

Systematicity of L1 Thai Learners' L2 English Interlanguage of  
'Wish-Clauses'



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ระบบภาษาในระหว่างในการใช้ประโยชน์แสดงความปรารถนาในภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียน  
ภาษาอังกฤษที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่ง



สารนิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาอักษรศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต  
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By                                      Miss Rawisiree Suteerapongsit  
Field of Study                      English  
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รวีศิริ สุธีรพงศ์สิทธิ์ : ระบบภาษาในระหว่างในการใช้อนุประโยคแสดงความปรารถนาในภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียน  
ภาษาอังกฤษที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่ง. ( Systematicity of L1 Thai Learners' L2 English  
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งานวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ที่จะศึกษาการใช้อนุประโยคแสดงความปรารถนา (wish-clauses) ในภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียน  
ภาษาอังกฤษที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาแม่ตามสมมุติฐานภาษาในระหว่าง (Interlanguage Hypothesis) (Corder, 1981;  
Selinker, 1972, 1992) งานวิจัยนี้มีสมมุติฐานว่าผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาแม่แสดงความเป็นระบบ  
(systematicity) ของภาษาในระหว่างในการใช้อนุประโยคแสดงความปรารถนา และความเป็นระบบนั้นเป็นผลมาจากการถ่ายโอน  
ภาษา (language transfer) และการถ่ายโอนจากการศึกษา (transfer of training) ซึ่งอยู่ในกระบวนการทางจิตวิทยาในการ  
สร้างภาษาในระหว่าง อนุประโยคแสดงความปรารถนาในภาษาอังกฤษที่ผู้วิจัยศึกษาประกอบด้วยความปรารถนาที่เป็นข้อสมมุติหรือความ  
ปรารถนาที่ตรงข้ามกับความเป็นจริง (hypothetical or counterfactual wish) สามประเภท ได้แก่ ความปรารถนาเกี่ยวกับ  
ปัจจุบัน ความปรารถนาเกี่ยวกับอดีต และความปรารถนาเกี่ยวกับอนาคต เครื่องมือวิจัยที่ใช้คือ แบบทดสอบเติมคำ และแบบทดสอบจำลอง  
สถานการณ์ ผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยประกอบด้วยนักศึกษาปริญญาตรีจำนวน 30 คน แบ่งออกเป็นสองกลุ่มเท่า ๆ กัน คือกลุ่มผู้เรียนระดับกลาง และ  
กลุ่มผู้เรียนขั้นสูง ผลการวิจัยเป็นไปตามสมมุติฐาน กล่าวคือ ผู้เรียนชาวไทยทั้งสองระดับจะแสดงความเป็นระบบในการใช้อนุประโยค  
แสดงความปรารถนาในภาษาอังกฤษที่เหมือนกันในทั้งสองแบบทดสอบ นอกจากนี้ยังมีระบบที่แสดงโดยเฉพาะในกลุ่มผู้เรียนระดับกลาง  
สันนิษฐานว่าความเป็นระบบเหล่านี้ได้รับอิทธิพลจากการถ่ายโอนภาษา ร่วมกับการถ่ายโอนจากการศึกษา ผู้วิจัยคาดหวังว่าผลการวิจัยจะ  
ช่วยอธิบายลักษณะของภาษาในระหว่างที่เกี่ยวข้องกับอนุประโยคแสดงความปรารถนาในภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียนที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาแม่  
และปัญหาที่ผู้เรียนประสบในการรับภาษาที่สองในเรื่องดังกล่าว

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ลายมือชื่อนิสิต .....  
ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก .....

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The current study aimed to investigate the production of L2 English 'wish-clauses' by L1 Thai learners, based on the Interlanguage Hypothesis (Corder, 1981; Selinker, 1972, 1992). It was hypothesized that L1 Thai learners showed systematicity in their interlanguage in the use of 'wish-clauses' and that their IL was shaped by language transfer and transfer of training, which are among the psychological processes of IL construction. English 'wish-clauses' examined in the study were three types of hypothetical or counterfactual wish: wish about the present, wish about the past, and wish about the future. A Cloze Test and a Situation Task were administered to 30 L1 Thai undergraduate students, divided equally into two groups: the intermediate group and the advanced group. The results conformed to the hypotheses in that Thai learners of both proficiency levels seemed to exhibit similar systematicity in the production of all types of English 'wish-clauses' in both tasks. Also, some systematicity was exhibited mainly in the intermediate group. The systematicity was assumed to be influenced by language transfer, in combination with transfer of training. The results of the study are expected to shed light on the characteristics of English IL of 'wish-clauses' among L1 Thai learners and the difficulties they face in the acquisition of English 'wish-clauses'.



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## 1. Introduction

Second language acquisition (SLA) is described as the process of acquiring a language apart from one's native language during late childhood, adolescence or adulthood after the acquisition of his/her native language (Ellis, 2003). Learning a second language (L2) can be challenging for learners from different first language (L1) backgrounds. Thus, much interest has been given to the examination and explanation of the differential difficulty in acquiring language constructions in L2. One area that seems to pose major problems for L2 learners from different L1 backgrounds is the syntactic structure. Grammatical difficulty is associated with at least three factors: complexity of form, complexity of meaning, and complexity of the form-meaning relationship (DeKeyser, 2005).

Among English grammatical structures, 'hypothetical' or 'counterfactual constructions' have been noted as a difficult area for L2 learners of English by many researchers (Celce-Murcia, Larsen-Freeman, & Williams, 1999; Norris, 2003; Ramirez, 2005). These constructions express imaginary actions or situations that are contrary to fact, including 'if-conditionals' and 'wish-constructions' (Fauconnier, 1994; Han, 2006; Iatridou, 2000). One of the difficulties for English learners is that there is no correlation between the form of the verb and the usual semantic interpretations of the time references (Al-Khawalda & Alhaisoni, 2012; Gleason, 1980). In the Thai context, difficulties in the use of 'hypothetical' or 'counterfactual constructions' have also been reported (Katip, 2015; Pojprasat, 2007; Sattayatham & Honsa, 2007).

Studies in this area have focused mainly on counterfactual 'if-conditionals' of learners from different L1 backgrounds (Al-Khawalda, 2013; Al Rdaat, 2017; Bloom, Lahey, Hood, Lifter, & Fiess, 1980; Chou, 2000). However, only few studies have examined 'wish-clauses.' One such study is that of Al-Khawalda and Alhaisoni (2012) who reported problems faced by Arabic native speakers in the usage of wish, possibly due to negative transfer from their L1. In the Thai context, deviant usage of 'wish-clauses' in terms of wrong tenses has been reported as part of the errors in learners' translation in the study of Pojprasat (2007).

The previous studies on English ‘wish-clauses’ focused only on L2 learners’ errors and the role of L1. This study, therefore, intends to explore the production of English ‘wish-clauses’ among L1 Thai learners based on the Interlanguage Hypothesis (Corder, 1981; Selinker, 1972, 1992). It aims at seeking systematicity in the linguistic system or internal grammar, termed as ‘interlanguage’ (IL) (Selinker, 1972), constructed by L1 Thai learners of different proficiency levels. Also, it attempts to explain the psychological processes influencing the learners’ IL.

The research questions and hypotheses of the current study were as follows:

Research questions:

1. What is the IL in the use of English ‘wish-clauses’ among L1 Thai learners?
2. What factors play a role in the use of English ‘wish-clauses’ among L1 Thai learners?

Hypotheses:

1. Based on the IL Hypothesis (Corder, 1981; Selinker, 1972, 1992), L1 Thai learners show systematicity in their IL in the use of English ‘wish-clauses.’
2. Based on the psychological processes IL construction, the use of English ‘wish-clauses’ of L1 Thai learners are shaped by language transfer and transfer of training.



## **2. Literature Review**

This section reviews theoretical frameworks and previous studies relevant to the study. 2.1 discusses the notion of the Interlanguage Hypothesis. 2.2 presents previous research on L2 English ‘wish-clauses’. The section ends with a discussion of ‘wish-clauses’ in English and Thai in 2.3.

### **2.1 The Interlanguage Hypothesis**

The term ‘interlanguage’ (IL) was introduced by Selinker in the 1970s due to the observation that learners’ language had consistently shown formal features both of the target language and of some other languages, usually but not solely, of the mother

tongue. Other terms used by other linguists include ‘transitional competence’ (Corder, 1967), ‘interlingua’ (James, 1969), and ‘approximative systems’ (Nemser, 1971).

### 2.1.1 Defining interlanguage

IL was defined by Selinker (1972) as the intermediate state of an L2 learner’s separate linguistic system as it is being developed toward the L2. In other words, it is a learner’s idiosyncratic version of L2 or mental grammar at a particular point in the process of learning the language. The system is based on the production of L2 learners in an attempt to produce sentences of L2 or “attempted meaningful performance” (Selinker, 1972, p. 210). These utterances for most learners are different from what a native speaker would have been produced to express the same meaning. Selinker (1972) claims that IL is influenced by the learner’s L1 and the L2, but it is different from both.

IL is highly interesting for the study of SLA as it is the first attempt to understand learner language system. Rather than focusing only on errors that they make, IL is interested in the source of a learner’s internal grammar, in the development and fossilization of learner rules and in the role of instruction on each developmental stage (Macaro, 2013). Its objective is to identify the psychological processes that shape and constrain the development of IL, the differences between these processes and those of L1, and the explanation of fossilization in relation to these differences (Tarone, 2006). IL covers all aspects of language, including phonology, morphology, syntax, lexical, pragmatic, and discourse levels.

Corder (1981) described some characteristics of IL as being systematic, dynamic, goal-oriented, variable, and reduced or simplified systems. IL is systematic as a learner’s language is governed by some structures, systems, or rules at every point in his/her development. Language produced by learners display regularities which can be identified. IL is also dynamic and goal-oriented in that it is unstable, i.e. constantly changing and undergoing revision as moving toward the L2 until it becomes “fossilized” or “cease to develop” (Corder, 1981, p.74). In Corder’s view, the learner creates his/her own grammar of the L2 called “hypothesis grammar” (Corder, 1981, p.73). This grammar is confirmed or refused as its validity is tested by the learner in contact with the L2. For example, if the learner finds that his/her

utterances based on his/her hypothesis grammar is defective and fail to communicate, or if s/he receives correction, s/he will elaborate or restructure his or her IL grammar to accommodate the new information. Also, learner language is assumed to show successive stages and sequences of development. Therefore, learner linguistic behavior is regular and consistent in some respects at a particular point in time and inconsistent in others. Moreover, IL is variable, i.e. grammatical inconsistency is found in individual L2 learners. The same learner may utilize one rule of language use in one context, and a different rule in another, resulting in different patterns of language use in different contexts. For Corder, it is even possible that learners may adopt separate linguistic systems for productive use and perceptive use. Lastly, IL is a reduced system, both in form and function. The characteristics of reduced form refers to the typically less complex grammatical structures compared to the L2 (e.g. omission of inflections, such as the past tense suffix in English.) The characteristics of reduced function refers to the functionally restricted use of IL for communicative purposes.

Regarding psychological processes underlying IL, Selinker (1972) claimed that the acquisition of L2 by adult learners is operated under 'latent psychological structure', which refers to "an already formulated arrangement in the brain, which is activated whenever an adult attempts to produce meanings, which he may have, in a second language which he is learning"(Selinker, 1972, p. 229). He suggested five psycholinguistics processes: language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning, strategies of L2 communication, and overgeneralization of L2 rules. These processes exist in the latent psychological structure, which constitutes the knowledge underlying IL behaviors central to L2 learning.

The first process is language transfer, which occurs when fossilizable items, rules, and subsystems in a learner's IL performance are a result of L1. Selinker (1972, 1992); following (Weinreich, 1953, p. 7) suggests that language transfer in L2 learning involves 'interlingual identification', which refers to the identification of two items across languages as 'same'. That is, learners may identify particular L2 units with those of their L1, e.g. perceiving L2 units in terms of L1 units, and thus they transfer those units from L1 to their IL. This can occur in various types of units, such

as phonology, grammatical relationship, and lexical items. Some examples for phonology are American English retroflex /r/ in their French IL and English rhythm in the IL relative to Spanish (Selinker, 1972, p. 209). An example in terms of lexical items is that a learner may perceive L1 lexical item, e.g. *table* as exactly the same as L2 *mesa* and use it in every context similarly to *table*, e.g. *table of contents*, *table of motion*, and so on (Tarone, 2006, p. 749). An example concerning syntax is the use of German word order by German native speaker attempting to produce an English sentence, such as *He comes tomorrow home* (Weinreich, 1953, p. 30). Another example is the use of preverbal negation in the English IL of Spanish speakers, e.g. *I no use television*, which seems to be prolonged and pervasive. This is claimed to be an influence from the corresponding structure in the L1 (Zobl, 1982, p. 170)

The second process is transfer of training, which refers to the learner's application of rules learned from instruction. This includes identifiable items in training procedures, such as textbooks and teachers. Sometimes, this learning is successful, resulting in IL rules identical to those of the target language, but other times, it may be not. For example, in their IL, Serbo-Croatian speakers at all levels of proficiency regularly produce *he* on most circumstances where either *he* or *she* is required. As the distinction between he and she is the same in English, it could not be the effect of transfer. Rather, it is due to the drills which are almost always present with only *he* both in textbooks and from teachers (Selinker, 1972, p. 218).

The third process is strategies of L2 learning, which is the conscious attempt of learners to master the target language by using a number of strategies. Some examples include the use of mnemonics to remember targeted vocabularies, the memorizing of textbook dialogues, the use of flashcards, and so on (Tarone, 2006, p. 749). According to Tarone (2006), these strategies can lead to successful production. However, they can also result in failure, such as confusing the mnemonic mediator words (words used for associating with the L2 word that assists in memorizing it). For example, in order to remember that the Spanish word for *duck* is *pato*, L1 English learners of L2 Spanish might use the Spanish word which is similar to an English word, i.e. *pot*. This might lead to the use of the Spanish word *pot* in IL to refer to a duck (Tarone, 2006, p. 749).

The fourth process is strategies of L2 communication, which is the approach used by learners to resolve communication problem or respond to communicative needs beyond the adequacy of the IL system. In other words, it is the method of exploiting all linguistic knowledge they have to accomplish communicative ends. One example is the omission of grammatical formatives such as articles, plural forms, and past tense morphemes in spontaneous speech (Selinker, 1972, p. 220). This may result from learners' perception that they are unnecessary for their communicative purpose. Another example in terms of vocabulary is the adoption of description or near synonyms when the exact lexical word for the thing referred to is unknown to the learner. For example, an L2 learner who wants to refer to electrical cord in English but does not know the exact lexical item, can call it '*a tube,*' '*a kind of corder that you use for electric thing I don't exactly the name,*' or '*a wire with two plugs in each side*' (Tarone, 2006, p. 749)

The last process is overgeneralization of L2 rules, which refers to the application of rules in inappropriate contexts due to the lack of knowledge about the exception of rules. One example is the use of past tense marker-ed for both regular and irregular verbs. Another example is the use of drive for all vehicles, such as '*to drive a bicycle*'. The other example is the contraction of auxiliaries in a sentence like '*Max is happier than Sam's these days*' (Selinker, 1972, p. 218). According to Corder (1981), these kinds of behavior considered evidence of progress. They show that the learner has acquired a general target language rule, but they also indicate that s/he needs to learn more.

According to Selinker (1972, 1992), these five processes force 'fossilizable materials' upon surface IL utterances. The term 'fossilization' refers to a mechanism underlying surface linguistic materials, including linguistic items, rules, and subsystems, which do not disappear but become part of a stable interlanguage, regardless of the age of the learner or the amount of instruction received in the L2. This means that some parts of learner linguistic system may cease developing and become stable before reaching the norms of the target language. In Selinker's view, this phenomenon is inevitable due to neurolinguistic reasons. Some examples involving phonology are the Uvular /r/ in the English IL of French speakers and some



features of the Thai tone system in the English IL of Thai speakers. Examples for syntax are German Time-Place order after the verb in their English IL and Object-Time order after the verb in the English IL of Hebrew speakers (Selinker, 1972, p. 215). In Corder's view (Corder, 1981), fossilization is influenced by age of learning as well as communicative need. That is, older learners are more likely to fossilize than younger ones. Also, IL is developed to serve communicative needs and thus it ceases to develop when the needs are met.

### 2.1.2 The Revised Interlanguage Hypothesis

Although the central claims of IL Hypothesis remained basically unchanged after its first proposal in 1972, some modifications and expansions have been made by Selinker (1992) and other researchers in the field, e.g. Adjemian (1976), Scovel (1988) and Tarone (1988). Some of these works supported the initial claims, while others raised issues in the original version or expanded the application of the hypothesis. These suggested the necessity for the revision of IL. As Selinker (1992) pointed out, current IL thought need to include certain consideration. The followings are the important revision points, some of which are still debatable.

In 1992, Selinker proposed the reframed IL, in which some changes were made from the original version. One of these is the expansion of IL to children learning L2. While the initial IL hypothesis was proposed for only adult SLA, Selinker (1992) posited that, under specific sociolinguistic conditions, IL can begin with children as young as three or five. Evidence of language transfer, generalization of TL rules, and apparent fossilization of language of children in language immersion program suggested that they also produce IL. For example, children in Toronto French-immersion programs in Canada produced French IL sentences which seem to be influenced by transfer from their L1 English, such as *Il veut moi de dire franqais u il*. ('He wants me to speak French to him.')

This is explained in terms of syntactic derivation transfer, in which the English structure, *Someone wants someone else to do something*, is transferred to the IL French sentence, where the verb *vouloir* must take a that-complement if the subjects differ in the two clauses (Selinker, Swain, & Dumas, 1975, p. 10).

The other revision posited by Selinker (1992) concerning the psycholinguistic processes shaping IL. First, in the original version of IL, not much was described about the operation of language transfer. In the revised version of IL, it is considered a selective operation, i.e. some structures and processes are more likely than others to be transferred from L1 to influence IL. While the original version of IL does not mention the combination of the psycholinguistic processes with other influences, in the 1992 revised version, the notion of ‘multiple effects’ is proposed (Selinker, 1992, p. 62) . It is posited that L1 transfer, in combination with other factors, such as markedness factors, learning strategies, and transfer of training, will lead to greater tendency of fossilization.

Other modifications proposed by other linguists, include the (in)evitability of fossilization, the role of UG, and IL development in different social contexts.

Regarding fossilization, the initial IL hypothesis views fossilization as an inevitable phenomenon, According to Selinker (1972), adult L2 learners are unable to be successful in the absolute sense, i.e. indistinguishable from native speakers. This inevitability is due to neurolinguistic reasons. However, Scovel (1988) proposed the ‘Joseph Conrad phenomenon’(Scovel, 1988, p. 171), in which an adult L2 learner may perform remarkably well in some aspects of language, e.g., syntax and morphology, but poorly in others, e.g. phonology. Thus, it was argued that fossilization may occur only in certain aspects of learner linguistic system, i.e. phonology, while for other aspects, i.e. morphology, syntax, and lexicon, it may not. This means that fossilization may be evitable, at least in some aspects of grammar. Nonetheless, debate on this issue is still ongoing.

Concerning the role of UG, the original version of IL posits that it is not constrained by UG. Due to fossilization and influence from L1, IL is assumed to be produced by different mechanism from that of L1. While L1, which is a natural language, is produced by LAD (Language Acquisition Device), IL is assumed to be a product of ‘latent psychological structures’(Selinker, 1972, p. 272). However, Adjemian (1976), and other linguists following him, argued that IL is a natural language like L1, thus it has to obey UG. According to this view, IL is produced by the same mechanism as L1, i.e. LAD. Fossilization occurs due to complex changes in

cases where L2 is learned after parameters have been set for L1. This issue is still debatable.

Regarding IL development in social contexts, evidence suggests that a learner's IL tends to vary in different social contexts or discourse domains, while in Selinker (1972), this is rarely hinted. The studies of Tarone (1988) showed IL variation of individual L2 learners whose IL utterances are more grammatical and fluent in certain social contexts compared to others. For example, L2 learners seem to produce IL more fluently with less transfer on the topics in which they are familiar with or those with personal involvement. Tarone (2006) gave an example of international teaching assistants who may be more fluent and grammatical on topics of their academic fields than on everyday topics. Moreover, he suggested that basic mechanism, such as fossilization, can be more salient in one context more than another.

## **2.2 Previous studies on second language acquisition of English 'wish-clauses'**

Some studies on English grammatical errors have touched on the difficulties in the use of English 'wish-clauses' faced by learners from different L1 backgrounds, including Thai learners.

Nezam (2013) examined errors in the usage of English tense and mood made by L1 Persian learners of L2 English. The study had two objectives. Based on the Contrastive Analysis (CA), it aimed to make some hypotheses about errors that the learners might produce and to test the hypotheses. Based on Error Analysis (Gleason), it aimed to analyze the sources of errors. A gap-filling test consisting of 100 items was administered to 60 Iranian undergraduate students and a questionnaire inquiring teaching experience and students' performance regarding English tense and mood was administered to 30 English University teachers in Iran. In addition to the questionnaire, the teachers also participated in the interview. The items of the test included two types of 'hypothetical wish construction', i.e. 'wish about the present' and 'wish about the future'. In Persian, simple past is used for these two types of 'wish-clauses'. Thus, it was predicted that the participants would supply the verbs in simple past form for both types. The results showed that the hypothetical 'wish about

the future' posed great difficulties with 96.7% of errors, while the hypothetical 'wish about the present' seemed to be much less difficult. For 'wish about the future', the majority of the participants used simple past as a result of negative transfer. Other errors classified as intralingual errors were due to 'ignorance of rule restriction'. The simple past was also used for 'wish about the present', as a result of positive transfer. Other errors classified as intralingual errors resulted from ignorance of rule restriction. In sum, this study showed that L1 played a major role in the acquisition of English 'wish-clauses' among Persian learners of English.

Ahamed (2016) studied the use of English unreal past with the words: *as if, if only, wish, suppose, as though, would rather, it is high time, and had better*. The aim was to investigate the most difficult elements of the unreal past and to suggest some effective techniques for teaching the unreal past sentences. The participants of this study consisted of two groups: 50 Arabic EFL secondary school students and 20 EFL secondary school teachers. A gap filling task consisting of 10 items and a matching task consisting of 5 items were administered to the students to elicit their knowledge of English unreal past. A questionnaire consisting of 11 questions was administered to the teachers to inquire about their experiences in teaching English unreal past. The results show that 70% of the students encountered great difficulties in supplying the correct verb forms in English unreal past sentences and 'wish-clauses' was one of the most challenging structures, in which more than half of the students produced wrong verb forms. This was compatible with the teacher's reflection that the verb forms in English wish in unreal past sentences were confused with those of Arabic. This indicated that L1 influence played a role in the difficulties of using English unreal past, including 'wish-clauses'. It was suggested that teaching English unreal past in contexts may enhance the students' performance.

Despite reported errors in the production of 'wish-clauses', only few studies have specifically examined the use of English 'wish-clauses'. One such study is the study of Al-Khawalda and Alhaisoni (2012), which explored the production of three types of 'wish-clauses' by L1 Arabic-L2 English learners. Considering differences between Arabic and English 'wish-clauses', this study employed the notion of L1 transfer as the source of difficulties in the learners' usage of the structure. The

comparison of English and Arabic in the structures of ‘wish-clauses’ showed different verb forms in each type. In Arabic, the verb form in ‘wish about the present’ and ‘wish about the future’ is in simple present, while in ‘wish about the past’, the verb is in simple past. A gap-filling task was administered to 88 L1 Arabic learners of L2 English who were first year English major students. The results illustrated that the learners produced each type of ‘wish-clauses’ in a similar way to Arabic. That is, the verb form in ‘wish about the present’ was either in simple present or present progressive. Most of the verbs in ‘wish about the future’ were in simple present and some were in the form of ‘will + infinitive’. The verb form in ‘wish about the past’ was either in simple past or past progressive. It was concluded that Arabic speakers had difficulties in using ‘wish-clauses’ due to negative L1 transfer.

In the Thai context, deviant usage of ‘wish-clauses’ in terms of wrong tenses has also been reported. Pojprasat (2007) investigated errors in translation made by L1 Thai learners of L2 English. The study aimed to analyse syntactic and semantic errors in translation in terms of types and frequency and to identify possible causes. The participants were 40 Mattayomsuksa 6 students. The translation task consisting of two parts: English-to-Thai and Thai-to-English translation. Each part comprised 30 items. The results showed that one of the grammatical patterns in English-to-Thai translation sentences in which errors were found is ‘wish-clauses.’ These errors were classified into errors on tense. The errors suggested that the students miscomprehended the time of the situation referred to in English ‘wish-clauses’ about the past, thus conveying the wrong time, i.e. future, when translating the sentences into Thai. The errors were suggested to be a result of incomplete knowledge of tense usage and classroom instruction, which places too much emphasis on grammatical structures rather than focusing on meaning.

The previous studies on English ‘wish-clauses’ focused on errors produced by L2 learners and the role of L1. To the best of my knowledge, there has been no research focusing specifically on English ‘wish-clauses’ among L1 Thai learners. To fill in the gap, this study employs the notion of Interlanguage (IL) (Corder, 1981; Selinker, 1972, 1992) with the goal of investigating systematicity of English IL of

‘wish-clauses’ by L1 Thai learners. Also, it seeks to identify the psychological processes which shape the interlanguage of the learners in the use of ‘wish-clauses’.

## 2.3 ‘Wish-clauses’ in English and Thai

### 2.3.1 English ‘Wish-Clauses’

‘Wish-clauses’ are constructions used for expressing the speaker’s desire about the hypothetical events or situations in the present, past, or future.

#### 2.3.1.1 *Hypothetical or counterfactual meaning of English ‘wish-clauses’*

English ‘wish-clauses’ are categorized as hypothetical or counterfactual constructions. According to Leech (1971, 2004), ‘wish-constructions’ express ‘hypothetical meaning’ which means that the event described is assumed to happen “not in the real world, but in an imaginary world.” (Leech, 2004, p. 120). That is, they have an implication of ‘negative truth-commitment’. However, the interpretation is not exactly the same for past, present, and future time. For imaginary past events, as the definite events are known, the hypothetical forms in the dependent clause convey the sense of ‘contrary to fact’. For imaginary events in the present, the sense is closer to ‘contrary to assumption’. For imaginary events in the future, the sense is weakened to ‘contrary to expectation’. Similarly, Gleason (1980) proposes that ‘wish-clauses’ usually have hypothetical meaning and negative and unreal or imaginary implications. A hypothetical wish expresses a desire for something that the speaker considers unattainable or impossible at the moment of speaking or impossible to realize for the past or the future. In other words, it implicates the speaker’s assumption that the happening did not, does not, or will not happen.

According to Iatridou (2000), ‘wish-clauses’ which have the construction of ‘*Subject wish p*’ are ‘counterfactual constructions’ that implicates the speaker’s belief of the proposition produced by the complement clause to be false. This means that the speaker expresses a desire for situations to be different from reality in the past or present. Similarly, Song (2016) posits that the verb *wish* conveys counterfactual attitudes. The author also describes two important characteristics of ‘counterfactual wish’. The first characteristic is that it involves “presupposition that the proposition expressed by the complement clause does not hold in the actual world.” (Song, 2016,

p. 171). The other characteristic is that the interpretation is different depending on the tense of the complement clauses.

### 2.3.1.2 Types of English hypothetical or counterfactual 'wish-clauses'

English hypothetical 'wish-clauses' can be classified into three main types according to the time of the mentioned situations or events: 'wish about the present', 'wish about the past', and 'wish about the future' (Azar & Hagen, 2009, 2017; Foley & Hall, 2012; Leech, 1971, 2004; Murphy, Craven, & Viney, 2015). Each type of 'wish-clauses' has the structure of '*Subject + wish + (that) + a clause*'. The verb *wish* is used in the main clause and the verb forms in the subordinate clause are different according to each type as followings:

#### 1. Wish about the present

There are two structures used to express the speaker's desire for something to be different in the present. The first one is '*wish + simple past*', as in (1a). This also includes the past form of the modal auxiliary *can*, i.e. *could*, as in (1b). The other one is '*wish + past progressive*', as in (1c).

- (1) a. I wish I knew what to do about the problem. (I don't know and I regret this.)  
(Murphy et al., 2015, p. 82)
- b. I wish I could stay longer. (I can't stay longer.) (Murphy et al., 2015, p. 82)
- c. I wish Sarah was/were here now. (Sarah isn't here now.)  
(Murphy et al., 2015, p. 82)
- d. I wish it wasn't / weren't raining right now. (It is raining right now.)  
(Azar & Hagen, 2009, p. 434)

In the above examples, all of the subordinate clauses of *wish* convey desire about hypothetical situations or events which are contrary to the reality in the present. In (1a) the speaker conveys that s/he does not know what to do about the problem and regrets that. Similarly, in (1b), the speaker conveys that s/he cannot stay longer and regrets that. In (1c), the speaker expresses the regrets that Sarah isn't there at the time of speaking. In (1d), it is raining at the time of speaking and the speaker expresses the desire for the opposite situation to happen at that moment, i.e. it is not raining.

It should be noted that in traditional grammar, the form of *verb to be* in ‘wish-clauses’ are in past subjunctive form. That is, the past form of *verb to be* is *were* for every subject. However, in the present day, especially in informal English, either *was* or *were* can be used with singular subjects (Leech, 2004, p. 115), as in (1c) and (1d) above.

## 2. Wish about the past

There are two main structures used to express the speaker’s wish that something different had happened in the past or to talk about regret in the past. The first one is ‘*wish + past perfect*’, as in (2a). The other one is ‘*wish + could + have + past participle*’, as in (2b). Noted that ‘*wish + would + have + past participle*’ is also used in informal English, as in (2c).

- (2) a. I wish I had known about the party. (I didn’t know.) (Murphy et al., 2015, p. 82)  
 b. I wish I could have gone. (I couldn’t go.) (Murphy et al., 2015, p. 82)  
 c. \*I wish John would have come (He didn’t come.) (Azar & Hagen, 2009, p. 434)

In the above examples, all the subordinate clauses of ‘wish-clauses’ express desire about hypothetical events or situations which are contrary to the reality in the past. In (2a), the speaker conveys his/her regrets that s/he did not know about the party. Similarly, in (2b), the speaker expresses his/her regrets that s/he could not go. In (2c), which is used in informal English, the speaker regrets the fact that John did not come.

## 3. Wish about the future

There are three structures used to express the speaker’s desire for something to happen or change, but usually the speaker does not expect it to happen. The first one is ‘*wish + would + verb infinitive*’, as in (3a). The second one is ‘*wish + could + verb infinitive*’, as in (3b). The third one is ‘*wish + was/were going to*’, as in (3c). The last one is ‘*wish + past progressive*’, as in (3d). Similar to ‘wish about the present, either *was* or *were* can be used with singular subjects.

- (3) a. I wish people would recycle their rubbish! (People will not recycle their rubbish.) (Foley & Hall, 2012, p. 172)



- b. I wish she could come tomorrow. (She can't come tomorrow.)  
(Azar & Hagen, 2017, p. 448)
- c. I wish he was/were going to be here next week. (He is not going to be here next week.)  
(Azar & Hagen, 2017, p. 448)
- d. I wish I was/were coming with you tomorrow. (I am not coming with you tomorrow.)  
(Foley & Hall, 2012, p. 174)

In the above examples, all of the subordinate clauses of 'wish' express desire about future events or situations that are contrary to the speaker's expectation. For example, in (3a), the speaker expresses a desire for someone to change his/her behavior in the present or future, i.e. to recycle their rubbish. In (3b), the speaker conveys desire for someone to do something in the future, which may or may not happen, or the ability to do it, i.e. to come. However, the speaker thinks that the person will not or cannot come. This type of sentence is often used as a criticize or complaint. In (3c), the speaker expresses a desire for the person to be there in the future (next week), but s/he thinks that the person is not going to be there. In (3d), the speaker expresses the desire to do something in the future, i.e. to come with the listener, but implies that s/he is not doing so (due to some reasons).

Some exceptions are made regarding '*wish + would + V infinitive*'. First, it is used only with actions or events, not with states or situations. For example, a sentence like '\*I wish I would have a car' is not possible. Rather, '*I wish I had a car*' is used instead. (Murphy, 2015, p.82) Moreover, when the subject in the subordinate clause is I, *could*, not *would* is used, as in '*I wish I could go with you*', not '\**I wish I would go with you.*' (Azar & Hagen, 2017, p. 448).

Azar and Hagen (2009) summarized the possible verb forms in a subordinate clause of English 'wish-clauses' compared to the "true" statement (according to the assumption in the present, the reality in the past, and the speaker's expectation in the future), as shown in Table1 below.

Table 1 A comparison of the different verb forms in the “true” statements with the verb forms in ‘wish-clauses’

	“True” Statement	Verb Form Following <i>Wish</i>
A wish about the Present	I don’t know French. It is raining right now. I can’t speak Japanese.	I wish I knew French. I wish it weren’t raining right now. I wish I could speak Japanese.
A wish about the Past	John didn’t come. Mary couldn’t come.	I wish John had come. I wish Mary could have come.
A wish about the Future	She will not tell me. He isn’t going to be here next week. She can’t come tomorrow.	I wish she would tell me. I wish he were going to be here next week. I wish she could come tomorrow.

(Azar & Hagen, 2009, p. 434)

It can be seen that in ‘wish-clauses’, the forms of the verbs are not correspondent to the normal time reference. They show consistent backshifting of tenses (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999),

which means a progression backward from present to past to past-past.

### 2.3.2 ‘Wish-clauses’ in Thai

In Thai, a hypothetical ‘wish’ is expressed through the verb /yà:k (hâj)/ (*want* or *wish* in English). Similar to the English verb *wish*, this verb can be used to express the speaker’s desire about situations in the past, present or future. However, the differences between Thai and English lie in the verb forms in each of the three types of hypothetical ‘wish-clauses’.

As Thai is an isolating language, there is no inflection on Thai verbs for number, gender, or tense. Verbs in Thai are lexical words without any inflections. As Thai does not have a grammatical mean to express tenses, the time reference is instead inferred by adverbs of time, the context, and inference from aspectual markers, such as /lé:w/ (‘already’), /ma:/ (‘come’), and /cà/ (‘will’) (Iwasaki &

Ingkaphirom, 2009). Thus, the verb forms in the subordinate clauses of ‘wish-clauses’ are not inflected to refer to time. As a result, in many cases, a ‘wish-clause’ can express the meaning in either present, past, or future, as in (4). The meaning is inferred from the context.

(4)  $ch\grave{a}n$   $y\grave{a}:k$   $h\grave{a}j$  :  $kh\grave{a}w$   $ch\grave{a}j$   $we:la:k\grave{a}p$   $ch\grave{a}n$   $m\grave{a}:k$   $kw\grave{a}:n\acute{i}$   
 I wish he spend time with I much than this

‘I wish he spend more time with me.’

- a. I wish he spent more time with me.
- b. I wish he had spent more time with me.
- c. I wish he would spend more time with me.

While each of the English ‘wish-clauses’ in (4) is distinguished by different forms of verbs to express ‘wish about the present’ in (4a), ‘wish about the past’ in (4b) and ‘wish about the future’ in (4c), these clauses can be expressed by the same clause in Thai /  $ch\grave{a}n$   $y\grave{a}:k$   $h\grave{a}j$  :  $kh\grave{a}w$   $ch\grave{a}j$   $we:la:k\grave{a}p$   $ch\grave{a}n$   $m\grave{a}:k$   $kw\grave{a}:n\acute{i}$  / (‘I wish he spend more time with me’). The verb /  $ch\grave{a}j$  / (‘spend’) has only one form whether it is the wish about present, past, or future.

Thai expresses the time of the hypothetical event through adverbs of time, such as *right now*, *last night*, *next week*, and *tomorrow*, the context, and aspectual marker, / $c\grave{a}$ / (‘will’), as shown in the following examples.

(5)  $ch\grave{a}n$   $m\grave{a}j$   $y\grave{a}:k$   $h\grave{a}j$   $f\ddot{o}n$   $t\ddot{o}k$  ( $t\ddot{o}:n$   $n\acute{i}$ )  
 I not wish rain (right now)

I wish it wasn’t / weren’t raining (right now).

(6)  $ch\grave{a}n$   $y\grave{a}:k$   $paj$   $\eta a:n$   $pa:t\acute{i}$   $m\acute{u}:a$   $kh\acute{u}:n$   
 I wish go party last night

I wish I had gone to the party last night.

(7) a.  $ch\grave{a}n$   $y\grave{a}:k$  ( $c\grave{a}$ )  $h\grave{a}j$   $t^h\gamma:$   $b\ddot{o}:k$   $ch\grave{a}n$   
 I wish (will) she tell I

I wish she would tell me.

b. c<sup>h</sup>ǎn yâ:k (cà) hâj p<sup>h</sup>rûŋ ní: t<sup>h</sup>ɯ: ma: dâj  
 I wish (will) tomorrow she come can

I wish she could come tomorrow.

In Thai ‘wish-clauses’, sometimes adverbs of time are present to express ‘wish about the present’, ‘wish about the past’ and ‘wish about the future’. For example, in (5), the presence of the adverb of time, /tɔ:n ní:/ (‘right now’), helps convey the present context. Likewise, in (6) the presence of the adverb of time /mû:a k<sup>h</sup>wu:n/ (‘last night’) indicates the past event. Similarly, in (7b), the presence of the adverb of time /p<sup>h</sup>rûŋ ní:/ (‘tomorrow’) expresses the future event. However, these adverbs of time are optional. The time of the hypothetical event is mainly inferred from the context, as shown in (4) above.

For ‘wish about the future’, the aspectual marker /cà/<sup>1</sup> (‘will’) can be used after the verb /yâ:k/ (‘wish’) to express the future context, as in (7a). However, this aspectual marker is optional, especially with the presence of adverb of time denoting future, i.e. /p<sup>h</sup>rûŋ ní:/ (‘tomorrow’), as in (7b).

In summary, Thai ‘wish-clauses’ differ from English mainly in the verb forms following *wish* in that the verbs are not inflected in all types of ‘wish-clauses’. Adverbs of time, aspectual markers (/cà/), or the context, are used to indicate whether a ‘wish-clause’ is ‘wish about the present’, ‘wish about the past’, or ‘wish about the future.’

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### 3. Methodology

This section describes the methodology in this study, including 3.1 participants, 3.2 research instruments, 3.3 data collection, and 3.4 data analysis.

#### 3.1 Participants

Thirty Thai learners of English participated in this study. They were first year students at Chulalongkorn University from Faculty of Science (9), Faculty of

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<sup>1</sup> Jenny (2001) classified /cà/ as a ‘prospective marker’, which is used for describing an event that occurs “subsequent” to a given reference time and it has a sense of “futuraity” (Jenny, 2001, p. 133)

Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009) classified /cà/ as a challengeability aspectual marker, which is often used to mark challengeability of the future event as it is assumed to be challengeable.

Education (6), Faculty of Arts (5), and Faculty of Medicine (5), Faculty of Pharmacy (1), Faculty of Dentistry (1), Faculty of Accounting (1), Faculty of Engineer (1), and Faculty of Law (1). They were divided into two proficiency groups, i.e. intermediate and advanced, based on the CU-TEP (Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency) scores. Fifteen participants whose scores ranged from 35 to 69 were placed in the intermediate group, and the other 15 whose scores were between 99 and 120 were put in the advanced group. The average score for the intermediate group was 48.67 and those for the advanced group was 104.2 (See biographical information of the participants in Appendix A).

### 3.2 Research Instruments

The instruments employed in this study were two written tasks: a Cloze Test and a Situation Task. Each task contained equal numbers of parallel targeted items. The reason for not including an oral production task was to ensure the complete elicitation of the targeted tenses and verb forms in all the three types of English ‘wish-clauses’, which might not be effectively applicable with an oral production task.

#### 3.2.1 Cloze Test

This test required the participants to fill in the blank with the correct form of the verb given for each item. The test contained 20 test items: 9 targeted items and 11 distractors. All the targeted items covered three types of ‘wish-clauses’: (1) wish about the present, (2) wish about the past, and (3) wish about the future, with 3 items for each ‘wish-clause’ type. The targeted items covered the mainstream verb forms: (1) past simple and ‘could + verb infinitive’ for wish about the present, (2) past perfect, and ‘could+ have + past participle’ for wish about the past, and (3) ‘would + verb infinitive’ and ‘could + verb infinitive’ for wish about the future. One targeted item in each type was in the negative form. To keep variables constant, all the verbs required to be in past forms were regular verbs and the auxiliary *be* was not included. Each item was presented with the context and a sentence with a blank for the word(s) provided in parentheses. All the items were considered valid as they were taken from Azar and Hagen (2017); Foley and Hall (2012); Murphy et al. (2015) (See Appendix B).

Examples of the test items were shown below:

- (2) I wish I \_\_\_\_\_ (can/swim), but I'm terrified of water.
- (10) My friend won't ever lend me his car. I wish he \_\_\_\_\_ (lend) me his car for my date tomorrow night.
- (12) Pedro stayed up really late last night. Today he's having trouble staying awake at work. He wishes he \_\_\_\_\_ (not/stay up) really late last night.

Eleven distractors in this test involved the use of gerunds and infinitives after verbs as it also required the selection of correct verb forms. All of the items were taken from Murphy et al. (2015), as shown in (13) and (14).

- (13) We were unlucky to lose the game. We deserved \_\_\_\_\_ (win).
- (14) They said they were innocent. They denied \_\_\_\_\_ (do) anything wrong.

### 3.2.2 Situation Task

This test required the participants to complete a sentence for each situation by using the given words. The test also contained 20 test items: 9 targeted items and 11 distractors. The targeted items covered all the three types of 'wish-clauses' and the same verb forms as in the Cloze Test, with 3 items for each 'wish-clause' type. Also, to keep variables constant, all the verbs required to be in past forms were regular verbs and the auxiliary *be* was not included. All the items were considered valid as they were taken from Azar and Hagen (2017); Foley and Hall (2012); Murphy et al. (2015); Vince (2008) (See Appendix C).

Examples of the test items were shown below:

- (3) There was a job advertised in the paper. You decided not to apply for it. Now you think that your decision was wrong.  
You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_. (apply)
- (7) You have always wanted to be able to speak a foreign language really well.  
You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_. (can/speak)
- (17) You know that it will snow tomorrow. You don't like this.  
You say to your friend: I wish \_\_\_\_\_. (not/snow)

Eleven distractors in this test involved the use of indirect speech as it also required the completion of subordinate clauses. All of the items were taken from Vince (2008) and Murphy et al. (2015), as shown in (1).

(1) Andy said: "I wouldn't lend my car to just anyone." John asks you what Andy said.

You say to John: He said\_\_\_\_\_ . (lend)

### 3.2.3 Interview

Apart from the two elicitation tasks, another instrument was an interview. In order to gain more insight into their answers and their learning background of English 'wish-clauses', the participants were interviewed for 10-15 minutes immediately after they finished both tasks. The interview was conducted in Thai for understandability and clarity of the data.

### 3.3 Data collection

The two tasks were administered consecutively. The Cloze Test was administered first as it was relatively simpler compared to the Situation Task, considering the requirement of completing only the correct verb forms for each item. The Situation Task, which was more complex due to the requirement of completing the sentences with phrases, was thus administered after the Cloze Test. The researcher explained the instruction orally before the participants completed the two tests. In the test package, detailed information about the study was provided in the first page of each package. The participants could decide whether they would participate in this study and their information provided was guaranteed to be kept confidential and used only for research purposes. The participants were given a total of 45 minutes to complete the pair of them, with 20 minutes for the Cloze Test, and 25 minutes for the Situation Task. Immediately after they completed the written tasks, the participants were interviewed in Thai for about 10-15 minutes. The amount of time taken by each learner group to complete the two tasks differed quite considerably. On average, the intermediate learners took about 40 minutes, while the advanced learners took about 15 minutes.

### 3.4 Data analysis

The total scores of each learner group for each test was calculated. In each test, the total scores of targeted items were nine for each participant. For both tests, the use of the correct forms of the verbs for each type of ‘wish-clauses’ was scored separately for each type. Other verb forms used were also calculated into percentages. As mentioned in section 3.2.1, the targeted answers were: (1) simple past and ‘could + verb infinitive’ for wish about the present, (2) past perfect, and ‘could+ have + past participle’ for wish about the past, and (3) ‘would + verb infinitive’ and ‘could + verb infinitive’ for wish about the future. However, supplings of other verb forms were possible for each ‘wish-clause’ type and they were approved by a native speaker who is a lecturer at Chulalongorn University. The instances confirmed by the native speaker as appropriate were also counted in the total scores. After both tests were scored, scores from the intermediate learners and advanced learners were compared.

## 4. Results and discussions

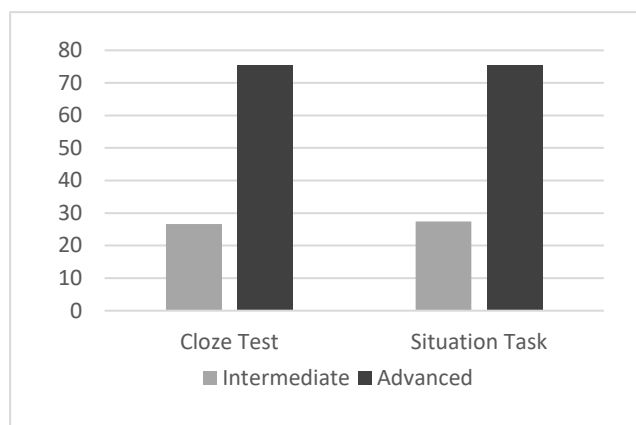
This section reports results and provides discussions on the obtained data. First, an overview of the results from both the Cloze Test and the Situation Task was shown. Then the results of each ‘wish-clause’ type in the two tasks were presented. Finally, analyses of the results in terms of systematicity and the psychological processes were discussed.

The overall results of the two experimental groups were presented in Table 2 and Figure 1 below.

*Table 2 Overall results from the Cloze Test and the Situation Task by L1 Thai learners*

Group	Cloze Test		Situation task	
	Raw scores	Percentage	Raw scores	Percentage
Intermediate	36/135	26.67%	37/135	27.41%
Advanced	102/135	75.56%	102/135	75.56%

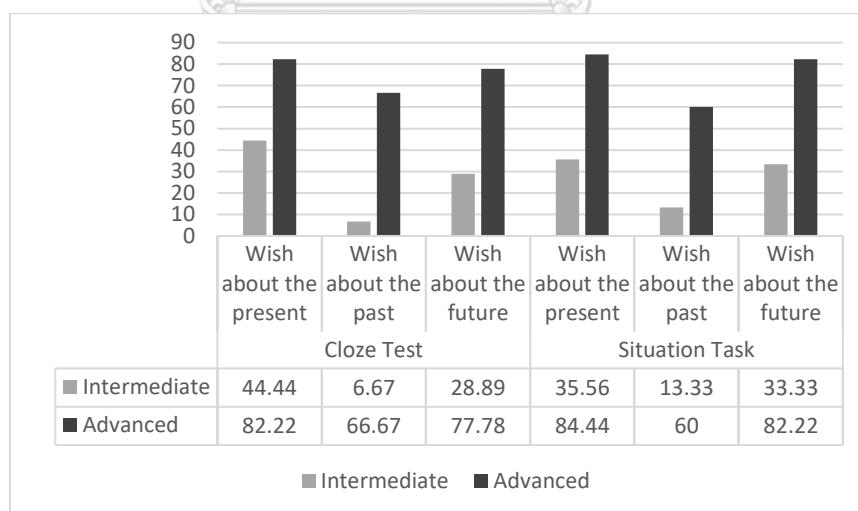




*Figure 1 Overall results from the Cloze Test and the Situation Task by L1 Thai learners*

The overall results of the two experimental groups showed that the advanced group of learners scored better on both tasks with equal scores for each (75.56%). The intermediate group scored slightly better in the Situation task compared to the Cloze Test, (27.41% and 26.67%, respectively).

Regarding the scores for each ‘wish-clause’ type, the advanced group also performed better than the intermediate group, as shown in Figure 2 below.



*Figure 2 Suppliances of correct verb form for each type of ‘wish-clauses’ in the Cloze Test and the Situation Task*

In the Cloze Test, for ‘wish about the present’, the intermediate learners’ scores amounted to 44.44%, while the advanced group’s scores stood at 82.22%. For

‘wish about the past’, the intermediate learners scored 6.67%, whereas the advanced learners scored 66.67%. For ‘wish about the future’, the intermediate learners’ scores amounted to 28.89%, while the advanced group’s scores stood at 77.78%. In the Situation Task, for ‘wish about the present’, the intermediate learners’ scores amounted to 35.56% while the advanced group’s scores stood at 84.44%. For ‘wish about the past’, the intermediate learners scored 13.33%, whereas the advanced learners scored 60%. For ‘wish about the future’, the intermediate learners’ scores amounted to 33.33%, while the advanced group’s scores stood at 82.22%.

Hypothesis one states that L1 Thai learners show systematicity in their IL in the use of English ‘wish-clauses.’ Hypothesis two states that the use of ‘wish-clauses’ of L1 Thai learners are shaped by the psychological processes of IL construction, i.e. language transfer and transfer of training.

From the results, similar trends in the production of ‘wish-clauses’ among the two groups of L1 Thai learners could be evidenced. Two main systematicities seem to occur in both groups of the learners, i.e. the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of production and the lack of backshifting of tenses. Apart from these, another systematicity observed mainly in the intermediate group was usages of other tenses. The proportion of the main types of verbs used in each ‘wish-clause’ type by each learner group was presented in Table 3, Figure 3, Table 4, and Figure 4 below.

*Table 3 The proportion of the main types of verbs used in each ‘wish-clause’ type by the intermediate learners*

Wish-clause type	Cloze Test			Situation Task		
	Back-shifting	No Back-shifting	Usages of other tenses	Back-shifting	No Back-shifting	Usages of other tenses
<b>Present</b>	20/45 (44.44%)	16/45 (35.56%)	9/45 (20%)	16/45 (35.56%)	15/45 (33.33%)	14/45 (31.11%)
<b>Past</b>	3/45 (6.67%)	19/45 (42.22%)	23/45 (51.11%)	6/45 (13.33%)	20/45 (44.44%)	19/45 (42.22%)
<b>Future</b>	13/45 (28.89%)	14/45 (31.11%)	18/45 (40%)	15/45 (33.33%)	14/45 (31.11%)	16/45 (35.56%)
<b>Total</b>	36/135 (26.67%)	49/135 (34.07%)	50/135 (37.04%)	37/135 (27.41%)	49/135 (36.30%)	49/135 (36.30%)

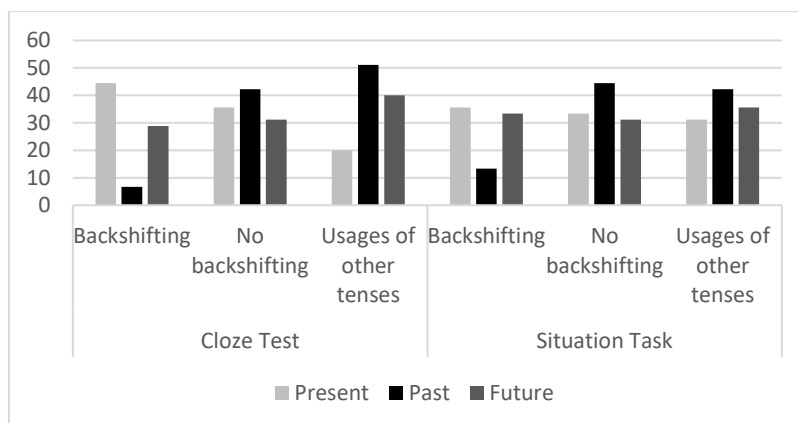


Figure 3 The proportion of the main types of verbs used in each 'wish-clause' type by the intermediate learners

Table 4 The proportion of the main types of verbs used in each 'wish-clause' type by the advanced learners

Wish-clause type	Cloze Test			Situation Task		
	Back-shifting	No Back-shifting	Usages of other tenses	Back-shifting	No Back-shifting	Usages of other tenses
<b>Present</b>	37/45 (82.22%)	8/45 (17.78%)	-	38/45 (84.44%)	5/45 (11.11%)	2/45 (4.44%)
<b>Past</b>	30/45 (66.67%)	15/45 (33.33%)	-	27/45 (60%)	18/45 (40%)	-
<b>Future</b>	35/45 (77.78%)	4/45 (8.89%)	6/45 (13.33%)	37/45 (82.22%)	4/45 (8.89%)	4/45 (8.89%)
<b>Total</b>	102/135 (75.56%)	27/135 (20%)	6/135 (4.44%)	102/135 (75.56%)	27/135 (20%)	6/135 (4.44%)

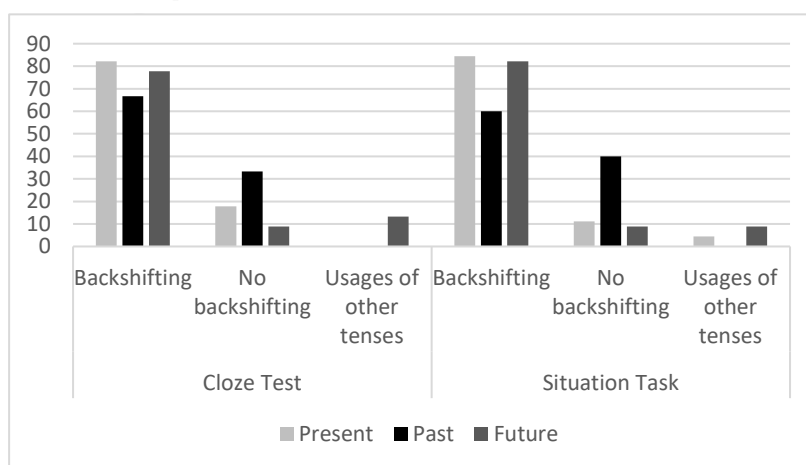


Figure 4 The proportion of the main types of verbs used in each 'wish-clause' type by the advanced learners

First, regarding the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of production of English 'wish-clauses' in terms of tenses and verb forms, both groups exhibited the same order in both tasks, as shown in Figure 2 above. That is, 'wish about the past' seemed to be the most difficult type where both groups produced incorrect verb forms the most, and thus obtained the lowest scores. The intermediate group scores for this type stood at 6.67% in the Cloze Test and 13.33% in the Situation Task and the advanced group at 66.67% in the Cloze Test and 60% in the Situation Task. The incorrect rates of production of verb forms for the other two types of 'wish-clauses' seemed not quite different from each other, resulting in relatively approximate scores, with 'wish about the future' in the second rank and 'wish about the present' as the least difficult type. For the intermediate group, the scores for 'wish about the future' and 'wish about the present' in the Cloze Test amounted to 28.89% and 44.44% respectively and the scores in the Situation Task stood at 33.33% and 35.56% respectively. For the advanced group, the scores for 'wish about the future' and 'wish about the present' in the Cloze Test stood at 77.78% and 82.22% respectively and in the Situation Task at 82.22% and 84.44% respectively.

Second, among the incorrect production, the main verb forms used by both groups in both tasks for all types of 'wish-clauses' were verbs with no backshifting. It could be seen that different proportions of verbs with no backshifting between groups were found. Compared to the intermediate group, the rates of production of verbs with no backshifting of the advanced group were at lower percentages (the total percentages were at 20% for each task). On the other hand, those of the intermediate learners were at 34.07% in the Cloze Test and 36.30% in the Situation Task).

Despite lower percentages of the lack of backshifting of tenses in the production of the advanced learners, similar trends in the proportion for each type could be detected for both groups in both tasks. That is, in 'wish about the present' and 'wish about the future', the use of verbs with no backshifting were at lower percentages compared to 'wish about the past', which was the type with the largest proportion of verbs with no backshifting. These seemed to reflect the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of production of verbs in English 'wish-clauses'.

With regard to ‘wish about the present’, for the advanced learners, the rates of the usage of verbs with no backshifting were quite low (17.78% in the Cloze Test and 11.11% in the Situation Task). For the intermediate learners, this was the only type where the use of verbs with no backshifting were in a smaller proportion than those with backshifting (35.56% compared to 44.44% in the Cloze Test and 33.33% compared to 35.56% in the Situation Task). This reflected the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of production as this type seemed to be the least difficult type for both groups. Examples of the lack of backshifting of tenses for this type were the use of *present simple*, as in (8a) and *present progressive*, as in (8b) below.

(8) a. It's a shame you live so far away. I wish you live (live) nearer.

b. You live in a big city and you don't like it.

You say: I wish I'm not living in a big city. (not/live)

Regarding ‘wish about the future’, similar to ‘wish about the present’, the advanced learners’ suppliance of verbs with no backshifting was at low percentages (8.89% in each task). Similarly, the rates of usage of the intermediate group were at the approximate percentages to those in ‘wish about the present’ (31.11% in each task). This was consistent with the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of production, where this type ranked the second and seemed to be not much different from ‘wish about the present’ in terms of difficulties. Examples of the use of verbs with no backshifting were the use of *future simple*, as in (9a) and *present progressive*, as in (9b) below.

(9) a. My friend won't ever lend me his car. I wish he will lend (lend) me his car for my date tomorrow night.

b. 4. Jim's neighbors are going to move. He wishes they aren't moving (not/move) so soon.

Finally, ‘wish about the past’, was the type with the highest percentages of verbs with no backshifting (33.33% in the Cloze Test and 40% in the Situation Task for the advanced group and 42.22% in the Cloze Test and 44.44% in the Situation Task for the intermediate group). This also reflected the ranking orders of the

incorrect rates of production, where this type tended to be the most difficult type. Examples of verbs with no backshifting for this type were the use of *past simple*, as in (10a) and *present perfect*, as in (10b) below.

(10) a. No doubt he wishes he listened (listen) to what other people were saying before he made his decision.

b. You have painted the gate red. Now you think that red is the wrong color.

You say: I wish I haven't painted the gate red. (not/paint)

Thus, it could be observed that the likelihood not to backshift tenses, for example, the use of *present simple* in 'wish about the present', *past simple* in 'wish about the past' and *future simple* in 'wish about the future', seemed to exist in both groups in both tasks, with lower percentages of usage in the advanced group. Moreover, the proportion of usage in each type of 'wish-clauses' was in parallel with the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of production. That is, the largest proportion of a lack of backshifting was found in 'wish about the past', whereas the smaller proportion was found in 'wish about the future', and 'wish about the present', with approximate percentages.

The systematicity regarding the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of productions of tenses and verb forms in English 'wish-clauses' and the likelihood of a lack of backshifting of tenses could be attributed to language transfer. As Thai is an isolating language, verbs are lexical words without any inflections (See section 2.3.2). Thus, verbs in the subordinate clauses of 'wish-clauses' are not inflected to convey time reference. This lack of verb inflections in Thai was likely to lead to the difficulty in the suppliance of correct verb forms in association with the complexity of the forms for each type of English 'wish-clauses'.

First, 'wish about the present' requires the verb in *past simple*. Given that all the verbs in the targeted items for this type were regular verbs, the learners only had to add the *-ed* morpheme after the verbs. The negative form, '*didn't + verb infinitive*', may be slightly more complex as it requires the adding of auxiliary. Nonetheless, it involves only the adding of the auxiliary in past form and no change is required for the main verb. Hence, it still seems to be less complex than the verb form in 'wish

about the past', to be discussed further. Regarding the modal *can*, which needs to be changed to *could*, also seems not to be complex. Hence, the suppliance of the verb forms in this type seemed to be the least difficult for the learners. This was also supported by the interviews, where the learners reflected the familiarity with the concept of changing the verb in present tense to past tense in 'wish-clauses'.

Second, 'wish about the future' requires the verbs in the form of '*would + verb infinitive*'. As the learners were assumed to be familiar with the use of *will* in talking about the future, partly might be facilitated by the similarity with /cà/, in Thai, as mentioned in section 2.3.2, the change from *will* to *would* seems relatively easy. Also, the change of the modal *can* to *could* tends to be quite simple. This leads to the second rank of this type, in which the incorrect rates of suppliance of verb forms were not quite different from 'wish about the present'.

Finally, 'wish about the past' requires the use of *past perfect*, which tended to be much more complex compared to the other two types as it involves both the use of past form of the auxiliary *have*, i.e. *had* and the change of the main verb to past participle by adding *-ed*. Moreover, given that Thai lacks auxiliaries, the use of the English auxiliary *have* may be quite challenging for Thai learners. For the modal *can*, the form seemed to be the most complex of all, i.e. '*could + have + past participle*' as it involves two auxiliaries as well as the inflection of the main verbs. Apart from the complexity of the form and the lack of auxiliaries in Thai, which contributes to the difficulties, transfer of training might also play a role. That is, this form is not mentioned in the teaching materials of 'wish-clauses' in high schools, where only '*could + verb infinitive*' was present (*Aim High 2,3,4, Upstream 4,5,6, Mega Goal 4, New World 6*). Thus, 'wish about the past' tended to be the most problematic type for the learners concerning the production of verb forms. The difficulty of this type was also reflected in the interviews where the learners reported that they were not quite familiar with the use of *past perfect* and even less familiar with '*could + have + past participle*'.

In summary, language transfer, supplemented by transfer of training, could account for the systematicity in terms of the ranking orders regarding the incorrect rates of production of tenses and verb forms in English 'wish-clauses' and the

proportion of the verbs with no backshifting used in each type. The significant role of L1 in the production of English ‘wish-clauses’ was in line with Al-Khawalda and Alhaisoni (2012). However, the difference was that, in the mentioned study, the incorrect production came from different verb tenses in each ‘wish-clause’ type between Arabic and English. That is, the different verb forms used in Arabic ‘wish-clauses’ were transferred to those in English. In the present study, on the other hand, it is the lack of verb tense system which seemed to be responsible for the inappropriate production. Thus, the results confirmed hypothesis two, which states that the use of ‘wish-clauses’ of L1 Thai learners are shaped by the psychological processes of IL construction, i.e. language transfer and transfer of training.

Apart from the systematicity regarding the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of production in terms of tenses and verb forms and the tendency not to backshift tenses, another systematicity displayed mainly in the intermediate group was the use of verbs in other tenses. As shown in Table 3 and Figure 3 above, the rates of the usages of wrong tenses in the intermediate group were quite high (37.04% in the Cloze Test and and 36.30% in the Situation Task). In fact, these percentages were slightly higher than those of verbs with no backshifting in the Cloze Test (34.07%) and equally in the Situation Task (36.30%). In contrast, as can be seen from Table 4 and Figure 4 above, the very low percentages of this type of verb was found in the advanced group (4.44% for each task). Details of usages for each ‘wish-clauses’ type were as follows.

For ‘wish about the present’, the rates of the production of verbs in other tenses by the intermediate group were 20% in the Cloze Test and 31.11% in the Situation Task, while those of the advanced group was only 4.44% in the Situation Task. Examples were *future simple*, as in (11a) and *present perfect*, as in (11b) below.

(11) a. I need nine hours of sleep. I wish I won't need (not/need) so much sleep. I could get so much more done in a day.

b. You don't own a motorbike and you need one.

You say: I wish I have owned a motorbike. (own)



Regarding ‘wish about the past’, usages of other tenses by the intermediate group amounted to 51.11% in the Cloze Test and 44.44 % in the Situation Task, whereas no usages were found for the advanced group. Examples were *present simple*, as in (12a) and *future simple*, as in (12b) below.

(12) a. Pedro stayed up really late last night. Today he’s having trouble staying awake at work. He wishes he doesn’t stay up (not/stay up) really late last night

b. No doubt he wishes he will listen (listen) to what other people were saying before he made his decision.

With regard to ‘wish about the future’, the rates of usages of other tenses by the intermediate group were 46.67% in the Cloze Test and 35.56% in the Situation Task. On the other hand, those of the advanced group were 13.33% in the Cloze Test and 8.89% in the Situation Task. Examples were *present simple*, as in (13a) and *past simple*, as in (13b) below.

(13) a. Jim’s neighbors are going to move. He wishes they don’t move (not/move) so soon.

b. You’re looking for a job- so far without success. Nobody will give you a job.  
You say: I wish somebody gave me a job. (give)

It could be seen that the main production of verbs in other tenses by the advanced learners was in this type. The reason for usages of *present simple* and *past simple* in referring to wishes in the future might be that the learners interpreted the situation as occurring at the time of speaking, which was considered not much deviant from the intended reference time in the context, i.e. near future time. On the other hand, other tenses produced by the intermediate learners in other ‘wish-clauses’ types, e.g. *present simple* and *future simple*, for ‘wish about the past’ tended to be much deviant from the time reference.

To summarize so far, the results seemed to confirm hypothesis one in that the systematicity in the production of English ‘wish-clauses’ could be evidenced in both groups of L1 Thai learners in both tasks in terms of the ranking orders of the incorrect rates of production regarding tenses and verb forms and the tendency not to backshift tenses which reflected the ranking orders. That is, ‘wish about the past’ was the most

difficult type, whereas the second rank, 'wish about the future', seemed not to be much different from the least difficult type, 'wish about the present'. Also, the supplants of other tenses in each 'wish-clause' type seemed to support hypothesis one in that it was the main systematicity of the intermediate learners regarding the production of English 'wish-clauses' and it also tended to reflect their confusion in the usage of English 'wish-clauses'. This may suggest that regarding the use of English 'wish-clauses', the IL of the intermediate learners was still in the early stage. On the other hand, the higher correct rates of production of each 'wish-clause' type by the advanced group seemed to show that the IL of the advanced learners tended to move closer toward the norm of the L2.

Similar to the ranking orders of incorrect rates of production and the tendency not to backshift tenses, the production of the verbs in other tenses was likely to be influenced by language transfer, supplemented by transfer of training. As mentioned above, the lack of verb inflectional system to show time reference in Thai could cause much difficulty for Thai learners of English to master the use of verb tenses, especially for the learners at lower proficiency level. Moreover, as the verbs in 'wish-clauses' involve backshifting of tenses from the time reference of the hypothetical situation, the use of appropriate verb forms might be even more challenging. Beside the L1 influence, transfer of training may also play a role. That is, despite being part of the lesson in English high school textbooks (*Aim High 2,3,4, Upstream 4,5,6, Mega Goal 4, New World 6*), 'wish-clauses' seems not to be given much importance. This is reflected in the brevity of the lesson in terms of both limited description and exercises. In fact, from the interviews, some students even reported a lack of teaching in high school. This could lead to unfamiliarity with English 'wish-clauses'. Thus, language transfer, in combination with transfer of training, could account for the production of verbs in other tenses by the intermediate learners. The results therefore confirmed hypothesis two as the systematicity tended to be shaped by language transfer and transfer of training, which are among the psychological processes of IL construction.

A final discussion is on another interesting verb form produced by the intermediate learners in 'wish about the present' and 'wish about the past', though

only in small percentages (6.67% for each type), was ‘*wasn’t/weren’t + v-ed*’<sup>2</sup>. This form was most likely a substitute for the correct form, ‘*didn’t + verb infinitive*’, as reflected in the interviews in which the learners reported aiming to produce this verb form in *past simple* with no clues that it was the passive form. Examples of the usage in ‘wish about the present’ was in (14a) and ‘wish about the past’ was in (14b) below.

(14) a. I need nine hours of sleep. I wish I *wasn’t / weren’t needed* so much sleep. I could get so much more done in a day.

b. Pedro stayed up really late last night. Today he’s having trouble staying awake at work. He wishes he *wasn’t stayed up* (not/stay up) really late last night.

This seemed to reflect the systematicity of the learners in which the past form of auxiliary *be*, i.e. *was* and *were*, was falsely hypothesized to be the auxiliary for the negative past form. This might be due to language transfer in which the lack of auxiliaries and verb inflections in Thai could lead to the difficulties in the suppliance of the appropriate English verb forms. As a result, the auxiliary *be* was used instead of the correct form of auxiliary *do*.

Thus, the production of ‘*wasn’t/weren’t + v-ed*’ as a substitute for ‘*didn’t + verb infinitive*’ seemed to support both hypotheses in that it was the systematicity of the intermediate learners regarding the use of negative past form in English ‘wish-clauses’ and it was likely to be influenced by language transfer, which is one of the psychological processes of IL construction.

To sum up, the results of this study showed that non-random use of verb forms in English ‘wish-clauses’ regarding the ranking orders of incorrect rates of suppliance of verb forms and tenses and the tendency to use verbs with no backshifting was exhibited by L1 Thai learners in both proficiency groups. The systematicity which mainly occurred in the intermediate group was usages of other tenses in each ‘wish-clause’ type. Also, the deviant negative past tense form ‘*wasn’t/weren’t + v-ed*’ was supplied by some intermediate learners. In addition, the differences in the proportion of the incorrect production, i.e. the lack of backshifting of tenses, and usages of other tenses between the two groups seemed to suggest that the IL of the advanced learners

<sup>2</sup> This form was counted as a verb with backshifting and was included in the total scores for the correct production in ‘wish about the present’ because it showed the learners’ knowledge of the backshifting from *present simple* to *past simple* in negative clauses, despite the use of wrong auxiliary.

was in the stage closer to the L2. The systematicity in the learners' production of English 'wish-clauses' was primarily due to language transfer and transfer of training, which are among the psychological processes of IL construction, as discussed earlier. The results seemed to be consistent with the previous finding of the production of English 'wish-clauses' by Arabic native speakers, in which the same systematicity in terms of the ranking order was found and L1 was argued to play an important role in the systematicity (Al-Khawalda & Alhaisoni, 2012). The results seemed, therefore, to confirm both hypotheses in that L1 Thai learners of English display systematicity of English 'wish-clauses' in their IL and that the systematicity is mainly shaped by the psychological processes of IL construction, i.e. language transfer and transfer of training.

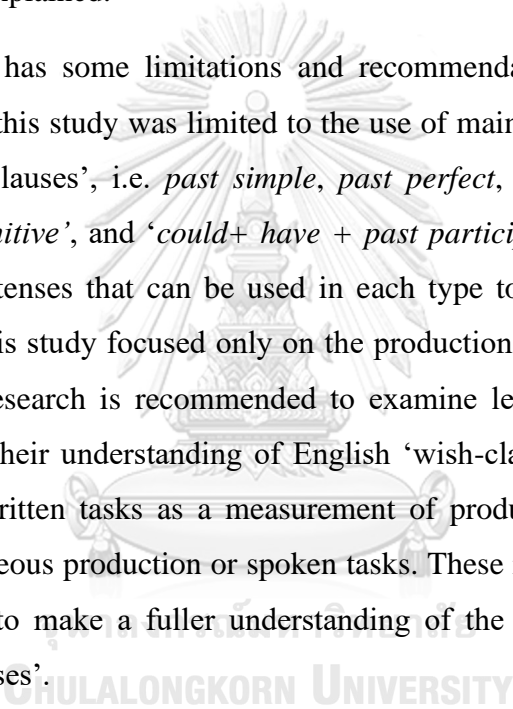
## 5. Conclusions

The current study attempted to apply the IL hypothesis to the study of L2 production of English 'wish-clauses' by L1 Thai learners. By seeking the systematicity in the learners' usage of English 'wish-clauses' and the psychological processes involved, it was designed to bridge the gap of the previous studies, in which L2 learners' production of English 'wish-clauses' tended to be viewed only in terms of errors. The results demonstrated systematicity in Thai learners' IL in the production of all types of English 'wish-clauses' and the two psychological processes, i.e. language transfer and transfer of training could mainly account for the systematicity. Also, the production of the two groups of learners seemed to demonstrate the development of their IL in that the IL of the advanced learners tended to move closer toward the norm of the L2, while the intermediate learners' IL seemed to be at earlier stages.

Regarding theoretical implication, the results suggest that, rather than being viewed as only deviant usages, the learners' production of 'wish-clauses' could be perceived as an idiosyncratic system, being developed as they move toward the L2. This would shed light on the consideration of the notion of IL (Corder, 1981; Selinker, 1972, 1992) as a significant concept to be included in the analyses of L2 production of English 'wish-clauses' and other aspects of English grammar.

As far as pedagogical implications are concerned, it can be noticed that although English ‘wish-clauses’ is considered an important aspect of English grammar, it tends to be overlooked in the teaching of English in Thailand as reflected in the briefness of the lesson in the teaching materials. This partly contributes to the difficulties in the use of English ‘wish-clauses’ apart from the main factor, i.e. the lack of verb tense system in Thai. Therefore, English ‘wish-clauses’ should be given more emphasis in English teaching in school. To build a clear understanding, both the structures and meaning, including the hypotheticality of each type of ‘wish-clauses’ should be clearly explained.

This study has some limitations and recommendations for future research. First, the scope of this study was limited to the use of mainstream tenses in each type of English ‘wish-clauses’, i.e. *past simple*, *past perfect*, ‘*would + verb infinitive*’, ‘*could + verb infinitive*’, and ‘*could+ have + past participle*’. Thus, future research can include other tenses that can be used in each type to make a more conclusive picture. Second, this study focused only on the production of English ‘wish-clauses’, therefore, future research is recommended to examine learners’ perception to gain more insight into their understanding of English ‘wish-clauses’. Finally, the current study employed written tasks as a measurement of production. Future study, thus, may adopt spontaneous production or spoken tasks. These results from different tasks can be compared to make a fuller understanding of the learners’ interlanguage of English ‘wish-clauses’.

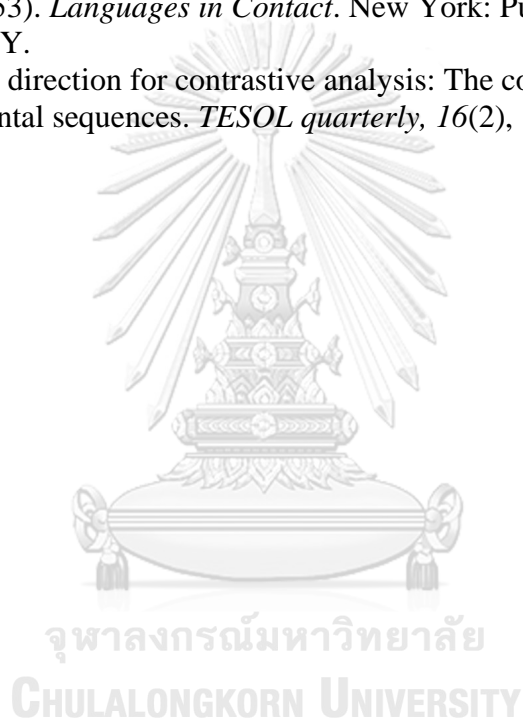


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## Appendix A: Biographical Data of the Participants

Subject No.	Proficiency Level	CU-TEP scores	Faculty	Gender	Age	Years of English
1	Intermediate	37	Science	M	18	12
2	Intermediate	52	Science	M	19	13
3	Intermediate	63	Science	F	19	13
4	Intermediate	55	Science	M	19	12
5	Intermediate	47	Science	F	19	12
6	Intermediate	68	Science	M	19	13
7	Intermediate	38	Science	F	19	12
8	Intermediate	40	Science	M	18	12
9	Intermediate	51	Science	F	19	13
10	Intermediate	62	Education	F	20	12
11	Intermediate	43	Education	F	21	13
12	Intermediate	46	Education	F	19	13
13	Intermediate	55	Education	M	18	13
14	Intermediate	38	Education	F	19	13
15	Intermediate	35	Pharmacy	F	19	12
16	Advanced	103	Arts	F	19	13
17	Advanced	109	Arts	F	19	13
18	Advanced	100	Arts	M	20	14
19	Advanced	105	Arts	M	20	14
20	Advanced	101	Arts	F	19	13
21	Advanced	103	Medicine	M	18	13
22	Advanced	101	Medicine	F	18	13
23	Advanced	108	Medicine	F	18	13
24	Advanced	107	Medicine	M	18	13
25	Advanced	114	Medicine	M	18	13
26	Advanced	99	Accounting	F	19	13
27	Advanced	100	Education	F	19	13

<b>28</b>	Advanced	106	Law	M	18	13
<b>29</b>	Advanced	104	Engineer	M	19	13
<b>30</b>	Advanced	103	Dentistry	F	19	13

*Note.* The CU-TEP (Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency) test has a score range between 1-120. The test takers were grouped into five proficiency levels: 1-13 = Beginner, 14-34 = Elementary, 35-69 = Intermediate, 70-98 = Upper Intermediate, and 99-120 = Advanced. In the present study, the participants whose scores ranged from 35-69 were placed in the intermediate level, and those whose scores ranged from 99-120 were put in the advanced level.



## Appendix B: Cloze Test

**Instruction:** Complete the following sentences using an appropriate form of the word(s) given in the parentheses.

1. I'm not feeling really well. I don't fancy \_\_\_\_\_ (go out).
2. I wish I \_\_\_\_\_ (can/swim), but I'm terrified of water.
3. I considered \_\_\_\_\_ (apply) for the job, but in the end I decided against it.
4. Jim's neighbors are going to move. He wishes they \_\_\_\_\_ (not/move) so soon.
5. I've never been to Hong Kong, but I would like \_\_\_\_\_ (go) there.
6. When we were in London last year, we didn't have time to see all the things we wanted to see. I wish we \_\_\_\_\_ (can/stay) longer.
7. There was a lot of traffic, but we managed \_\_\_\_\_ (get) to the airport in time.
8. It's a shame you live so far away. I wish you \_\_\_\_\_ (live) nearer.
9. We couldn't afford \_\_\_\_\_ (live) in London. It's too expensive.
10. My friend won't ever lend me his car. I wish he \_\_\_\_\_ (lend) me his car for my date tomorrow night.
11. We need to change our routine. We can't go on \_\_\_\_\_ (live) like this.
12. Pedro stayed up really late last night. Today he's having trouble staying awake at work. He wishes he \_\_\_\_\_ (not/stay up) really late last night.
13. We were unlucky to lose the game. We deserved \_\_\_\_\_ (win).
14. They said they were innocent. They denied \_\_\_\_\_ (do) anything wrong.
15. I need nine hours of sleep. I wish I \_\_\_\_\_ (not/need) so much sleep. I could get so much more done in a day.
16. My memory is getting worse. I keep \_\_\_\_\_ (forget) things.
17. I can't go with you tomorrow, but I wish I \_\_\_\_\_ (can/go).
18. Mark doesn't know what happened. I decided \_\_\_\_\_ (not/tell) him.
19. No doubt he wishes he \_\_\_\_\_ (listen) to what other people were saying before he made his decision.
20. Our neighbor threatened \_\_\_\_\_ (call) the police if we didn't stop the noise.

### Appendix C: Situation Task

**Instruction:** Imagine that you are in these situations. For each situation, complete a sentence using an appropriate form of the word(s) given in the parentheses.

1. Andy said, "I wouldn't lend my car to just anyone." John asks you what Andy said.

You say to John: He said \_\_\_\_\_ . (not/lend)

2. Steve said, "I'm living in London". John asks you what Steve said.

You say to John: He said \_\_\_\_\_ . (live)

3. There was a job advertised in the paper. You decided not to apply for it. Now you think that your decision was wrong.

You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_ . (apply)

4. Andy asked, "Can you help me find a job?" John wants to know what Andy asked you.

You say to John: He asked me \_\_\_\_\_ . (can/help)

5. You're looking for a job- so far without success. Nobody will give you a job.

You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_ . (give)

6. Mary asked, "How long does it take to get to the city centre?" John wants to know what Mary asked you.

You say to John: She asked me \_\_\_\_\_ . (take)

7. You have always wanted to be able to speak a foreign language really well.

You say: *I wish* \_\_\_\_\_ . (*can/speak*)

8. Clarissa asked, "How much did you pay to stay in the student hostel?" John wants to know what Clarissa asked you.

You say to John: She asked me \_\_\_\_\_ . (pay)

9. You live in a big city and you don't like it.

You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_ . (not/live)

10. Andy said, "Rachel and Mark are getting married next month." John asked you what Andy said.

You say to John: He said \_\_\_\_\_ . (get)

11. You can't meet your friend tomorrow (and you'd like to).

You say to your friend: I wish \_\_\_\_\_ . (can/meet)

12. Tony asked, "Where have you been?" John wants to know what Tony asked you.

You say: He asked me \_\_\_\_\_ . (be)

13. You don't own a motorbike and you need one.

You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_ . (own)

14. Nicky said, "My sister has had a baby." John asks you what Nicky said.

You say to John: He said \_\_\_\_\_ . (have)

15. You have painted the gate red. Now you think that red is the wrong color.

You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_ . (not/paint)

16. Elaine asked, "Have you visited the National Museum?" John wants to know what Elaine asked you.

You say to John: She asked me \_\_\_\_\_ . (visit)

17. You know that it will snow tomorrow. You don't like this.

You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_ . (not/snow)

18. Steve said, "I'm not enjoying my job very much." John asked you what Steve said.

You say to John: He said \_\_\_\_\_ . (not/enjoy)

19. You hear the party was great, but you couldn't join.

You say: I wish \_\_\_\_\_ . (can/join)

20. Nicky said, "My father isn't very well." John asked you what Nicky said.

You say to John: He said \_\_\_\_\_ . (not/be)

## VITA

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