamentation and grammatical complexity. That is, Indian writers tend to use lots of modification to decorate their writing and there is a higher tendency for the use of complex sentences than simple sentences.

Apart from the relation to the Indian language, for a description of Thai writing style, Thaiuboon (2000) provides a discussion on the length of sentences. In Thai writing, the length of sentences is not limited. It depends on information that the

writers want to give to readers. Additionally, there is also a preference for long sentences. She points out that a sentence will be clearer by adding modifiers to modify nouns and verbs. Chutisilp also mentions that in Thai writing the use of long sentences and one-sentence paragraphs is rather common.

Surasit (1979) suggests that for one sentence, numbers of meaning can be varied according to writers' purposes and the length of that sentence. It is also good to have many adjectives, phrases, or clauses adding to nouns. Short sentences are good in a way that it is easy to understand. However, long sentences are more preferable because they can include many points within one sentence.

Apart from the length of sentences, Tiancharoen (1987) points out the use of subordination and coordination of sentences in spoken and written Thai (however, only the information of written texts is discussed here). Subordinate clauses are used more often in formal writing (academic texts and magazine articles) than informal writing (personal letter). She also explains that the subordinate clauses are added when there is less involvement between writers and readers. Therefore, in formal writing like academic texts or magazine articles, the writers do not know who the readers are so they have to provide a lot of information. Then, subordination is demanded. For coordination, she mentions that it is used not so frequently in all kinds of texts. However, the texts that are based on literate style (i.e. magazine articles and academic texts) reveal a higher degree of the use of coordination.

According to the above information, it can be concluded that for the Thai rhetorical style, the use of modifiers are preferable. It is regarded as artistic features of writing and also it represents the ability of the writers in the use of language. In addition, complex sentence construction and the use of long sentences tend to be common features of Thai writing.

In order to claim for nativisation of Thai English, all of these Thai language and cultural features as well as those cultural characteristics mentioned in the cultural frameworks should be considered. Therefore, if the distinctive characteristics of Thai English can perfectly be explained as traces of Thai language culture, and communication norms; the nativisation process of English in Thai context can successfully be confirmed.

Note:

1. The construction of genitive pronoun + ing-clause is used in formal style. While in informal style the objective pronoun or proper noun (name) is used.

a. (formal style)

I'm surprised at *his/John's* making that mistake.

b. (informal style)

I'm surprised at *him/John* making that mistake.

2. This kind of sentences is perceived as a compound sentence in Thai according to Thai sentence criteria. In English, it should be identified as a complex sentence.