

Avoidance of the Use of English Participial Reduced Relative Clauses among L1 Thai Learners

Supakit Thiamtawan
shapolang_armu03@hotmail.com
Chulalongkorn University

Nattama Pongpairoj
pnattama@gmail.com
Chulalongkorn University

Abstract

The research examined avoidance behavior; that is, the phenomenon where L2 learners avoid producing either a difficult L2 structure or a TL form which is non-existent in their L1 (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 2002). By semi-replicating Klienmann's (1978) tests, the study aimed to determine whether L1 Thai learners would avoid producing the English participial reduced relative clause structure (PRRC). It was hypothesized that L1 Thai learners' difficulty with the PRRCs which was caused by differences between their L1 and the L2 led them to underproduce the reduced adjectival clauses. The research participants, twenty Thai undergraduate students, were given a comprehension test to ensure their knowledge of the PRRC structure, followed by two indirect preference assessment tasks. Two tasks, i.e., a cloze test and a Thai-English translation test, were employed to investigate the participants' preference between PRRCs and relative clauses (RCs). The results showed that the L1 Thai participants tended not to avoid the PRRC structure. It is assumed that three possible factors were involved: the L2 learners' familiarity with the PRRC structure, simplicity of the reduced adjectival clause, and the nature of the tasks. The Factors of L2 Non-Avoidance Hypothesis (FNAH) was proposed to account for the subjects' tendency of L2 non-avoidance. The essence of the FNAH is that, even though features in L1 and L2 are different or L2 features are non-existent in L1, it does not necessarily mean L2 avoidance will occur. Other factors have to be taken into consideration.

Keywords: Avoidance behavior, Second language acquisition, Contrastive analysis, English participial reduced relative clause

Introduction

Many Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers began to show interest in avoidance behavior when it was found that Error Analysis (EA) could not adequately account for some communication strategies that second language (L2) learners might use, including avoidance. As Schachter (1974) demonstrated, one of the main claims EA researchers have made is that L2 language learners' errors reflect difficult structures for them. Schachter, however, observed that a low number of errors might be caused by learners who avoid producing structures they find complicated and the low frequency of production gave rise to a small number of errors. Schachter (1974) found that Chinese and Japanese subjects produced fewer

English relative clauses (RCs), compared to Persian and Arabic participants and, thus, made fewer errors.

There have been many studies on avoidance behavior among L2 learners (e.g. Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Irujo, 1986; Klienmann, 1978; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993; Pazhakh, 2007; You, 1999). However, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, few have looked at avoidance in the use of English participial reduced relative clauses (PRRCs) (Mattar, 1997). Moreover, none of the previous SLA studies have explored avoidance of the structure among learners whose first language (L1) is Thai. Consequently, the aim of this paper is to investigate the avoidance of PRRCs among L1 Thai learners of English.

Background

English Participial Reduced Relative Clauses and Thai Reduced Relative Clauses

English participial reduced relative clauses (PRRCs) are a reduction of English relative clauses (RCs); that is, dependent clauses that describe or provide information about the head noun within a noun phrase (NP). Lee (2007) stated that PRRCs are non-finite clauses because they contain a participle. Participle is a type of non-finite verbs or verbs whose form does not change based upon any noun in the sentence, and thus, cannot function as the main verb in the predicate of a sentence. An English participle is a verb form in either of the two participial forms, namely the present participle (verb + 'ing') and the past participle (usually verb + 'ed'). Azar (1999) viewed PRRCs as RCs whose relative pronouns, including 'who,' 'which,' and 'that,' and, in some cases, the verb 'be' are omitted. There are two ways of reducing English RCs to PRRCs. The first way is called whiz-deletion, where PRRCs are derived by omitting the relative pronoun and the verb 'be' (Aniya, 1989). As an example, in (1), the RC contains the verb 'present' in the past participle form with the NP, 'the ideas,' as the head NP and the recipient of the action 'are presented in that book':

- (1) The ideas *which are presented in that book* are good. (Azar, 1999, p. 290)

In (2), the verb 'talk' in the present participle form modifies the head NP 'The man' which is the initiator of the action 'talking to John':

- (2) The man *who is talking to John* is from Korea. (Azar, 1999, p. 290)

The RCs in (1) and (2) are reduced to be PRRCs by omitting the relative pronouns 'which' and 'who,' and the verb 'be,' as in (3) and (4), respectively:

- (3) The ideas *presented in that book* are good.
(4) The man *talking to John* is from Korea.

The second way of shortening RCs into PRRCs applies to only relative clauses which do not contain the verb 'be'. Azar (1999) demonstrated that such RCs can be reduced by omitting the relative pronoun and changing the verb in the RCs into the present participial form. For example, (5) can be transformed into (6) by deleting the

relative pronoun ‘who’, and adding the ‘-ing’ suffix to the tense form of the verb ‘want’ in the RC:

- (5) Students *who want* to enter the school must pass the IELTS test.
 (6) Students *wanting* to enter the school must pass the IELTS test.

Since PRRCs are derived from RCs, they are the same in meaning as RCs. Consequently, the meanings of (1), (2), and (5) are identical to those of (3), (4), and (6), respectively.

There is no Thai equivalent of the English PRRC. The closest Thai structure is the reduced relative clause (RRC) or the RC without a relative pronoun (Yaowapat & Prasithratsint, 2006). This is probably because of three main differences between these two languages.

The first difference concerns the conditions under which the relative pronouns in RCs can be omitted. In English, the relative pronouns ‘which,’ ‘who,’ and ‘that’ in RCs can be deleted in some cases. However, there are only two cases where the relative pronouns in Thai RCs can be omitted (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005).

First of all, it is possible to delete a relative pronoun from a subject RC that gives a general description of the head NP:

- (7) rôt-mee [(thîi) pay sayăam] còot pâay níi máy khráp
 bus (Rel) go Siam Square stop board this QP¹ SLP²

‘Does the bus that goes to Siam Square stop at this bus stop?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 250)

In (7), the RC, /pay sayăam/ ‘going to Siam’ offers a general description of the head NP /rôt-mee/ ‘bus’, which is the subject in the adjectival clause. Hence, the relative pronoun /thîi/ in this example can be omitted.

Secondly, a Thai relative pronoun can be omitted in cases where the head NP modified by an RC can be considered “a definable category of people with a specific role” (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 250). Consider (8) and (9):

- (8) khon [(thîi) tham kâp-khâaw mûa-waan-nîi] pen khray
 person (Rel) make dishes yesterday COP who

‘Who is the person who cooked yesterday?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 250)

¹ QP = Question particle (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

² SLP = Speech level particle (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005)

- (9) khon [thîi yæun troŋ nán] pen khray
 person Rel stand right there COP who
 ‘Who is the person who stood over there?’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 250)

The reason why /thîi/ is optional in (8) is because it is possible to consider /khon tham kâp-khâaw/ ‘a person who fixed a meal’ a definable category of a person with a particular role, namely a cook. In contrast, /thîi/ in (9) cannot be omitted as it is not possible to deem /khon thîi yæun troŋ nán/ ‘a person who is standing there’ as a definable category with a specific role.

In addition to the fewer conditions under which Thai relative pronouns can be omitted, the lack of inflectional affixes in the Thai language accounts for why there is no Thai counterpart for the English PRRC structure. That is to say, English has the inflectional affixes ‘-ing’ and ‘-ed’ to express the active and the passive states, respectively. Thai does not possess such affixes (Lekawatana, Littell, Palmer, Scovel, & Spenser, 1969); instead, separate words are employed to indicate these aspects. Specifically, /yùu/, /yaŋ/ ‘still’ or /kamlaŋ/ ‘presently’ is used for the continuous aspect, whereas /thùuk/, /doon/ or /dây-ráp/ can express the passive (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005). Since Thais add significant information to an utterance by employing an independent word, inflectional affixes in English, including ‘-ing’ and ‘-ed’, may seem complicated to them.

The last difference concerns how RCs in English and Thai are shortened. In English, PRRCs reduced from their RC form involve not only the relative pronoun omission, but also other changes; either deleting the verb ‘to be’ or adding the ‘-ing’ suffix to the verb in the RC. Conversely, the reduction of Thai RCs requires the omission of Thai subordinate clause markers only.

It is assumed that, because of these three characteristics of the Thai language (i.e., fewer conditions under which Thai relative pronouns can be deleted, the lack of the inflectional affix system, and the more restricted RC reduction which requires the omission of relative pronouns only), L1 Thai learners tend to employ an English RC, rather than its reduced form with participles.

Previous Studies on Avoidance in L2 Acquisition

Avoidance behavior is a phenomenon in L2 acquisition where L2 learners frequently avoid employing a target language (TL) structure either because it is difficult for them or because it is non-existent in their native language (NL). Instead, they use a simpler structure or form which exists in their mother tongue (Richards et al., 2002). It should be noted that such a behavior was also introduced under the category of communication strategies. Tarone (1980) pointed out that communication strategies are two conversation participants’ endeavors to agree on a meaning in situations where they do not share certain structures or items. Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas (1983) proposed a taxonomy of communication strategies, which included avoidance behavior. In the

taxonomy, there are two types of avoidance strategies: topic avoidance and message abandonment. Topic avoidance is L2 learners' refusal to discuss concepts for which the TL vocabulary or structure is not known. The second type is message abandonment where L2 learners have a tendency to cut short the discourse or stop mid-sentence due to their lack of TL knowledge (Prapobratanakul & Kangkun, 2011).

Klienmann (1978) noted that it must be ensured that learners have knowledge of a particular structure before they are said to be avoiding it. If learners lack the knowledge, their non-production will be considered negligence, rather than avoidance. Klienmann (1978) proposed a way of determining whether the learners have knowledge of what they are avoiding. In the first place, he gave his participants a comprehension test; that is, a test ensuring their knowledge of the given structures. Then, indirect preference assessment tasks, namely tests investigating the subjects' preference between choices, were administered to them in order to see whether they would avoid actual production of those structures.

As a result of the findings of several SLA studies on avoidance behavior, it has been proposed that the best predictor of the phenomenon is L1-L2 differences (Laufer & Eliasson, 1993). In their study, Dagut and Laufer (1985) looked at the performance on English phrasal verbs of L1 Israeli learners, who do not have phrasal verb equivalents in their L1. Three groups of Hebrew learners took three tests: a multiple-choice test, a verb-translation test, and a verb-memorization test. The results showed that most subjects avoided using English phrasal verbs because of differences between the L1 and the L2. Due to a lack of Hebrew translation-equivalents for the English, the Hebrew subjects probably found such verbs confusing. Therefore, they avoided what they did not properly understand, preferring single-word verbs instead. Dagut and Laufer concluded that the Hebrew learners' difficulty in producing English phrasal verbs could not be explained by intralingual factors such as "faulty internalization of rules," "fossilization," and "overgeneralization". Instead, it could only be understood by using an interlingual approach; that is, focusing on structural differences between Hebrew and English. This study, therefore, provides strong evidence that the differences between the learners' L1 and the L2 could result in avoidance behavior.

In a subsequent study of the avoidance of using English phrasal verbs, Laufer and Eliasson (1993) gave two tests: a multiple-choice test and a translation test, to advanced Swedish learners of English, whose native language has a phrasal verb structure. The results of the study were compared with those of Dagut and Laufer (1985) and the researchers observed that phrasal verbs in the L2 were avoided by learners whose L1 lacked such verb type (Hebrew), but were produced by those who possessed the verb category in their L1 (Swedish). This led Laufer and Eliasson to conclude that the best predictor of avoidance was L1-L2 differences.

Despite a number of studies with similar findings, the statement that avoidance is caused by either differences between the learners' L1 and L2 or non-existence of a particular L2 structure in their mother tongue has been contradicted by some researchers investigating the phenomenon. As shown in the following empirical research, there are other possible factors that can influence L2 learners' avoidance behavior.

Irujo (1986) carried out a study to explore L1 Spanish subjects' avoidance of English idioms. The findings revealed that the participants did not avoid using idioms

when they were asked to translate Spanish paragraphs containing idioms into English. Yet, Ijuro noted that, although the participants produced the idioms in the written translation task where “it was obvious to them that an idiom was expected” (p. 213), it did not necessarily mean that they would produce such expressions in other contexts or other types of elicitation tasks. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the nature of the elicitation task could affect the subjects’ avoidance.

In addition, similarities between language learners’ L1 and L2 might be a possible cause of their avoidance behavior. Hulstijn and Marchena (1989), following up on Dagut and Laufer’s (1985) study, explored the performance on phrasal verb tests of Dutch learners whose L1 has such verbs. The subjects were given three tests: a multiple-choice test, a memorization test, and a translation test. The researchers found that the participants avoided the figurative phrasal verbs that were translation equivalents of Dutch verbs. This indicates that the subjects avoided the phrasal verbs that they perceived as too “Dutch-like” (p. 241), suggesting that similarities between the L1 and the L2 might give rise to the learners’ avoidance.

In her study investigating the avoidance of English phrasal verbs by three groups of L1 Korean learners from different educational environments, You (1999) claimed that the causes of the phenomenon should not be restricted to only structural differences between L1 and L2, but should be explained from several perspectives. In order to test her claim, the researcher asked her subjects to do three tests: a verb elicitation test, a verb translation test, and a verb multiple choice test. It was found that the educational methodology, natural settings in L2 learning, and the major fields of their study were significant factors resulting in differences in the avoidance behavior among the different groups of subjects. Consequently, to account for the phenomenon among different groups of L2 learners, the use of linguistic factors alone might be inadequate. Instead, several other factors, including the learners’ environments should also be considered.

In addition, it has been proposed that the L2 learners’ proficiency level is a significant factor determining the extent to which they resort to avoidance strategies. Mattar’s (2003) results showed that less advanced learners relied on avoidance behavior more greatly than their more advanced counterparts did. It has been assumed that more advanced participants are more competent and, thus, more confident when communicating in the L2. Liao and Fukuya (2004) explored the avoidance of English phrasal verbs among Chinese learners, and assumed that the learners’ proficiency levels might have an impact on their underproduction of the verbs. The subjects were divided into two groups according to their proficiency levels: intermediate and advanced. The participants took one of three tests: a multiple-choice test, a translation test, or a recall test. The findings indicated that the intermediate learners tended to avoid producing phrasal verbs whereas the advanced learners did not. Pazhakh (2007) also confirmed that language proficiency has a direct effect on L2 learners’ avoidance. Conducting an intensive study to examine Iranian EFL learners’ use of avoidance strategies in their writing, the researcher found that the subjects of lower proficiency were likely to employ avoidance strategies more frequently than learners of higher proficiency.

As previously seen, most avoidance behavior studies have given little attention to the PRRC. However, Granger (1997) found that among L2 learners of English, the PRRC is one of the most frequently avoided structures. The researcher conducted a study to compare the use of participle clauses, including the PRRCs, in the academic

writing of native speakers of English, and that of three groups of advanced EFL learners from different L1s: French, Swedish, and Dutch. The results showed a statistically significant underproduction of the PRRCs by the L2 learners, compared to the native speakers of English. A lack of the PRRCs in the academic writing of the EFL learners was attributed to two reasons. The first reason focused on the lack of emphasis given to the PRRC structure in EFL instructional material. That is, the reduced adjectival clause has been inadequately explained in EFL grammars; therefore, the L2 learners might be unsure about how and when the structure should be employed. The second reason involved language transfer. Specifically, the PRRC is either non-existent or much less frequently used in the participants' native languages, leading to their tendency to avoid the structure.

L2 learners' avoidance of English PRRCs might be related to the fact that the structure can give rise to ambiguity or difficulty of understanding sentences in which it appears. Parrott (2000) demonstrated that "comprehension is a problem particularly when relative pronouns are left out" (p. 356). It is possible that, if the L2 learners have trouble understanding the PRRC, they probably have problems producing the structure as well. The problem is more likely to occur when the learners are faced with PRRCs with past participles, than when they deal with present participles. Carroll (2008) claimed that English PRRCs, particularly those with past participles, are momentarily difficult to comprehend as the same form of a verb can be interpreted as either the past tense form (e.g. 'The florist *sent* the flowers to the widow') or the past participle form of the verb (e.g. 'The florist *sent* the flowers was very pleased'). On the other hand, PRRCs with present participles are usually more easily recognized because the present participle form (e.g. 'The man *standing* in front of the school') is different from other related forms, namely the present progressive (e.g. 'The man *is standing* in front of the school'), as the two forms use 'verb + ing' and 'verb 'be' + verb + ing', respectively. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the participle types, namely past and present participles, can affect L2 learners' avoidance of English PRRCs.

Moreover, despite the large number of studies on avoidance behavior among L2 learners, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, only two existing studies have investigated the phenomenon among L1 Thai learners (Chotiros & Pongpairroj, 2011; Thiamtawan, 2012). Chotiros and Pongpairroj examined whether two groups of L1 Thai-speaking subjects from different levels, namely 9th grade and 11th grade students, would avoid employing the passive construction in English. The researchers hypothesized that, despite the existence of the passive in their L1, the subjects tended to have difficulty using the structure in English due to its complexity. Adapting Klienmann's (1978) methodology, the research instrument consisted of two tests: a comprehension test and an indirect preference assessment task. In the latter test, the participants were asked to look at pictures and to answer questions designed to elicit the passive voice. Surprisingly, although neither group of subjects mastered the English passive construction, as supported by a large number of errors when producing it, they were unlikely to demonstrate the avoidance behavior of the passive construction. The participants' lack of avoidance behavior was attributed to similarities between the passives in Thai and English and the increased use of this structure in Thai.

Thiamtawan (2012) explored whether L1 Thai learners would avoid producing English PRRCs with present participles. His subjects were given a comprehension test and an indirect preference assessment task; in this case, a Thai-English translation test.

The participants were shown to avoid using the given structure. Their underproduction of English PRRCs with present participles was possibly caused by differences in verb type, namely stative and dynamic verbs³. That is to say, many subjects said that stative verbs (e.g. 'want,' 'love,' and 'have') can be used with the RC structure only because they were taught that stative verbs cannot be used with the suffix '-ing' in the present progressive tense whereas dynamic verbs (e.g. 'sleep,' 'lie,' and 'stand') can be used with both the RC and PRRC structures.

Hypotheses

The formulated hypotheses were as follows:

1. L1 Thai learners of English tend to avoid PRRCs and use RCs instead.
2. L1 Thai learners of English are likely to show a higher level of avoidance of PRRCs with past participles, compared to those with present participles.

Research methodology

Subjects

The subjects were twenty intermediate level Thai EFL students, comprising ten undergraduate students from the Faculty of Economics, Chulalongkorn University, and the other ten from the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University. The participants' English proficiency levels were determined by the Oxford Placement Test or the OPT Test (Allan, 2004). The participants' ages ranged between 19 and 23, and the mean age was 21. Their OPT scores ranged between 122 and 148. The mean of the OPT scores was 135. The subjects have been studying English for at least 11 years.

Research Instruments

The instrument employed was a partial replication of Klienmann's (1978) tests. The research instrument used in this study was divided into two parts. The first part was a comprehension test (see Appendix A). The subjects were given a test of twenty multiple-choice questions designed to ascertain whether they comprehended the English PRRC structure. Eight of the items tested the participants' comprehension of the PRRC structure, and the other twelve items were interspersed as distracters. The highest score for each tested item was +4; therefore, the total score for the comprehension test was +32. Subjects who scored lower than 80% of the total score, namely 25 points, were excluded from the study, as their comprehension of the English PRRC structure seemed weak.

The second part of the instrument was an indirect preference assessment task (IPA). This task consisted of two tests: a cloze test (see Appendix B) and a Thai-English translation test (see Appendix C). Tested items in these two tasks had two

³ Stative verbs are the verbs which are not usually used in continuous tenses whereas dynamic verbs are those employed in progressive tenses (Sinclair, 1997, p. 459).

properties in common. Firstly, the tested items involved the two participle types: past and present participles. There were eight items for each participle type, totaling sixteen tested items per test. Secondly, to keep the variables constant, all tested NPs, which were modified by the RC/PRRC structures, were singular, countable, and concrete NPs only, such as ‘a city,’ ‘the man,’ and ‘a book.’

For the cloze test, the participants were given forty items, each of which contained a blank. Two structures or forms which were identical in terms of meaning were given as possible answers to each blank. The subjects were asked to choose the option they preferred. After the participants had taken the cloze test, the Thai-English translation test was immediately administered to them. The test contained twenty-four Thai sentences and their English equivalents. Three blanks were given for each English item. Two structures or forms which were identical in terms of meaning were provided for each blank. In doing the two tests, the participants were instructed to select the first answers coming to mind.

To confirm the validity of the instruments, three native speakers of English who are English lecturers at the Faculty of Arts, Department of English, Chulalongkorn University were asked to complete the two IPA tasks. They confirmed that the tests were appropriate in examining the participants’ preferences between the PRRC and RC structures.

Findings and discussion

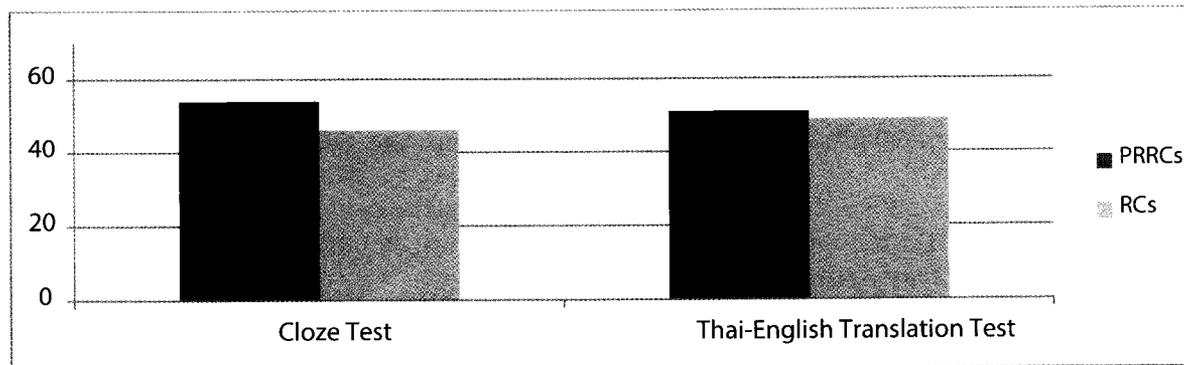
The overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the subjects were examined in order to test the first hypothesis. Table 1 shows the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the research participants in both indirect preference assessment tasks. The calculated percentage of the frequencies was also given.

Table 1: Overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the participants

IPA Tasks	PRRCs	RCs
Cloze Test	173/320 (54%)	147/320 (46%)
Thai-English Translation Test	164/320 (51%)	156/320 (49%)

In order to give a clearer overview of the results, the percentages of the overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the subjects are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Overall frequencies of the PRRC and RC structures among the participants



As shown in Table 1 and Figure 1, both in the cloze test and the Thai-English translation test, the frequency of the PRRC structure is greater than that of the RC structure (i.e. 54% and 46% in the cloze test, and 51% and 49% in the Thai-English translation test).

To examine the second hypothesis, the frequencies of the PRRC structure in relation to the participle types were explored. Table 2 and Figure 2 show the participants' use of the PRRC structure in relation to the participle types in the cloze test.

Table 2: The participants' use of PRRCs in relation to participle types in the cloze test

Participle Types	PRRCs
Past Participles	87/160 (54%)
Present Participles	86/160 (54%)

Figure 2: The participants' use of PRRCs in relation to participle types in the cloze test

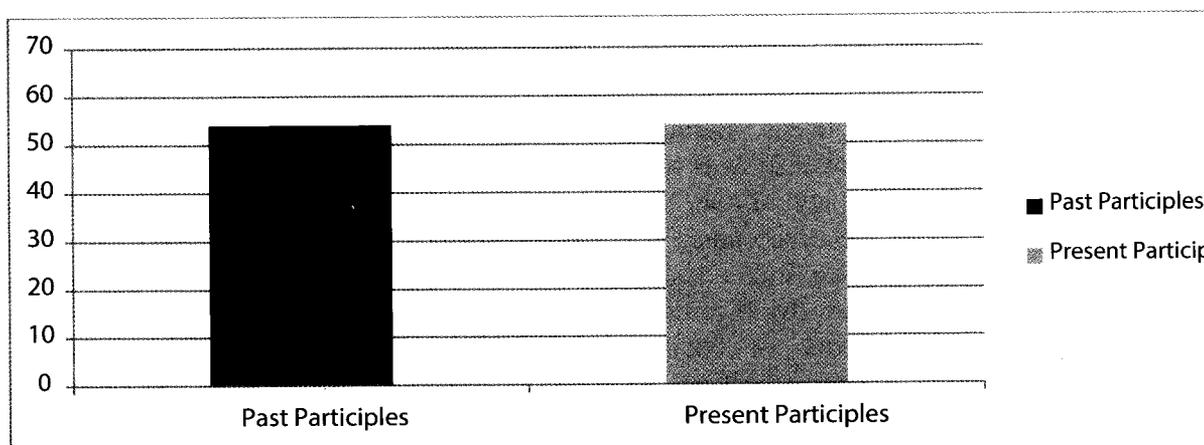


Table 2 and Figure 2 reveal that the frequency of the PRRC with past participles is equal to that of the reduced adjectival clause with present participles (i.e. 54%), suggesting that the participle types did not affect the subjects' use of PRRCs in the cloze test.

The percentages of the PRRC structure in relation to the participle types in the Thai-English translation test among the participants are provided in Table 3 and Figure 3.

Table 3: The participants' use of PRRCs in relation to participle types in the Thai-English translation test

Participle Types	PRRCs
Past Participles	83/160 (52%)
Present Participles	81/160 (51%)

Figure 3: The participants' use of PRRCs in relation to participle types in the Thai-English translation test

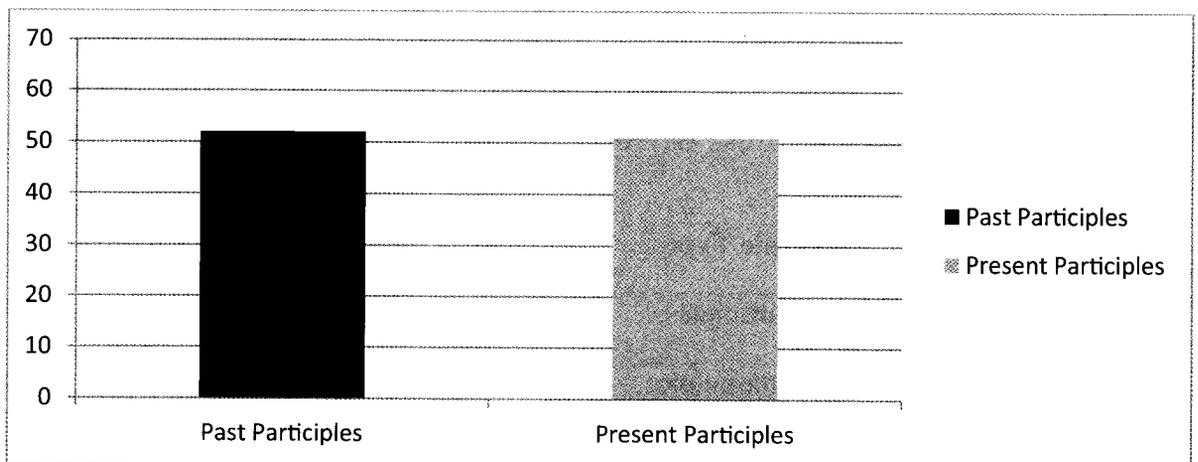


Table 3 and Figure 3 indicate that the frequency of the PRRC with past participles approximates that of the reduced adjectival clause with present participles (i.e. 52% and 51%, respectively). Similar to the results in the cloze test, the findings show that the participle types did not have influence on the subjects' use of PRRCs in the Thai-English translation test.

The first hypothesis, stating that the L1 Thai learners were likely to avoid PRRCs and use RCs instead, was not confirmed by the results of the study. As shown in the overall frequency of the PRRC and RC structures, the percentage of the participial reduced relative clause is higher than that of the relative clause in both indirect preference assessment tasks. The non-avoidance of the participial reduced relative clause structure by the research participants may have been a result of the following three factors: L1 Thai learners' familiarity with the PRRC structure, simplicity of the reduced adjectival clause, and the nature of the tasks in this study.

First of all, the subjects' familiarity with the English PRRC might have resulted in their tendency of not avoiding the structure. Such familiarity is probably related to their pre-university L2 learning experience. That is, the L1 Thai learners tend to find and study the PRRCs from two sources: their secondary schools and tutorial institutes. Firstly, several English structures, including the PRRC, are likely to be emphasized in a number of Thai secondary schools. The reduced RC has been included and focused on in English courses and teaching materials of many Thai high schools (P. Sunthanapipat, P. Panitchayakul, S. Jitwiriyanont, personal communication, May, 29, 2013). Apart from several secondary schools, the PRRC structure is possibly taught in English classes of tutorial schools in Thailand. The schools tend to teach the issues that students are likely to be tested on (Wipatayotin, 2011, para.4). In terms of English tests, the PRRC is probably one of the most frequently occurring structures in university entrance examination papers, including entrance examination tests (1998-2005), O-net and A-net English tests (2006-2009), and GAT English tests (2010-2012). Accordingly, the frequent occurrence of the reduced adjectival clause in English tests suggests that the PRRC is one of the focused structures in English courses and teaching materials of many tutorial schools.

Moreover, the simplicity of the reduced adjectival clause over the unreduced one might give rise to the research participants' nonavoidance of the PRRC structure. A possible reason why the unreduced RC was used less frequently than the PRRC is that the first structure is more complicated to use than the latter one. To use RCs, L2 English learners have to take three factors into consideration: subject-verb agreement, English tense, and relative pronouns. An unreduced relative clause involves subject-verb agreement which requires a correlation in (i) number and (ii) person between a subject and a verb, regardless of tense, aspect, or mood (Loberger & Shoup, 2009). If a subject is singular, its verb must also agree with the subject by being singular. Similarly, if a subject is plural, its verb must also denote plurality. In terms of person agreement, Young (1984) explained that "in the present tense, a third person singular subject demands the use of the s-form of the first verb; all other subjects demand the base form" (p. 42). L2 learners have to consider not only adding an inflectional suffix '-s,' '-ed,' or '-ing' to main verbs or changing the form of irregular verbs, but also variations in auxiliary verbs, including *be* ('is,' 'am,' and 'are' in the present tense, and 'was' and 'were' in the past tense), *have* ('has' and 'have' in the present tense and 'had' in the past tense) and *do* ('does' and 'do' in the present tense, and 'did' in the past tense). The use of relative clauses can become even more perplexing when they involve English tenses or aspects such as present perfect, present perfect continuous, past perfect, and past perfect continuous. The third factor that L2 English learners have to take into account when using English RCs is relative pronouns. Many English grammar textbooks note that relative pronouns must agree with the nouns preceding them. For example, 'who' is employed for referring to humans whereas 'which' is usually used to indicate non-humans, and 'that' can replace both 'who' and 'which' (Azar, 1999; Murphy, 2012). On the other hand, in order to use a PRRC, the L2 learners simply omit the relative pronouns and add the 'ing' or '-ed' suffix to the verb in the RCs. It is worth observing that the three decisions involved in producing the RC structure can be burdensome, and thus can overload the L2 English learners' cognitive resources, accounting for the lower frequency production of the RC structure. That is, degrees of information processing (Juffs, 1998; Trueswell, Tanenhaus, & Garnsey, 1994) might affect the participants' use of RCs and PRRCs.

Specifically, in producing the RCs, information processing is assumed to be higher than that in producing the PRRCs, and thus, the more information processing required to produce a structure, the greater tendency for L2 learners to avoid that structure, and vice versa. Therefore, it is assumed that the lower frequency production of the RC structure among the subjects results from information overload caused by the necessity to make decisions about the three factors previously discussed. In contrast, the greater occurrence of the PRRC structure was possibly related to the fact that the structure requires the learners to consider only adding the present participle or the past participle suffix to the verb in the RCs.

The last factor which might account for why the L1 Thai learners did not avoid the PRRC structure is the nature of the tasks. The test types' influence might be involved in the subjects' use and nonuse of the PRRC. As indicated by several previous studies on L2 learners' avoidance behavior, different test instruments might lead to different degrees of avoidance (Liao & Fukuya, 2004; Teichroew, 1982). To illustrate, in their study on L1 Chinese learners' avoidance of English phrasal verbs, Liao and Fukuya (2004) found that the translation test which made neither the phrasal verbs nor their one-word equivalents available showed a greater avoidance of figurative phrasal verbs than the multiple-choice test and the recall test, where both the phrasal verbs and their one-word equivalents were available. The results revealed that there was an interaction between test types and degrees of avoidance behavior. Moreover, in order to examine the test effect, the findings of Thiamtawan (2012) should be taken into consideration. The experiment in the study was conducted in an English class where ten L1 Thai participants were administered a Thai-English translation test requiring them to translate Thai sentences to English without provided choices. The test seemed to show a stronger bias in favor of the RC than the PRRC. The results of the current study and those of previous studies indicate that, even though the subjects do not seem to avoid using PRRCs in the multiple-choice tasks, it cannot be assumed that they would use the structure in other types of tests.

As previously discussed, among the test types, natural production tasks are probably most likely to show L2 learners' avoidance. However, in the current study, a production task was not included in the research instruments because the aim was to investigate whether the participle types play a role in the subjects' avoidance behavior. Therefore, the participants were expected to produce either the RC or the PRRC under the participle types. Using a natural production task might lead to possibilities of L2 learners' producing other structures apart from the unreduced RC and the reduced one. Thus, to ensure the data from the study focused on a comparison of participle types used in PRRCs and RCs, the two structures had to be provided in the tasks.

The second hypothesis, stating that the research participants would show a higher level of avoidance of PRRCs with past participles, compared to those with present participles, was not confirmed by the findings of this study. It was revealed that, in both indirect preference assessment tasks, the frequency of the PRRC with past participles is close to that of the reduced adjectival clause with present participles. The similar rates of the PRRCs with present participles and those with past participles might be caused by the structure's high frequency of occurrence in English writing genres. Granger (1997) claims that the PRRCs with both present and past participles appear in English written texts so frequently that the clauses are

considered a main feature of English writing. The PRRCs with the two participle types can be found pervasively in a variety of writing genres. It is thus assumed that L2 English learners have been much exposed to the PRRC structure. Accordingly, it is possible that the frequent occurrence of the PRRC in English written texts made the subjects familiar with the structure, leading to the similar production rates of the PRRCs with present participles and those with past participles.

As seen from the results of the present study and those of Chotiros and Pongpairroj (2012), despite the more complicated process of producing the English passive construction, compared to that in Thai, the L1 Thai subjects in the study tended not to avoid producing the L2 structure. Chotiros and Pongpairroj stated that the non-avoidance found in their study was influenced by several factors, not just the similarity between Thai and English passive constructions. In addition, the results of the current study demonstrate that the L1 Thai participants' tendency of non-avoidance of the English PRRC possibly results from a number of factors. In order to account for factors leading to L2 learners' lack of avoidance, a proposal entitled Factors of L2 Non-Avoidance Hypothesis (FNAH) is formulated in this study.

The essence of the FNAH is that, when L2 learners' NL and TL forms or structures are different or when an L2 structure is non-existent in the learners' L1, avoidance behavior might not occur. It is assumed that there are relevant factors involved in the learners' L2 non-avoidance. The FNAH can be employed to account for the findings of this study. The results with respect to the first hypothesis where L1 Thai learners were expected to avoid PRRCs and use RCs instead showed that the L1 Thai subjects tended not to underuse the reduced adjectival clause probably because of their familiarity with the structure, the simplicity of the reduced RC over the unreduced one, and the nature of the tasks. The second hypothesis was that the L1 Thai participants were more likely to avoid PRRCs with past participles, compared to those with present participles. However, it was revealed that the frequency of the PRRC approximates that of the RC in both items with past participles and those with present participles, indicating the subjects' non-avoidance of the reduced RCs with both participle types. The participants' lack of avoidance was probably caused by the high frequency of the reduced RCs in English written texts.

Conclusion

This study presented the FNAH. The FNAH proposes that, despite differences in L1 and L2 or TL structures' being non-existent in L2 learners' NL, avoidance behavior does not always occur. It is assumed that other potential factors can lead to the learners' lack of L2 avoidance. As seen from the results, the L1 Thai subjects were unlikely to avoid producing the PRRC structure. The frequency of the PRRC structure was greater than that of the RC structure in both IPA tasks. The participants' tendency of non-avoidance was assumed to be caused by their familiarity with the PRRC, the simplicity of the reduced RC over the unreduced one, and the nature of the tasks.

The implication for teaching was related to the findings of the study. It was shown that a possible factor which led to the L1 Thai subjects' non-avoidance of the PRRC was their familiarity with the structure. That is, they have probably been highly exposed to the reduced adjectival clause in their secondary schools and tutorial

institutes. Therefore, EFL teachers can use the results to design the curriculum to teach how to use the structure. In particular, greater exposure to the PRRC should be given to students in order that they will get familiar with it.

A research design for a future study should implement a wider range of test types, including natural production tasks and memorization tests so that the results might show a clearer picture of L2 learners' avoidance behavior. Also, it is recommended that a study with a comparison between avoidance degrees caused by differences between L1-L2 structures and non-existence of an L2 structure in the learners' L1 be conducted. For example, they might compare and contrast L1 Thai EFL learners' avoidance of the PRRC structure, which exists in both English and Thai, but in different forms, and the subject-verb inversion structure, which does not exist in Thai. Finally, further studies can be conducted to investigate the avoidance of English PRRCs with research subjects from different L1 backgrounds to compare the results with the present study.

Acknowledgements

We would like to express our sincere appreciation to CU.GRADUATE SCHOOL THESIS GRANT and the Ratchadaphiseksomphot Endowment Fund of Chulalongkorn University (RES560530083-HS) for providing us with financial support. We also wish to sincerely thank Ajarn Jill Metcalfe for her help in editing this research paper. In addition, we would like to extend our gratitude to the participants in the 4th Malaysia International Conference on Foreign Languages (July 3-4, 2013) for their valuable comments and suggestions. Lastly, our thanks go to the subjects who participated in the study for providing us with valuable data.

References

- Allan, D. (2004). *Oxford placement test*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Aniya, S. (1989). Determiners and adjectives in English premodification. *Bulletin of the Faculty of Integrated Arts and Science, Hiroshima University*, V, *Studies in Language and Culture*, 16, 39-52.
- Azar, B. (1999). *Understanding and using English grammar*. (3rd edition). New York: Longman.
- Carroll, D. (2008). *Psychology of language*. (5th edition). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth-Thomson Learning.
- Chotiros, V., & Pongpairoj, N. (2011). Avoidance behavior among L1 Thai learners: The case of the English passive construction. *Proceedings of the International Conference Expanding Horizons in English Language and Literacy Studies (ELLS 2011)*, 114-124.
- Dagut, M., & Laufer, B. (1985). The avoidance of phrasal verbs: A case for contrastive analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 7, 73-79.
- Granger, S. (1997). On identifying the syntactic and discourse features of participle clauses in academic English: Native and nonnative writers compared. In F. Aarts, J. Aarts, I. de Mönnink, & H. Wekke (Eds.), *Studies in English language and teaching: In honor of FlorAarts* (pp. 185-98). Amsterdam & Atlanta: Rodopi.
- Hulstijn, J. H., & Marchena, E. (1989). Avoidance: Grammatical or semantic causes? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11, 241-255.

- Irujo, S. (1986). *Steering clear: Avoidance in the production of idioms*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (Anaheim, CA, March 3-6, 1986).
- Iwasaki, S., & Ingkaphirom, P. (2005). *A reference grammar of Thai*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Juffs, A. (1998). Main verb versus reduced relative clause ambiguity resolution in L2 sentence processing. *Language Learning*, 48(1), 107-147.
- Klienmann, H. H. (1978). The strategy of avoidance in adult second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie (Ed.), *Second language acquisition research: Issues and implications* (pp. 157-174). New York: Academic Press.
- Laufer, B., & Eliasson, S. (1993). What causes avoidance in L2 learning: L1-L2 difference, L1-L2 similarity, or L2 complexity? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 35-48.
- Lee, S. A. (2007). Ing forms and the progressive puzzle: A construction-based approach to English progressives. *Journal of Linguistics*, 43(1), 153-195. doi:10.1017/S0022226706004476.
- Lekawatana, P., Littell, J., Scovel, T., & Spenser, S. (1969). *A contrastive study of English and Thai*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan.
- Liao, Y. D., & Fukuya, Y. J. (2004). Avoidance of phrasal verbs: The case of Chinese learners of English. *Language Learning*, 54(2), 193-226.
- Loberger, G., & Shoup, K. (2009). *Webster's new world English grammar handbook* (2nd edition). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Publishing, Inc.
- Mattar, H. (1997). The effect of instruction on the acquisition of reduced relative clauses by Arab learners of EFL. *Abhath Al-Yarmouk, Literature & Linguistic Series*, 15(1), 97-117.
- Mattar, H. (2003). Is avoidance ruled out by similarity? The case of subordinating conjunctions/adverbs in English and Arabic. *Poznan Studies in Contemporary Linguistics*, 38, 103-115.
- Murphy, R. (2012). *English grammar in use: A self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English*. (4th edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Parrott, M. (2000). *Grammar for English language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Pazhakh, A. (2007). An investigation on Iranian EFL learners' application of avoidance strategies in their writings. *Iranian Journal of Language Studies*, 1(1), 1-14.
- Prapobratanakul, C., & Kangkun, P. (2011). Young ESL learner's strategic competence: What do Thai fourth graders do to enhance communication? *Proceedings of the International Conference Expanding Horizons in English Language and Literacy Studies (ELLS 2011)*, 402-412.
- Richards, J. C., Platt, J., & Platt, H. (2002). *Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. Longman: Pearson Education.
- Schachter, J. (1974). An error in error analysis. *Language Learning*, 24(2), 205-214.
- Sinclair, J. (1997). *Collins Cobuild English grammar*. London: HarpersCollins.
- Tarone, E. (1980). Communication strategies, foreigner talk and repair in interlanguage. *Language Learning*, 30, 417-431.
- Tarone, E., Cohen, D. C., & Dumas, G. (1983). A closer look at some interlanguage terminology: A framework for communication strategies. In C. Faerch, & G.

- Kasper (Eds.). *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 4-14). London: Longman.
- Teichroew, F. J. M. (1982). Receptive versus productive vocabulary: A survey. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 6, 5-33.
- Thiamtawan, S. (2012). *Avoidance behavior among L1 Thai learners: The case of the English adjectival phrase with present participle* (unpublished paper). Chulalongkorn University. Thailand.
- Trueswell, J. C., Tanenhaus, M. K., & Garnsey, S. M. (1994). Semantic influences on parsing: Use of thematic role information in syntactic ambiguity resolution. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 33, 285-318.
- Wipatayotin, A. (2011, January 18). Tutorial schools are on the cutting edge. *Bangkok Post*. Retrieved from www.bangkokpost.com/learning/learning-from-news/216946/tutorial-schools-are-thriving.
- Yaowapat, N., & Prasithratsint, A. (2006). Reduced relative clauses in Thai and Vietnamese. In P. Sidwell, & U. Tadmor (Eds.). *SEALS XVI: Papers from the Sixteenth Annual Meeting of the Southeast Asian Linguistics Society*. Canberra: Pacific Linguistics. (pp. 143-159).
- You, Y. S. (1999). Avoidance phenomena of phrasal verbs by Korean learners of English. *English Teaching*, 54(3), 135-155.
- Young, D. J. (1984). *Introducing English grammar*. London. United Kingdom: Hutchinson Publishing Group Pty Ltd.

Appendix A: Samples of Comprehension Test Items

Directions: In this part of the test, there are 20 sentences. After each sentence, there are five choices: A, B, C, D, and E. Circle the choice which you think best answers the question. After you circle one of the choices, indicate how sure you are of your answer by circling one of the numbers on the scale. For example, if you are completely sure that your answer is correct, circle number "4". If you are "Mostly Sure" that your answer is correct, circle number "3". If you are "Half Sure -Half Unsure" that your answer is correct, circle number "2". If you are "Mostly Unsure" of your answer, circle number "1". And if you are "Completely Unsure" of your answer, circle "0". You have 30 minutes to complete this task.

- 1) Any student wanting to go on the trip should inform the office.

What does the underlined part refer to?

- a. Any student who wants to go on the trip
- b. Any student who travels very frequently
- c. Any student who wants to inform the office
- d. A and B are correct.
- e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

- 2) If I had not talked to him about this matter, I would not have felt happy.

What can be inferred from the statement above?

- a. I talked to him about this matter, so I felt happy.
- b. I did not feel happy because he did not talk to me about this matter.
- c. I am happy because he will talk to me about this matter.
- d. A and C are correct.
- e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

- 3) My back hurts. I should not have carried that heavy box up the stairs.

What can be inferred from the statement above?

- a. I did not carry that heavy box.
- b. I have carried that heavy box.
- c. I carried that heavy box.
- d. B and C are correct.
- e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

4) My sister visited her friend who was injured by a thief.

What does the underlined part refer to?

- a. Her friend injured by a thief
- b. A thief injuring her friend
- c. Her friend who injured a thief
- d. A thief injured by her friend
- e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

5) Joe regretted giving some money to his friend.

*What can be inferred about **Joe** from the statement above?*

- a. Joe would not give money to his friend anymore.
- b. Joe did not give some money to his friend.
- c. Joe gave some money to his friend.
- d. All of the above are correct.
- e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

6) Indiana University has awarded Bob a scholarship.

What does the statement above mean?

- a. A scholarship has been awarded to Bob by Indiana University.
- b. Bob has been awarded a scholarship by Indiana University.
- c. Indiana University has awarded a scholarship to Bob.
- d. All of the above are correct.
- e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

7) My brother loves the dog that is biting the cat.

What does the underlined part refer to?

- a. The dog bitten by the cat
- b. The dog biting the cat
- c. The cat that is bitten by the dog
- d. A and C are correct.
- e. None of the above is correct.

0	1	2	3	4
Completely Unsure	Mostly Unsure	Half-sure/ half-unsure	Mostly Sure	Completely Sure

Appendix B: Samples of Cloze Test Items

Instruction: There are forty items below. One blank is given for each item. Two choices are provided for each blank. Please note that both choices are correct. Circle the choice you prefer. You have 30 minutes to complete this task.

1. "We asked our family about moving to Thailand. Five agreed, but one did not. The person _____ with us is our brother, Jim."
 - a) disagreeing
 - b) who disagreed

2. "I went to the apartment and found that it was not a good place to live. How long did it take you to _____ living there?"
 - a) get accustomed to
 - b) be used to

3. For centuries, people have searched for the meaning of the word 'love'. Yet despite their _____ definitions, they have not fully captured its true essence.
 - a) deep
 - b) profound

4. "The gas tank is almost empty. We _____ stop at the next service station."
 - a) should
 - b) had better

5. "I found the person _____ to be the criminal the policeman mentioned yesterday. He is tall and fierce-looking."
 - a) thought
 - b) that is thought

6. _____ that linguistic behavior is sensitive to contextual features.
 - a) Sociolinguistic studies have shown
 - b) It has been shown in sociolinguistic studies

7. "You agree with me that the play wasn't very good? To me, it was just ordinary. So, no surprise the audience started _____ before it was over."
 - a) to leave
 - b) leaving

8. In 1988, Australians commemorated the arrival of the first Europeans in 1788. The occasion was marked by an aboriginal march _____ against the Aborigines' poor living conditions.
- a) which was protesting
 - b) protesting
9. "Andrew is such an indecisive person. He has _____ making up his mind about anything."
- a) trouble
 - b) a difficult time
10. The Parthenon, a tourist attraction in Greece, was _____ in the 5th century BC to serve as a temple.
- a) built
 - b) constructed
11. The diamond _____ from the British Royal Family will be on display at London's Tate Gallery tomorrow.
- a) which was borrowed
 - b) borrowed
12. "What a mess! This room needs _____ up. We have to finish it before our friends arrive."
- a) to be cleaned
 - b) cleaning
13. The evidence from early development studies suggests that a child _____ English as his/her first language follows Leon's (1989) steps.
- a) acquiring
 - b) who is acquiring
14. The Olympic Games began more than 2,000 years ago in Olympia, a small town in Greece. At that time, _____ to compete.
- a) only Greek men were allowed by the Olympic committee
 - b) the Olympic committee allowed only Greek men

Appendix C: Samples of Thai-English Translation Test Items

Instruction: Please read the following Thai sentences and their English equivalents. Three blanks (a, b, and c) are given for each English item. Two choices are provided for each blank. Please note that both choices are correct. Circle the choice you prefer. You have 30 minutes to complete this task.

1. “หลังเลิกงาน คุณป้าของผมชอบเดินจากที่ทำงานกลับบ้าน วันนี้ผมเจอท่านที่ร้านกาแฟ ท่านบอกกับผมอย่างมีความสุขว่า การเดินกลับบ้านช่วยประหยัดเงินได้นิดหนึ่ง”

“After work, my aunt (a) _____ home from the office. Today, I met her at a coffee shop. She (b) _____ told me that (c) _____.”

- (a) loves to walk; loves walking
- (b) happily; gladly
- (c) walking home saved a bit of money; a bit of money was saved by walking home

2. ในเดือนสิงหาคม ปีค .ศ. 1945 สหรัฐอเมริกา ได้ทิ้งระเบิดปรมาณูที่เมืองฮิโรชิมา ซึ่งตั้งอยู่ที่เกาะฮอนชูตะวันตก ซึ่งเป็นเกาะที่ใหญ่ที่สุดในประเทศญี่ปุ่น ทำให้ชาวญี่ปุ่นเสียชีวิตเป็นจำนวนมาก นักประวัติศาสตร์ยุคใหม่ต่างพากันกล่าวว่า เหตุการณ์นี้ถือเป็นการเริ่มต้นของยุคระเบิดนิวเคลียร์

In August 1945, the United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima, a city (a) _____ in western Honshu, the largest island of Japan. The bomb killed (b) _____ Japanese people. Modern historians state that (c) _____.

- (a) which was located; located
- (b) a number of; many
- (c) this event marks the beginning of the nuclear age; the beginning of the nuclear age is marked by this event

3. “มีคนชื่นชมคุณนายจอห์นสันเยอะนะครับ เธอเคยบอกกับผมว่า เธอเป็นเพียงผู้หญิงคนหนึ่งที่ตั้งใจในคำกล่าวที่ว่า ความพยายามอยู่ที่ไหน ความสำเร็จอยู่ที่นั่น ตอนนี้ธุรกิจส่งออกของเธอประสบความสำเร็จมาก”

“(a) _____. She told me that she is just a woman (b) _____ in the statement “Where there’s a will, there’s a way”. Now, her export business is very (c) _____.”

- (a) Many people admire Mrs. Johnson; Mrs. Johnson is admired by many people
- (b) believing; who believes
- (c) successful; prosperous

4. ในปี ค.ศ. 2006 จิน ลูมิส เป็นที่รู้จักในระดับสากลจากอัลบั้มแรกของเขา “Boom” อัลบั้มนี้ได้
 รับคำวิจารณ์ในด้านบวก และคว้ารางวัลแผ่นทองคำขาวในงานประกาศรางวัลบริท อวอร์ด ทว่า
 นำเศร้าใจยิ่งนัก ในปีถัดมา เขาเสียชีวิตเนื่องจากการใช้ยาเสพติดและเครื่องดื่มแอลกอฮอล์
 In 2006, Sean Lumis (a) _____ international recognition for his first album, “Boom”.
 The album (b) _____ a positive review from the critics and won him a platinum sales
 award at the Brit Awards Festival. Unfortunately, in the following year, he (c) _____ as
 a result of drug and alcohol abuse.

- (a) gained; got
- (b) received; was given
- (c) passed away; died

5. มาริลีน มอนโร ถูกจัดให้เป็นคาราฮอลดีวูดที่สวยงามที่สุดคนหนึ่ง ทว่าน่าเศร้า นักแสดงสาวผู้ขึ้น
 ชื่อเรื่องการแสดงที่ผสมผสานความขี้เล่น และความเปราะบาง เสียชีวิตในปีค.ศ. 1962 จนถึงทุก
 วันนี้ การตายของเธอยังคงเป็นปริศนา
 Marilyn Monroe is (a) _____ as one of the most beautiful Hollywood stars.
 Unfortunately, the actress, (b) _____ for combining playfulness and vulnerability
 in her performance, died in 1962. Until now, (c) _____.

- (a) considered; regarded
- (b) who was known; known
- (c) her death is still surrounded by mystery; mystery still surrounds her death

6. “ผู้ชายที่ยืนอยู่ตรงหน้าโรงเรียน เป็นพี่ชายของฉัน เขาตื่นเช้าทุกวัน เพราะที่ทำงานของเขาอยู่
 ไกลจากบ้านมาก ๆ”
 “The man (a) _____ in front of the school is my brother. He (b) _____ early every day
 (c) _____ his workplace is very far from our home.”

- (a) standing; who is standing
- (b) gets up; awakes
- (c) since; because