

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the error analysis, vocabulary test and questionnaire administered to the subjects. The results of the error analysis found from the written work were discussed according to types and sources of errors. The vocabulary test was discussed follows the marking scheme set by the committees and the questionnaire was discussed due to the responses given by the subjects.

4.1 Results of the Error Analysis

In this section, answers are given and discussed based on the research questions of this study. The results of the error analysis are provided. This is followed by an explanation and identification of the types of lexical errors produced by Thai EFL students. Examples of the errors are also provided, together with the frequencies of errors for each error type. Explanations of the causes of lexical errors are provided, and finally, the conclusion is given.

In the 50 English compositions, a total of 17,438 words are produced by the subjects. The average length of an essay is approximately 349 words. There are all together 847 lexical errors found in the written work. Out of the total number of lexical errors discovered in the data, as many as 657 lexical errors are identified as intralingual errors, while 190 are interlingual errors. In other words, intralingual errors make up 77.6% of the total number of errors identified and interlingual errors constitute the remaining 22.4%. They are illustrated in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1
Distribution and Sources of Lexical Errors

Sources of Lexical Errors	No.	%
Interlingual Errors	190	22.4
Intralingual Errors	657	77.6
Total	847	100

Interlingual and intralingual errors are categorized into 13 subcategories. There are 3 subcategories for interlingual errors: (1) direct translations, (2) misordering, and (3) use of native words. Intralingual errors consist of 10 subcategories: (1) confusion of sense relations, (2) collocational errors, (3) distortions, (4) omissions, (5) additions, (6) confusion of derivatives, (7) redundancy, (8) paraphrasing, (9) confusibles, and (10) confusion of binary terms. They are presented in Table 4.2:

Table 4.2
Distribution of Lexical Errors According to Types

Types of Lexical Errors	Number of Errors	%
I) Interlingual Errors		
1. Direct translations	173	20.4
2. Misordering	17	2.0
3. Use of native words	0	0
Subtotal:	190	22.4

Types of Lexical Errors	Number of Errors	%
II) Intralingual Errors		
1. Confusion of sense relations	93	11.0
2. Collocational errors	42	5.0
3. Distortions	42	5.0
4. Omissions	165	19.5
5. Additions	117	13.8
6. Confusion of derivatives	56	6.6
7. Redundancy	42	5.0
8. Paraphrasing	63	7.4
9. Confusibles	29	3.4
10. Confusion of binary terms	8	0.9
Subtotal:	657	77.6
TOTAL:	847	100

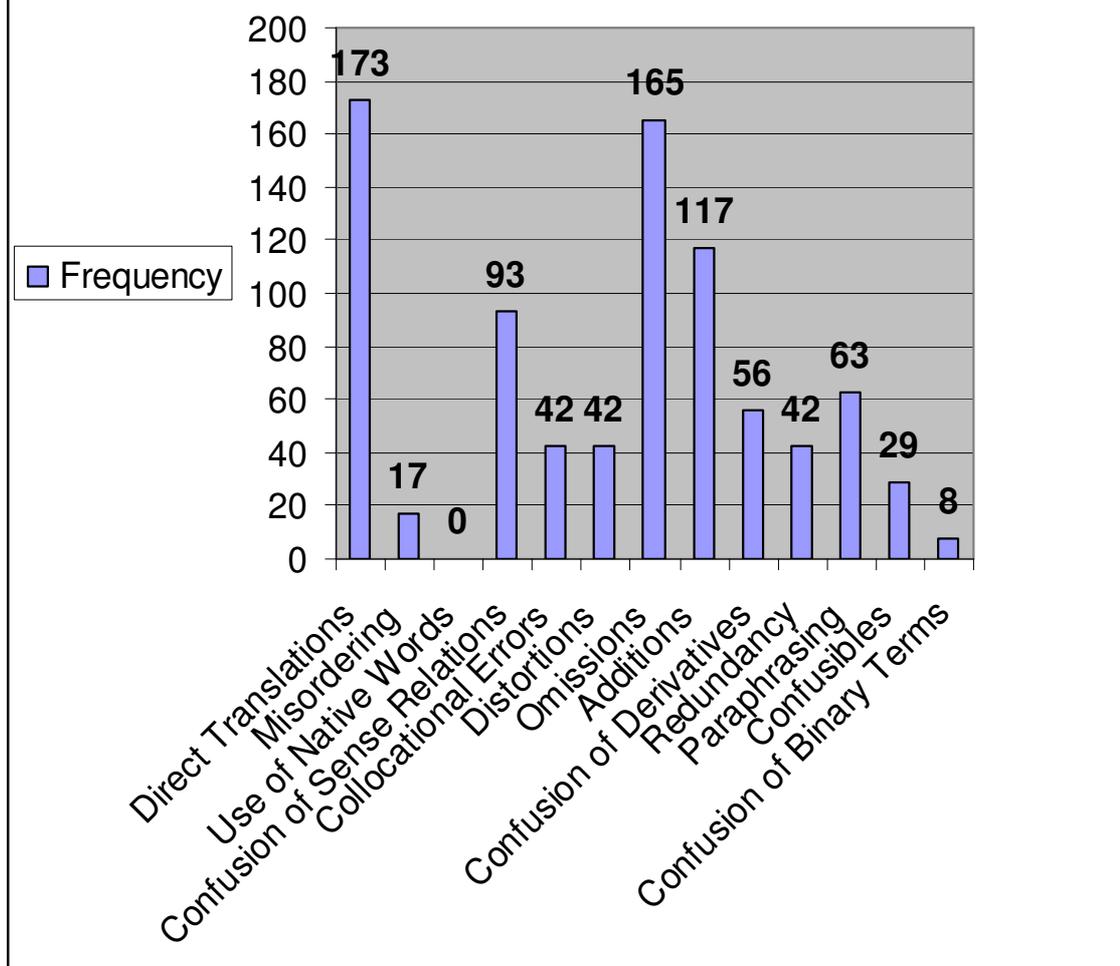
Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show that, on the whole, intralingual errors outnumber interlingual errors. But the highest frequency of lexical errors falls into the error type known as direct translations, subtype of interlingual errors. It accounts for 20.4% of the total number of errors. In other words, even though there are more intralingual errors than interlingual errors, the errors most frequently committed in this study fall into the class of interlingual errors, that is, direct translations. This is due to the fact that intralingual errors have more subcategories and, as a result, there are a greater number of errors. This means that intralingual interference or the difficulty of the TL is not the major cause of errors. On the other hand, mother tongue (MT) interference is the main cause of errors. Another two

subtypes of interlingual errors are misordering and use of native words. The former is accounted 17 (2.0%) errors whilst no record is found for the latter. Although some native words were used in the students' compositions, they could not be considered as lexical errors because these are names of places, provinces and games in Thai. Moreover, the subjects did not use words from the Thai language, Thai loan words in English, probably because the need did not arise.

Of the 10 subtypes of intralingual errors, omissions occupy second place after direct translations. Out of the 874 errors, 165 (19.5%) account for this error type. Additions come in third place, 13.8% or 117 occurrences are identified. Collocational errors, distortions and redundancy have the same number of occurrences, that is, 42 occurrences (5.0%) are accounted for. The lowest frequency of errors found in the data is confusion of binary terms. A very small percentage (0.9%) of the lexical errors identified in the data belongs to this error type. Figure 4.1 below illustrates the frequency of error types made by Thai EFL students.

Figure 4.1

Frequency of Error Types Made by Thai EFL Students



4.1.1 Interlingual Errors

Mother tongue interference is the cause of interlingual errors. Most of the interlingual errors occur as a result of the negative transfer of the L1 to the L2. Of the total 847 errors identified in the data, 190 (22.4%) errors were interlingual errors.

4.1.1.1 Direct Translations

This error type presents errors due to the literal translation of Thai words when their meanings are assumed to be equivalent to English words or phrases. In other words, when the learners are unsure of the precise word in the target language, they try to translate or express the intended lexical item with a word or words similar to that in their first language. Out of 847 lexical errors, it is found that 20.4% or 173 are direct translations. The following are examples of such errors. The erroneous items are underlined. In the explanation, L1 translations are provided in Thai characters followed by the romanised version. In the list of examples, possible interpretations in the TL are given in parenthesis:

1. *At the in front of Big C while I was driving, I tried to drive carefully.
(In front of)
2. *But each activity has difference. (is different)
3. *I think education is important thing for everybody. (important)
4. *We always go to Big C super center or go to fresh market for buy vegetables.
(to buy)
5. *In each a day everybody have 24 hours...
(Everybody has 24 hours a day...)
6. *One of his friends was killed between the severe fighting. (during)
7. *There are the purposes that make learning English as a foreign language.
(These are the reasons why I learn English as a foreign language.)
8. *I usually study in the 19 building of PSU which this building is important for all students.

(I usually study in the 19 building of PSU. This building is important for all students.)

9. *... I speak not well. (I cannot speak well)

From sentence 1, the phrase ‘*at the in front of Big C*’ is not accepted in Standard English. It is the students’ literal translation from the Thai *ที่หน้า บิ๊กซี* /*te na Big C*/ into English. The student used this kind of phrase to indicate the front of the place, *Big C*, because the Thai word *ที่/tee/* is the equivalent of the English preposition ‘*at*’. He did not realize that the phrase ‘*in front of*’ is enough.

Sentences 2 and 3 are interesting exemplifications of word-for-word translation from Thai to English. In sentence 2, ‘*has difference*’ is the word-for-word translation of the Thai expression *มีความแตกต่าง* /*mee khwam taek tang*/. There are two reasons to explain why such an error occurred. Firstly, it probably comes from the confusion of verb ‘*to have*’ (which is equivalent to ‘*mee*’) in Thai with the verb ‘*to be*’ in the TL (English). To express ‘*something is different*’ in Thai, ‘*mee*’ is usually used. Secondly, ‘*kham taek tang*’ is equivalent to ‘*difference*’ which as a noun in English. Literally, the subject used the word ‘*difference*’ with the verb ‘*to have*’ to mean ‘*each activity has a difference*’. They are used to the Thai structure and were not aware that to convey such an expression in English, the copula followed by ‘*different*’ is the right choice for the intended meaning. In sentence 3, the Thai expression *สิ่งสำคัญ* /*sing sam khan*/ literally means ‘*important thing*’. The subject has translated the word *สิ่ง* /*sing*/ as ‘*thing*’ and *สำคัญ* /*sam khan*/ as ‘*important*’, thus producing a word-for-word translation. In the correct English structure ‘*I think education is important for everybody*’ is more appropriate.

Sentence 4 shows an error resulting from the literal translation of the preposition 'for'. Instead of 'to', the subject used 'for' to show purpose or intention in the sentence: '*We always go to Big C super center or go to fresh market for buy vegetables.' This error is probably due to mother tongue interference. Generally, in the Thai-English dictionary, the meaning given for 'for' is *เพื่อ* /*peua*/. In Thai, this word is used to show the purpose and intention of an action. Errors like this are always found in the written work of Thai students. They understand that the word *เพื่อ* /*peua* is equivalent to the preposition 'for' in English. The preposition 'to' is used by Thai students to indicate direction, rather than purpose or intention, for example, 'I go to school'.

In sentence 5, the error 'In each a day' is due to a word-for-word translation of the Thai expression *ในแต่ละวัน* /*nai tae la wan*/. This expression is understood for those who are familiar with the Thai language or use Thai as a mother tongue, but unacceptable to Standard English. The intended meaning of this erroneous sentence is 'Everybody has 24 hours a day...'. According to the Thai-English dictionary, the Thai word for 'during' and 'between' is the same, that is *ระหว่าง* /*rawang*/ or *ในระหว่าง* /*nai rawang*/. As a result, students could not differentiate between these words and make mistakes when they use English. Due to their preference for the Thai-English dictionary, they are not aware that the contexts for the use of 'during' and 'between' in English are different. Consequently, the error as in sentence 6 is often made by Thai students. So, 'during' needs to be substituted for 'between' in this sentence.

Another error which results from interference of the MT is the use of the relative pronoun *that* with the verb *make* to form English sentences. When the phrase *that + make* is used in English sentences, students tend to translate word-for-word the Thai phrase *ซึ่งทำให้* /*seung tam hai*/ which is commonly used in Thai to explain or add something to what has been mentioned before. This kind of error is always produced by the Thai students. The phrase **that make learning English as a foreign language* in sentence 7 is a common error found among Thai students. The appropriate sentence should be *These are the reasons why I learn English as a foreign language*. The same applies to sentence 8. The subject used the phrase **which this building* because it is the word-for-word translation of the Thai expression *ซึ่งตึกนี้* /*seung teuk nee*/. In Thai, the word *ซึ่ง* /*seung*/ is equivalent to *which* in English. In addition, the use of the full stop at the end of the sentence does not exist in Thai sentence structures. As a result, when producing the English sentence, the subject did not know where the sentence ends and where the new one starts. Thus, the students used the word *which* in order to join the two sentences. Sentence 8 is an example of this type of error. The sentence can actually be separated into two sentences, that is, *I usually study building 19 of PSU.* and *This building is important for all students.*. The use of the word *which* to combine these two sentences is unnecessary. Sentence 9 is another interesting example. The sentence *I speak not well* is the word-for-word translation of the Thai expression *ฉันพูดไม่เก่ง* /*chan pud mai keng*/. To construct a negative sentence in Thai, *not* can be used directly after the verb. Unlike English, *not* have to be used after the auxiliary verb, followed by the main verb, for example, *does not work* or *cannot go*. Thus the correct sentence should be *I cannot speak well*.

From sentences 1 to 9, it can be noticed that all the errors were produced because the students structured the sentences in their MT (Thai) before translating them into the TL (English). They chose a lexical item which they are familiar with. The students produced erroneous items in the L2 compositions because of the L1 structure interference. This process is what Richards (1971) calls negative transfer.

4.1.1.2 Misordering

Altogether 17 occurrences of misordering are found in the data. This represents about 2.0% of the total number of errors identified. When the learners express their intended meaning in the TL by using word-for-word translation of the native language, misordering or incorrect placement of a word or groups of words is usually generated. The following are examples of this error type:

10. *I and my old friend strolled down to the sea. (My old friend and I.)
11. *I know that today I have knowledge not enough. (not enough knowledge)
12. *This is because it uses many program software of three – D animation.
13. *Translators should be good at structure language that they want to translate.
14. *Because we can link or share our knowledge with other person and know about situation world by searching internet. (world situation)

Sentences 10 - 14 illustrate inappropriate word order resulting from mother tongue interference. In sentence 10, the word order is influenced by Thai. The pronoun 'I' is usually put before other pronouns in Thai sentences. On the other hand, in English, the pronoun 'I' is usually put after pronouns. Consequently, most Thai students still put the pronoun 'I' before other pronouns in English sentences because they are used to

the Thai structure. From example 11, it can be seen that the subject has inverted the order of the words *'knowledge'* and *'not enough'*. In English, *'enough'* usually comes before the noun, whereas in Thai, it is put after the noun. Due to the differences of the structures in Thai and English, the subject is still confronting the problem of word order.

The position of the compound nouns in Thai and English is also different. Sentences 12 to 14 show the misplacement of compound nouns. The errors demonstrate how two words are put together to form compound nouns in Thai. Thai people say โปรแกรม ซอฟต์แวร์ *'program software'*, โครงสร้างภาษา *'structure language'*, and สถานการณ์โลก *'situation world'* in their language. In English, on the other hand, the adjectives is placed before the noun: *'software program'*, *'language structure'*, and *'world situation'*. It appears that the subjects are influenced by the Thai sentence structure. In other words, there is negative transfer from the L1 to the L2. The research results have revealed that mother tongue interference played an important role in the students' writing when the learners used word-for-word translation of Thai language surface structures. Therefore, the teachers should pay attention to this kind of errors by giving their students exercises on the position of parts of speech in English sentences.

4.1.1.3 Use of Native Words

From the data collected, the researcher discovered that none of the lexical errors found was due to the use of native words. There are several factors why this type of error could not be found in the data. Due to the differences in language structures and the writing systems, there is a great distance between the MT (Thai) and the TL (English). Thai is perceived as very distant from English in terms of graphology and

phonology. In addition, the role of English in Thailand is that of a foreign language. As a result, code switching or code mixing is very rare compared to countries where English is used as a second language.

According to the data, only two types of Thai words were found. The first was the name of a game and the second was the name of places and provinces. However, they are acceptable in an English sentence and not considered erroneous lexical items. The following are examples of the use of native words:

15. *My sister and I played our favorite beach game. It is castle Kai Tao.
16. *So, we chose Satul to be a place for our honeymoon day.
17. *My favorite beach is Pranag beach in Krabi, South of Thailand.
18. *In the last summer, my friends and I went to Samila beach in Songkla.

In sentence 15, the learner used the native word '*Kai Tao*' in order to state the name of the game. This Thai word means '*turtle's eggs*' in English. While the words '*Krabi*', '*Satul*' and '*Songkla*' in sentences 16 to 18 are the names of provinces, the word '*Pranang*' and '*Samila*' are the names of beaches.

4.1.2 Intralingual Errors

Intralingual errors come from the second language itself when the learners face difficulties in expressing the ideas or intended meaning correctly because of their partial exposure to the TL. Intralingual errors in this study were explained and discussed, mainly based on Richards' (1971) four systematic sources of errors, namely overgeneralization, ignorance of rules restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false

concepts hypothesis. The results revealed that from the total 847 errors found in this study, 674 errors were intralingual errors. In other words, 79.57 % were identified as belonging to this category of errors.

4.1.2.1 Confusion of Sense Relations

This error type contributed 11.0% to the total number of lexical errors. 93 occurrences of this error type were identified in the data. The results showed that the students used or selected words that are inappropriate for the context. The following are examples of confusion of sense relations found in the data:

19. *Uncle and aunt talked together. (to each other)
20. *It is useful for us to think about this question (Why do we learn English?).
(necessary)
21. *The weather is also causes of an accident if the weather is bad or not suitable such as raining or smokescreen, drivers can't see well. (cloudy skies)
22. *...airhostess whose has to service their customers satisfied. (passengers)
23. *It's good more than using pastimes for drug. (better)
24. *I will try to control oneself to play Internet for a short time. (myself)
25. *In every countries, the government knows about the importance of education.
(many)

In sentences 19 and 20, the errors of lexical choice occurred due to semantic confusion between pairs of words which are near-synonyms. Because of meanings which are quite similar, the subjects used inappropriate lexical items in the given context. In sentence 19, the word '*together*' and '*to each other*' are almost similar because both

relate to something done by two or more people. While the former gives the meaning “*with each other if two or more people do something together*”, the latter used to show that “*each of two or more people does something to the other or others*”. Thus, in the context the subject wanted to convey the meaning that each of the two people; uncle and aunt talked to one another. Therefore, ‘*to each other*’ is more appropriate. In sentence 20, the subject used the word ‘*useful*’ instead of ‘*necessary*’. Although the meanings of these words are not the same, the subject cannot differentiate their meaning when using them in the context. Thai students always confuse the use of these words, thus, producing this error.

Sentence 21 is an error due to the use of a specific term where a more general term is needed. ‘*smokescreen*’ is inappropriate because it can’t be used to explain the weather in this context. To give the intended meaning, ‘*cloudy skies*’ is more appropriate for this sentence. Sentence 22, on the other hand, is an error caused by the use of a more general term where a more specific one needs to be used. ‘*Customer*’ is the word that can be used with ‘*someone who buys goods or services from a shop*’. Another word choice, ‘*people who pay to use something such as a transport service*’ can also be called ‘*customers*’. However, the word ‘*passenger*’ is more appropriate for this context. Its meaning is specifically for ‘*someone who is traveling in a vehicle, plane, boat, and etc*’. Thus, ‘*passenger*’ is the right choice. Sentence 23 is another example of this kind of error. The word ‘*better*’ should have been used instead of ‘*good more*’ as it is a comparative form of ‘*good*’.

Sentence 24 presents an error which occurred due to the confusion in the use of reflexive pronouns ‘*oneself*’ and ‘*myself*’. Although both are used to show that the person who does an action is also affected by it, they cannot be used interchangeably.

The former is the reflexive form of 'one', it cannot be used with pronoun 'I'. The latter, in contrast, is the reflexive form of 'I' and it cannot be used with pronoun 'one'. In this example, 'myself' is more appropriate because it is the reflexive form of pronoun 'I' which is used in the sentence. In sentence 25, the subject confused the use of the words 'every' and 'many'. These words are not true synonyms. Their uses and meanings are distinguishable. The former is used to refer to 'all the people or things in a particular group' and is always followed by a singular countable noun, but the latter refers to 'a large number of people or things' and is always followed by a plural noun. In this sentence, the subject wants to convey the meaning of 'a large number of countries', thus, 'many' is the right choice for this context. In addition, the subject cannot use 'every' in this sentence because the word 'countries' is a plural noun.

It has been found that confusion of sense relations is one major error type that Thai EFL students often produce. One possible factor for this error is dictionary-using behavior. As stated earlier, the results of the questionnaire showed that Thai EFL students feel more comfortable using the bilingual Thai-English dictionary rather than the monolingual English-English dictionary even though they are majoring in English. As a result, they cannot use English words with their appropriate meaning in context.

4.1.2.2 Collocational Errors

Collocational errors are often produced when the learners do not have enough knowledge on word association. In English, the learners need to know the word(s) that a particular word keeps company with. A total of 5.0% of the lexical errors or 42 occurrences belong to this category. The following are examples of collocational errors:

26. *If we talk about “The beach”, I think every people know and loves it. (everyone)
27. *This sweeping beach offers fine-grained white sand and crystalline water.
(crystal-clear water)
28. *I would come back here again to see nightlife and click photos to show you.
(take)
29. *Saifudin, my partner, called me when 11.20 P.M. (at 11.20 P.M.)
30. *Therefore, teacher must pay attention about it. (pay attention to)
31. *They are fighting again and again to go to the aim. (achieve their aim)

In sentence 26, ‘*every people’ is a collocational error because the word ‘every’ does not collocate with the word ‘people’. The student should use ‘everyone’ to convey the meaning in the context. This error could also be due to a word-for-word translation from Thai to English. ‘every people’ is equivalent to ทูค ทูค คน /tuk tuk khon/ in Thai. In sentence 27, the word ‘crystalline’ gives the meaning of ‘something made of crystals’ or ‘very clear and transparent, like crystal’. Although the learner used this word together with the word ‘water’, the word ‘crystal clear’ is more appropriate to mean ‘water that is completely clear and also clean’. The word ‘click’ in sentence 28 is usually used to show ‘how quickly something can be done on a computer’ such as the click of a mouse, whereas ‘take’ is used to describe an action and is used with a noun such as ‘take a walk’ and ‘take a seat’. One usually says ‘take a picture’ or ‘take a photograph’ but not ‘*click photos’. Thus, the right phrase for this context is ‘take photos’.

Sentences 29 and 30 are collocational errors which occurred due to the wrong use of prepositions. Many words in English need a particular preposition and cannot be used with the others. These two sentences are interesting examples of such errors. In sentence 29, the subject used the preposition 'when' to indicate that something happened (*Saifudin called me*) at a particular time (*11.20 p.m.*). This can be considered as an error because unlike Thai, 'when' cannot be used to indicate the time in English. It is used to mention the time or event that something happens in the form of phrases such as 'when the family came here', 'when the meal was finished' or 'I don't know when I'll see her again'. Thus, the preposition 'at' is the right choice. The same applies to sentence 30. The word 'attention' can be used with many possible prepositions. For examples, the preposition 'on' in the sentence 'My attention wasn't really on the game.' or the preposition 'of' in the sentences: 'This game is sure to keep the attention of any young student' and 'a letter for the attention of your doctor'. But when it is used with the word 'pay' in the phrase 'pay attention', it is normally followed by the preposition 'to'. Semantically, although it makes sense and is understood by the native speaker, it is not normally used with the preposition 'about'. It should be noted that Thai students often use the preposition 'about' when they cannot remember the appropriate preposition. In sentence 31, the subject transfers the phrase directly from the Thai ไปให้ถึงจุดหมาย /pai hai teug jud mai/, which gave rise to a collocational error. The subject apparently assumed that this collocation in Thai can also be applied to English. Although it is acceptable and frequently used in Thai expressions, it sounds odd in English because 'go' does not collocate with 'aim'. So, 'achieve their aim' is more acceptable for this sentence.

The learners provide the wrong collocations because of ignorance of collocational possibilities. The problem our students face is the lack of exposure to English. Thai students rarely read contemporary English materials such as, novels, short stories, essays, or even news written by native speakers. Moreover, collocation is a language-specific phenomenon. Each language has its own pattern of collocations. As a result, due to lack of exposure, it is possible that Thai learners are influenced by their mother tongue (Thai) when they communicate in English.

4.1.2.3 Distortions

Similar to collocational errors, 5.0% of the lexical errors are distortions. There were 42 occurrences of distortions in the data. The misapplication of processes as given by James (1998), namely omission, overinclusion, misselection and misordering can be found in this error type. Only blending cannot be found from the data. The following are examples of distortions:

32. *Another occupation in which we have to use English is an ambassdor.
(ambassador)
33. *When we arrived there at noon, we checked in the hotel and walked to the beach imediately. (immediately)
34. *Bussiness men exploit English for negotiating their agreements to continueing their projects. (business, continuing)
35. *We all dived to see some coral reafs and fishes. (reefs)
36. *Of cause, some people were friendly. (of course)
37. *When I wacthed ghost 1990 I always happy and active. (watched)

38. *He persuaded me to go drinking tea in front of Tetsaban 5 school on the Sai Mor street gotether with my major friend. (together)

Sentences 32 and 33 illustrate the error of omission. In sentence 32, the letter 'a' is missing which results in the deviant form 'ambassdor'. In sentence 33, the second 'm' is omitted in the word 'imediately' resulting in an erroneous lexical item. From the two examples, it can be assumed that the subjects committed the errors because they have spelt the words according to the way they pronounce them. However, these deviant forms can also be the result of ignorance of the spelling of the words in question.

Sentence 34 shows distortions resulting from overinclusion. The subject produced additional letters in the words. In the word 'business', the subject assumed that additional 's' is needed for the first syllable as in the third syllable. As a result, the deviant form '*bussiness' is produced. In the word '*continueing', the subject has generalized the form by adding '-ing' to the 'continue' like other verbs in the gerund form such as 'working', 'seeing', and 'playing'. He does not realize that the letter 'e' needs to be dropped like 'bike → biking', or 'drive → driving'. Sentence 35 and 36 are examples of misselection. In sentence 35, the subject would probably did not know how to spell 'coral reef'. The spelling of '*coral reafs' could be due to overgeneralization, for example, 'ea' as in 'flea' or 'gleam' which have the same pronunciation as 'ee' in the word 'coral reefs'. The same applies to sentence 36. The way that Thai students pronounce the words 'course' and 'cause' are the same, that is, /kɔ:s/. However, for native speakers, the pronunciation is different. The final sound of the 'course' is /s/, while the final sound in 'cause' is /z/. Due

to the similarity in the way Thai students pronounce these words, the subject has chosen the incorrect form for the expression *'of course'*.

The distortion resulting from misordering is exemplified in sentences 37 and 38. It can be noticed that all the letters of the words are present but they are not in the appropriate place, for example the word *'watched'* in sentence 37 is spelt as *'*wacthed'*. The order of letter *'t'* and *'c'* are confused. Similarly in sentence 38, the subject has misplaced the letters *'t'* and *'g'*, creating a deviant form. The subject has spelt *'*gotether'* instead of *'together'*.

4.1.2.4 Omissions

Of the 10 intraligual error types identified in this study, a large number of occurrences belong to this error type. A total of 165 occurrences or 19.5% were identified. The omissions found in the data are varied. The verb *'to be'* is a frequent error among the students. The omission of articles is generally found. In addition, the tense markers *'-ed'* and *'-s'* at the end of verbs can also be seen. The omission of the subject, prepositions, and the copula are also found. The following are examples of omissions:

39. *The beach is ___ place that everyone wants to go. (a)
40. *...but when I heard at ___ second time ... (the)
41. *The sky _____ so clear. (is)
42. *I _____ very relaxed when I stayed at the beach. (was)
43. *We invite tourists ___ play volleyball with us. (to)
44. *They laugh ___ me when I speak... (at)
45. *In the evening, after ___ took a bath and prayed.... (we)

46. *At night, ____ hang our socks in the bathroom. (we)
47. *We parked our car at the parking ____ of Samila beach. (lot)
48. *I can cook many _____ of food. (kinds)
49. *When I finish__ my study in the evening,... (-ed)
50. *Everyone accept__ that English is an international language. (-s)

In sentences 39 and 40, the subjects omitted the articles 'a' and 'the'. These are the common errors that can be found among Thai students. The use of articles does not exist in the Thai structure. Nouns can be used in the sentence without the article. Due to the influence of the Thai structure, many Thai students frequently omit the article when producing the English sentence. In addition, if they are given times to check their errors produced in the sentence, sometimes, they cannot see the omission of articles as the error. At the same time, many Thai students often add the article in the sentence although it is unnecessary, for example, '**My happiness is the living with nature.*' and '**what I did in the yesterday...*'. This is probably due to the difficulty of the TL. They know that to make the English sentence, the article is compulsory before a noun. However, they don't know when the article has to or does not have to be placed. Similarly, the omission of the verb 'to be' in sentences 41 and 42 are interesting examples of the errors produced by Thai students. The subjects have produced this kind of error because of the differences between Thai and English sentence structures. In Thai, a subject can be immediately be followed by an adjective, and it is unnecessary to use the copula as in the English structure. In addition, Thai verbs can function as adjectives and verbs in the sentence. The researcher has found that most subjects frequently omitted the copula.

Sentences 43 and 44 are other examples of the difference between Thai and English sentence structures. In Thai, verbs are not followed by prepositions as is the case in English sentence structures. Moreover, a verb can be immediately followed by another without any prepositions. This, however, is considered as ungrammatical in English. The omission of prepositions is usually found in the subjects' written work. In sentence 45, the pronoun 'we' is omitted. This may be due to mother tongue interference. In Thai, the subject can be omitted. These are called 'nol subject' structures, therefore, Thai sentences can be generated without a subject. On the other hand, the subject is obligatory in English. The omission of the subject in the sentence can occur when Thai students write in English using the Thai structure. However, not all Thai sentences can omit the subject of the sentence. In sentence 46, the subject 'we' is compulsory even in Thai. Both Thai and English have the same basic sentence structures: *subject + verb + object / complement*. This error is probably due to the subject's carelessness.

Sentences 47 and 48 demonstrate omissions caused by ignorance of the right choice of words. Because of the lack of vocabulary in the TL, the subjects could not perform the correct word choice with its intended meaning, thus, leaving blanks in the sentences. As illustrated in the above examples, sentence 47 needs the word 'lot' to produce the meaning of a parking space, whilst, the word 'kinds' is required for sentence 48 to provide the complete meaning of food variation. The omission of the past tense marker '-ed' and the '-s' at the end of the verb in the present tense for the third person singular subject in sentences 49 and 50 are the errors probably caused by incomplete application of rules in the TL.

It should note that although the researcher has placed omissions under intralingual errors, some of the errors mentioned are due to interference of the mother tongue.

4.1.2.5 Additions

117 (13.8%) of the total number of errors identified in this study are due to additions. As stated previously, the researcher has analyzed this error type based on Dulay, Burt and Krashen's (1982) subtypes, which are double marking, regularization, and simple addition. The following are examples of additions:

51. *We can see that the governments are pay attention in education.
52. *We went to visited my friend's houses.
53. *I can contain the photos, musics, or videos in the diary.
54. *I can search a lot of informations if I want to know...
55. *What I did in the yesterday,....
56. *In our daily life, we always to do everything.
57. *My happiness is the living with nature.
58. *You can go to the Samila beach by bus.
59. *I always sit in front of a computer more than 2 hours for a day.

Sentences 51 and 52 are additions resulting from double marking. As stated by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 156), "many addition errors are more accurately described as the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic constructions, but not in others...in most English sentences some semantic features such as tense may be marked syntactically only once". According to sentence 51, it can be seen that

the present tense is produced twice. This may come from overgeneralization and ignorance of rule restrictions. The subject may have acquired the general basic sentence structure in English, that is, *subject + copula* as in '*he is a man*' or '*they are beautiful*' and assumed that the verb '*to be*' can be used with all kinds of sentences. At the same time, the subject may not realize that '*pay*' functions as a verb in the sentence, when, '*are*' was added, it has resulted in double marking. The error in sentence 52 occurred due to the past tense marker being added to a verb in the infinitive. This may be the result of incomplete learning and ignorance of rule restrictions. The subject was not aware that for the past tense formation in English the infinitive form '*to visit*' need not be marked.

Sentences 53 and 54 are regularization errors. This falls under the category of addition because "a marker that is typically added to a linguistic item is erroneously added to exceptional items of the given class that do not take a marker" (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 157). In these sentences, '**musics*' and '**informations*' are both regularizations in which the plural marker '-s' is added to uncountable nouns which do not take a marker. This may come from the incomplete learning and ignorance of the rules in the TL. The subject knows that nouns can be both singular and plural. However, he doesn't know that '-s' is not used for uncountable nouns. The rest of the examples given are simple addition errors. Interestingly, the study has revealed that simple addition errors found in the subjects' written work are mostly due to the additional use of prepositions and articles.

According to the three subtypes of addition; double markings, regularizations, and simple additions, it can be assumed that the subjects produced these kinds of errors because of the difficulty in the TL. These errors can be used as a measure of the learners' acquisition of the TL. The learners have learned but have yet to master all the

rules. Incomplete learning has resulted in “the all-too-faithful use of certain rules” (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 156).

4.1.2.6 Confusion of Derivatives

This category which accounts for 6.6 % of the total number of errors identified involves the students’ inability to differentiate between the word classes, for example, verbs and nouns, nouns and adjectives, verbs and adverbs, verbs and adjectives, and adjectives and adverbs. The following are examples of this error type:

60. *I was very amused with Allah’s created. (creation)
61. *Every language is importance and English is importance like other languages.
(important)
62. *Has more skillful in English will get more opportunities than others. (having, skills)
63. *When I go to the beach, I feel relax and relieve. (relaxed, relieved)
64. *I laugh happy at cleverness of the seal. (happily)
65. *English is used in large hotels and tourist attractions, at airport, and in shops that tourists frequent go. (frequently)

In sentence 60, the subject cannot differentiate between the noun and the verb, producing an error of derivatives. The correct word should be a noun ‘*creation*’. Sentence 61 is a derivational error caused by the inability to differentiate between the noun and the adjective. In an English sentence, an adjective is required to describe a noun. Thus, the right choice of word for this sentence is ‘*important*’ not ‘*importance*’. In sentence 62, there are two derivational errors. Firstly, the subject used a verb instead of a noun. In an

English sentence, a verb cannot be put at the beginning of the sentence. It requires a noun, so *'having'* is used. Secondly, the subject confuses between the use of the adjective and the noun. For more appropriate word choice, *'skillful'* is changed to *'skills'*. The errors in sentence 63 are due to the wrong uses between verbs and adjectives. The subject used the verbs *'relax'* and *'relieve'* in the sentence. They are considered as the errors because two verbs cannot use together in an English sentence. The verb is followed by the adjective. So, the correct choices are *'relaxed'* and *'relieved'*. Sentence 64 demonstrates the confusion of derivatives due to the learner's failure to differentiate between the adjective and the adverb. The subject used the adjective *'happy'* in the sentence. This is not appropriate because in order to form sentences in English, the adverbs are required after the verbs. Thus, *'happily'* is used after the verb *'laugh'* in the sentence. Sentence 65 is an error of derivation which occurred as a result of the confusion between the forms of the adjective and the adverb. For this sentence, the adverb *'frequently'* is required instead of the adjective *'frequent'* before the verb *'go'*.

Confusion of derivatives is attributed to incomplete application of the rules and structure in the TL. In addition, the differences between the TL and the learners' mother tongue are a major cause of difficulties for the students. However, the problem is also attributed to the learners' ignorance of the use of the different forms of the words in the TL. It can be seen here that there is no single explanation for the students' errors and that probably, more than one reason is involved.

4.1.2.7 Redundancy

This type of error includes the deviant forms of a needless use of different words or phrases to mention or repeat the same thing twice in the sentence. This

category represents 5.0% of the total number of errors. In other words, 42 occurrences were identified and considered as redundancy errors. The following are examples of redundancy:

66. *The World Wide Web is larger than anyone person can imagine.
67. *We applauded the performance by clapping.
68. *Secondly, for getting sun bed some people they are really crazy tan skin.
69. *But we can learn from entering to wander in cyber world, internet,
70. *The resort is full of comfortable accommodations, shop, and entertaining places at here.
71. *I go to Pattani Stadium or Suan Somdet Park to exercise there with my friends.
72. *I live at my home with my family at my house.

In sentence 66, the word ‘*anyone*’ itself refers to ‘*any person*’. The repetition of the word ‘*person*’ is unnecessary because the word ‘*anyone*’ is enough to express the meaning in this context. Similarly, the word ‘*applauded*’ in sentence 67 carries the meaning of “*to hit your open hand together to show that you have enjoyed a play, show, etc*”. This means that the phrase ‘*by clapping*’ is unnecessary in such a context and can be considered as redundant. In sentence 68, the student used both a subject ‘*some people*’ and a pronoun ‘*they*’ in a sentence. It is inappropriate to use both words together because the sentence needs only one subject. Even though ‘*they*’ is put in this sentence to emphasize ‘*some people*’, it is redundant in English. The subject produced this error because he or she used the Thai sentence structure where two subjects can occur together in a sentence. The word ‘*internet*’ in sentence 69 is redundant as the subject has already used the word ‘*cyber world*’ which has the same meaning. Thus, ‘*internet*’ is unnecessary repetition. In sentence 70, the subject used the word ‘*at here*’ to refer to ‘*the resort*’. But ‘*at here*’ is unnecessary

at the end of the sentence because *'the resort'* which is a subject of the sentence is enough to convey the meaning in the context. Similarly, the repetition of *'there'* in sentence 71 is unnecessary because the student has already used the word *'Pattani Stadium'* and *'Suan Somdet Park'* in the sentence. In sentence 72, the phrase *'at my house'* at the end of the sentence is redundant because it has the same meaning as the phrase *'at my home'*.

As shown by the examples given, unnecessary repetitions are caused by the ignorance of the semantic features encompassed in a word. Students insert two words because they did not realize the repetition of some elements which carry the same meaning.

4.1.2.8 Paraphrasing

From the total number of lexical errors the subjects generated in this study, 63 occurrences or 7.4 % are due to paraphrasing. This type of error is often committed by the second or foreign language learners, especially those who have a limit amount of vocabulary. When the learners face such a problem, they tend to use more words than necessary to convey the intended meaning. The following are examples of paraphrasing:

73. *My father and my mother bought seafood. (my parents)

74. *He and me had to repair our own motorcycle.(we)

75. *Sunday morning, my uncles, my ants, my cousins, my sisters, my brother, my parents and I started our trip from Pattani at my uncle's house. (my family members)

76. *It is not unusual if they always have ambition and face with various competition.
(usual)
77. *There was a plan was prepared for a trip. (A plan was prepared for a trip.)
78. *According to, say that I said a one story had interested "Harry Potter" is the series of fantasy novels was written by English author J.K. Rowling.
(Harry Potter is one interesting story. It's a series of fantasy novels written by the English author, J.K. Rowling.)
79. *People use car to drive go back to their home. (People drive back)

When the learners have ideas but cannot convey their ideas with the appropriate words in the L2, they resort to paraphrasing. The paraphrasing errors produced can be described under three different simplification strategies: (1) providing elaborating synonyms, (2) providing oppositeness of meaning, and (3) providing semantic features of the intended lexical items (Woon, 2003: 81).

Sentences 73 - 75 are examples of the first simplification strategy. In sentence 73, the subject paraphrased '*my father and my mother*' because he or she provided elaborating synonyms of the word '*parents*'. The same apply to sentence 74, where instead of '*he and me*', the pronoun '*we*' is more appropriate. In sentence 75, the subject tried to present the members in his family by naming them one by one. In fact, there is a more suitable word to convey such a meaning, that is, '*family members*'.

Sentence 76 demonstrates paraphrasing occurred due to the second simplification strategy where the subject provided oppositeness of meaning instead of the actual word or phrase. The subject used '*not unusual*' to refer to '*usual*'. The third

simplification strategy is demonstrated in sentences 77 – 79. When the subjects have a limited amount of English vocabulary knowledge, they try to put the lexical item or phrase together in a complicated way. Sometimes, the paraphrasing sentences they produced are unstructured, ungrammatical and difficult to understand. In sentence 77, instead of the phrase *'there was a plan was prepared'* the subject can easily say *'a plan was prepared'*. In sentence 78, the subject has used more words than necessary to express his or her ideas. As a result, the sentence looks complicated and unstructured. Instead of such a long sentence, the subject can separate it into two sentences. The first sentence is *'Harry Potter is one interesting story.'* and the second sentence is *'It's a series of fantasy novels written by the English author, J.K. Rowling'*. In sentence 79, the phrase *'people use car to drive go back'* is paraphrasing. The subject could not convey the ideas with the expression, therefore he/she tried to express all the ideas by using words from the L1. In English, actually, it could be shortened to *'people drive back'*.

Providing semantic features of the intended lexical items are a simplification strategy the subjects like to employ. A number of paraphrasing errors found in the data appeared in rather long sentences and at the same time they are unstructured. Paraphrasing is a good reflection of the problem the second or foreign language learners face. The lack of exposure to the TL and a limited vocabulary are the main causes of the problem. When the learners find it difficult to express their ideas with the appropriate words in the TL, paraphrasing is often resorted to.

4.1.2.9 Confusibles

This type of errors consisted of 3.4 % of the total lexical errors found in the data. According to the four types of confusibles presented by Laufer (1992; cited in

James, 1998), only the consonant-based and vowel-based types are found, while the suffix and prefixing types had no occurrences in this study. The following are examples of confusibles:

80. *He must warm Molley about the danger that she is in. (warn)
81. *I thing chatting with foreign friends is a good way to improve my English. (think)
82. *We had many activities, such as driving into the sea. (diving)
83. *The principle character is so famous too. (principal)
84. *I see the sun raises. (rises)
85. *I work up early in the morning. (woke)
86. *It (limousine) was blacking the intersection while people were trying to cross the street. (blocking)

In sentence 80, the error occurred because in the confusable pair, ‘warn’ and ‘warm’ have some phonetic similarity. Both words share the same initial consonant /w/ and vowel sound /ɔ:/. The difference is in the spelling of the final consonant /n/ and /m/ respectively. While the former means “to tell someone that something bad or dangerous may happen, so that they can avoid it”, the latter is defined as “slightly hot, especially in a pleasant way”. According to the meanings given, the correct word to use is ‘warn’. The same applies to sentence 81, the confusable pair ‘thing’ and ‘think’ are semantically unrelated, but phonetically they are almost similar. The difference in their pronunciation is obvious. The nasal sound /ŋ/ is pronounced at the end of the word ‘thing’ /θɪŋ/, whilst the velar /k/ occurs in the word ‘think’ /θɪŋk/.

In sentence 82, the subject produced the confusable pair ‘drive’ and ‘dive’. The two words have some phonemes in common. Semantically, these words are different. The former is defined as ‘to make a car, truck, bus etc move along’. The latter means ‘to jump into deep water’ or ‘to swim under water using special equipment to help you breath’. In the context of this sentence it is more appropriate to use ‘dive’ as the subject was talking about the activities at the seaside. The confusable pair ‘principle’ and ‘principal’ in sentence 83 is due to phonetic similarity. These words sound similar /prɪnsəpl/, but their spelling and meaning are different. The word that means “a moral rule or belief about what is right and wrong” is spelt <ple> for the last syllable, whereas the word that means “main or most important” is spelt <pal>. Thus, to convey the intended meaning, ‘principal’ is correct choice in the sentence.

In Sentence 84, the confusable pair occurred because, orthographically, they are almost the same. However, their pronunciation is different. The word ‘raise’ is pronounced as /reɪz/, while ‘rise’ is pronounced /raɪz/. ‘Raise’ is not suitable in the sentence because its meaning is ‘to move or lift something to a higher position, place, or level’ or ‘increase’. ‘Rise’ should be used with the word ‘sun’ to convey the meaning ‘to appear in the sky’. Another possible explanation for this error is that these words are almost similar in meaning. The subject wanted to explain the position of the sun that moves higher in the sky by using the word ‘raising’. In sentence 85, the two words ‘work’ and ‘woke’ almost similar in pronunciation. In sentence 86, it is clear that the meanings of the word ‘block’ and ‘black’ are not related but they share similar phonemes. In addition, it is obvious that the latter is not the right choice for the context where the subject tried to explain the situation at the intersection that people could not go past because a limousine

was blocking. These pairs of confusibles probably occur due to the incomplete storage of vocabulary. The students have stored the words in memory according to their phonological form, but not semantic relations. In other words, it seems that the students have memorized the form of the words, but do not know the meaning of the words.

The examples given for this error type show that the pairs of confusibles occurred because the forms of the two words are chosen even though they are semantically different. The students have confused the vowels or the consonants of two words that look very alike, and as a result, produced the above errors.

4.1.2.10 Confusion of Binary Terms

Only 0.9 percent of the lexical errors belong to this category. As stated earlier, confusion of binary terms is the result of two lexical items whose meanings are opposite. In addition, the learners are often confused by them. According to the analysis of this error type, '*come-go*', '*give-take*', '*learn-teach*' and '*borrow-lend*' are binary terms found in the data. The following are examples of confusion of binary terms:

87. *I came to the beach with my family. (went)

88. *People all around the world go to take diving courses here. (come)

89. *My friends took a lot of fruits to my parents. (gave)

90. *I lent the car from my uncle and drove to the sea. (borrowed)

91. *Ajarn Sharif Sangwiman was my teacher learning English when I was at M.1.

(Ajarn Sharif Sangwiman was my teacher who taught English when I was in
M. 1.)

The confusion between 'come-go' in sentence 87 was produced because the subject did not have a clear understanding of the directional relations of these words although they know that 'come' and 'go' are opposite to each other in meaning. Both words have the meaning of moving, but their directions are different. The word 'come' means 'moving towards the speaker or arrive at the place where the speaker is', whilst 'go' means 'moving or traveling to a place that is away from where the speaker is or where the speaker lives'. Based on the meanings given, 'went' is more appropriate. The same applies to sentence 88. 'Go' cannot be used in the sentence because 'here' occurs at the end of the sentence. Its meaning is 'in this place'. Thus, it is more appropriate to use 'come'. Put in another way, if 'go' is maintained in the sentence, 'there' should be used instead of 'here'. The relational opposites of 'come-go' and 'here-there' are interrelated. 'Come' is always used with 'here', while 'go' always appears with 'there'. Otherwise it does not make sense.

Sentence 89 is another example of this error type. Besides directional relations as in 'come-go' and 'here-there', the subjects also confused the binary terms of 'give' and 'take'. To express the meaning 'to provide something for someone' or 'let someone have something', 'give' is the correct word to be used instead of 'take'. Sentence 90 presents the rational opposites of 'lend-borrow'. Instead of 'lent', the subject has to use 'borrowed' because its meaning is 'to take something from somebody that you intend to give back'. In other words, 'uncle' was the person who gave the permission to the 'subject' to use the car. Thus, it is correct to say 'I borrowed the car from my uncle' or 'my uncle lent me the car'. In sentence 91, the subject confused the rational opposites of 'learn-teach'. 'Learn' is defined as 'to gain knowledge of a subject or skill by studying it', whilst, 'teach' means 'to give lessons in a school, college, or university'. So, 'teach' is the right lexical choice for this context.

The confusion of binary terms found in this study had the least frequency of occurrence. It can be assumed that the use of English binary terms for Thai EFL students is not too much of a problem. In many languages, including Thai, the contexts for the use of such binary terms are similar. Even though the subjects produce words in English based on Thai equivalents or Thai sentence structures, normally, they do not commit errors of rational opposites, except for those who are very poor in English.

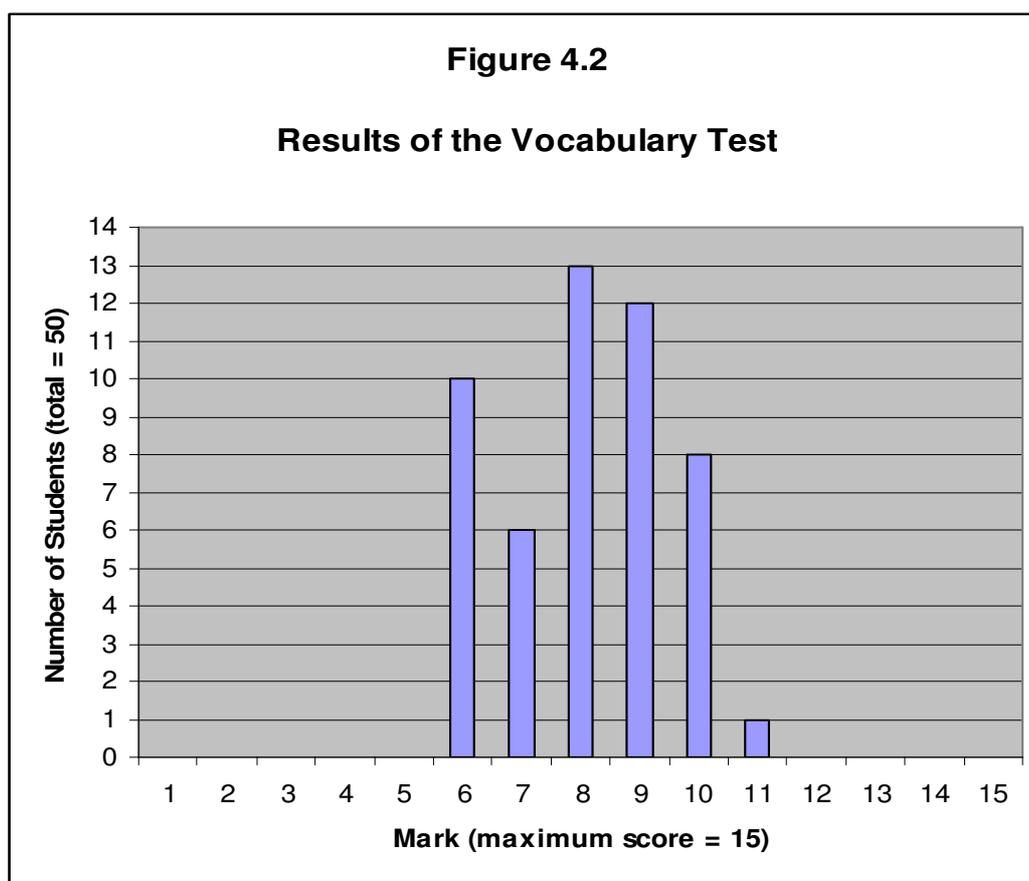
4.2 Results of the Vocabulary Test

As shown in table 4.3, the results revealed that the highest mark which the subjects obtained was 11. Out of a total of 50, only one (2%) of the subjects obtained this mark. Another 8 (16%) of them obtained 10 marks, while 12 (24%) and 13 (26%) of them obtained 9 and 8 marks respectively. They are the mark obtained by the first two highest amounts of the subjects. 6 (12%) of them obtained 7 marks and the rest 10 (20%) obtained 6 marks. According to the marking scheme set by the committees, only 1 of them had the advanced level of vocabulary knowledge and the rest 49 had the intermediate level. This means that no one of the subjects involved in this study had the low level of vocabulary knowledge.

Table 4.3
Results of the Vocabulary Test

Mark	No. of Students	Percentage
6	10	20.0
7	6	12.0
8	13	26.0
9	12	24.0
10	8	16.0
11	1	2.0
Total	50	100.0

The results shown in figure 4.2 could support the reliability of lexical errors found in subjects' written work. Nearly all of the subjects had the intermediate level of vocabulary knowledge as a result the production of errors was not too much excessive. In contrast, the researcher could have enough lexical errors for identification, classification, description and explanation. However, if the majority of them have the advanced level of vocabulary knowledge, the researcher may have not enough lexical errors to investigate this study.



4.3 Results of the Questionnaire

The researcher has obtained information from a questionnaire administered to the subjects to find out opportunities for English instruction outside the school or the university, opportunities for using English, the frequency and length of time in the use of English, attitudes towards the different aspects of English, strategies used in choosing words when writing an English essay, dictionaries used, and vocabulary learning strategies. Information on gender, age, educational background, residence, scores and grades of the English examinations, the length of English language instruction per week, and the English writing classes the subjects have taken are not mentioned in this chapter. They were mentioned as general information of the subjects in the previous chapter.

Table 4.4**Results of the Questionnaire**

Questions	No. of Responses	Percentage
1. Did you take private tuition for English while you were at school?		
- Yes	10	20
- No	40	80
2. Do you take any English language courses outside, apart from the English courses at the university?		
- Yes	5	10
- No	45	90
3. When communicating with your English language teachers (whether in the classroom or outside), which language (English or Thai) do you prefer to use?		
- Thai	31	62
- English	19	38
4. Do you take part in activities related to English in the university (for example, English camp or English debate contest)?		
- Yes	22	44
- No	28	56
5. How often do you speak in English?		
- never	1	2
- seldom	10	20
- 2-3 times/week	30	60
- frequently/everyday	9	18
6. In which of the following activities do you often use English?		
- in class at the university	36	72
- with friends	14	28
- at home	-	-
- while shopping	-	-
- others	-	-
7. How often do you read English newspapers?		
- never	-	-
- seldom	41	82
- 2-3 times/week	9	18
- frequently/every day	-	-

8. How often do you read books in English (excluding textbooks)?		
- never	1	2
- seldom	20	40
- 2-3 times/week	18	36
- frequently/every day	11	22
9. How much time in a day do you spend listening to English (e.g. radio, TV) or watch movies/videos etc.)?		
- less than 1 hour	23	46
- 1-2 hours	19	38
- 2-4 hours	5	10
- more than 4 hours	3	6
10. How much time in a week do you spend on essay writing (e.g. English composition class at the university)?		
- less than 2 hours	8	16
- 2-4 hours	21	42
- 4-6 hours	16	32
- more than 6 hours	5	10
11. When writing an English essay, which aspect of English do you find most difficult?		
- spelling	2	4
- grammar	35	70
- vocabulary	8	16
- others	5	10
12. Please number the following activities according to the difficulty you experience (1-most difficult and 6-least difficult).		
- 1= writing	23	46
- 2= grammar	15	30
- 3= reading	6	12
- 4= speaking	3	6
- 5= vocabulary	2	4
- 6= listening	1	2
13. When writing an English essay, how do you choose a word?		
- first think in Thai and then translate into English	35	70
- make the selection directly in English without need for translation	15	30
14. Which of the following dictionaries do you prefer to use when you cannot think of or recall an appropriate word?		
- bilingual dictionary	31	62
- monolingual English-English dictionary	19	38

15. In your opinion, which is the most effective way to enrich your vocabulary?		
- memorize new words	10	20
- use new words in context	8	16
- watch or listen to more English TV/radio programmes	6	12
- read more English books/magazines/newspapers	26	52
- study with TOEFL/TOEIC books	-	-

4.3.1 Opportunities for English Instruction outside the School and the University

In questions 1 and 2, the subjects were asked to provide information regarding private English tuition they took when they were at school and the English courses followed apart from the courses already taken at the university. The purpose of asking these questions was to investigate the subjects' opportunities of learning English outside the school which would have given them more exposure. The results revealed that 20% of them took private English tuition when they were at school while the rest (80%) did not. For those who had tuition, the results showed that the duration of taking them was not long. The maximum period stated by the subjects was 8 months. None took tuition for a long period of time which would have given them an added advantage. Regarding English language courses the subjects take outside the university, only 5% of them are following such courses whilst the majority (45%) does not. The courses taken by the students are grammar, and listening and speaking. The reasons given were they want to speak good English and pass the examinations (e.g. the national entrance examination).

It can be assumed that the Thai EFL students, particularly, the subjects of this study have not as many opportunities to be exposed to English. Their activities are

quite limited. It is probably due to the status of English as a foreign language in Thai society. The school and the university are the places that the subjects learn English. In other words, private English tuition and English courses outside the school or the university do not play an important role.

4.3.2 Opportunities of using English

In question 3, the subjects were asked to indicate whether they prefer to use Thai or English with their English language teachers both in the classroom and outside. The purpose of asking this question was also to investigate the opportunity of using English. The results showed that even though they are majoring in English, 62% of them prefer to use Thai with their teachers both in the classroom and outside while 38% like to use English. The environment is not conducive to the use of English. Students feel more comfortable using Thai rather than English to communicate with their teachers. The same applies to question 6. When the subjects were asked to indicate the activities in which they can often use English, the results revealed that the activities in the classroom represented the highest percentage (72%), followed by the activities with friends (28%). The other activities, for example, at home, while shopping, and others did not receive responses from the subjects. This means the opportunities of exposure to English are very limited for the Thai EFL students. Besides the activities in class and with friends, the subjects do not use English at home, while shopping, and others. Malay is mainly used at home for those whose residence is in the border provinces (Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat) while those who have lived in other provinces such as Phangna, Songkla, and Satul use Thai to communicate with their family members at home. For shopping, and almost everywhere else, except for the tourist spots, the people use Thai.

In terms of activities related to English in the university, there are a number of activities available to the students to take part in, for example, English camps, English debate contests, English speech contests, etc. However, as shown in question 4, a large number of the students have no interest in such activities. 56% did not take part in while 44% have taken part in such activities. Those who did not take part in these activities gave reasons such as: (1) they have no confidence, (2) cannot express their ideas in English, and (3) their English is not good enough. In contrast, those who took part in the activities said that they can practice and improve their English.

4.3.3 Frequency and Length of Time Using English

The question was given to the subjects because the researcher wanted to examine the frequency and exposure to English from various activities such as reading English newspapers, magazines or books, listening to the radio, and watching movies. The researcher wanted to find out how often the subjects spent their time on such activities. The responses are useful for the analysis of the data.

In question 5, the subjects were asked to give the frequency of speaking English. The results showed that the majority of them (60%) speak English 2-3 times per week while 20% seldom speak English, 18% speak English frequently or everyday and only 2% never speak English. As for the frequency of reading English newspapers, as shown in the responses to question 7, the highest percentage (82%) of the subjects seldom read English newspapers and the rest 18% read them 2-3 times per week. None gave the respond for never and frequently or every day read English newspaper. Compared to the above, the frequency of reading books, excluding textbooks, in English is different. Responses to question 8, revealed that 40% of the subjects seldom read books in English,

36% read them 2-3 times per week, 22% read them frequently or every day and only 2% never read. This means that the subjects spend more time reading books in English than newspapers in English. In other words, they prefer to read English books rather than English newspapers.

When the subjects were asked to give the length of time that they spend listening to English (e.g. radio) or watching movies and videos per day, the results, as shown in question 9, revealed that a large number of the subjects (46%) spend less than 1 hour while 38% spend 1-2 hours. The other 10% of them spend 2-4 hours and 6% spend more than 4 hours on such activities. Question 10 gave the results of the length of time the subjects spend on essay writing (e.g. the English composition class at the university) per week. It is shown that 42% of the subjects spend 2-4 hours on essay writing, 32% spend 4-6 hours, 16% spend less than 2 hours and 10% spend more than 6 hours on essay writing.

With regard to the exposure of the subjects to English, it can be assumed that they do not have a lot of opportunities. As mentioned earlier, Thai EFL students, particularly, the subjects of this study do not use English in their daily life. It is difficult them to speak English everyday because they do so mainly at the university, particularly, in the classroom. Even though the majority of them read books in English, only a small number read them every day. None reads English newspapers frequently. To get daily news, Thai newspapers are easier for them to understand. It is the same for listening. Radio programs are generally broadcasted in Thai. Similarly, TV programs are mainly broadcasted in Thai. Even though the opportunity to listen or to watch English programs are provided by Thai cable TV such as UBC, Samart, and True, access to them is quite limited. Thus, there is no wonder why only a few number of students spend time listening

or watching English programs. Regarding essay writing, the subjects are able to write English compositions based on the courses they have taken both in the class and outside as an assignment. Therefore, the time they spend is more than 2 hours.

4.3.4 Attitudes towards the Aspects of English

The subjects were asked to give their opinions regarding the aspects of English learning (e.g. spelling, grammar, vocabulary, and the 4 skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The purpose of asking this question is to investigate their attitude towards the difficult aspects of English they have experienced. Firstly, the subjects were asked to indicate the most difficult aspect of English when writing an English essay. Spelling, grammar, vocabulary, and others were the choices given to them. The results showed that 70% of them chose grammar as the most difficult aspect while 16% chose vocabulary. The other 10 % chose others (e.g. idioms and ideas) as the most difficult aspect and the rest (4 %) chose spelling. It can be assumed for Thai EFL students, grammar is the most difficult aspect of learning English. This is why Thai students pay more attention to grammar than vocabulary. Secondly, the subjects were asked to rank the aspects using a number from 1 to 6 (1 being the most difficult and 6 the least difficult) namely, writing, reading, speaking, listening, vocabulary, and grammar. The results showed that writing was given for the highest ranking (46%), followed by grammar (30%). Reading came third (12%), the fourth was speaking (6%) and the fifth was vocabulary (4%). Listening was ranked the lowest (2%). This means that writing is the most difficult activity the subjects experienced whilst listening is the least difficult. Thus, it is not wrong to say that writing and grammar are the two most difficult activities for the subjects. It can be said that these two aspects are interrelated. When producing their writing, grammar, not vocabulary is the aspect the subjects will focus on and pay attention to.

4.3.5 Strategies of Vocabulary Choice when Writing an English Essay

The subjects were asked to indicate the strategy used when choosing a word. The purpose of asking this question is to examine whether they first think in Thai and then translate into English or make the selection directly in English without need for translation. The results showed that 70 % of them chose translation as a strategy when writing an English essay, while the rest 30% did not. This shows that the majority of them still rely heavily on Thai when they write English compositions. The subjects have a high tendency of using word for word translation from Thai into English.

4.3.6 Dictionary Use

Dictionary-use behavior is useful information a researcher can gain from the subjects. The students were asked to state whether they prefer to use bilingual Thai English or monolingual English-English dictionaries. Although they are majoring in English, the results showed that a large number of them (62%) prefer to use a bilingual dictionary while a small number (38%) prefer to use a monolingual dictionary. This means that when the subjects write English compositions, they will probably use inappropriate words in the context because the bilingual dictionary does not always provide the contexts in which the words are used. Normally, the word is provided with its multiple meanings. Often, the subjects cannot differentiate the contexts in which a word is used, as a result, errors are committed.

4.3.7 Vocabulary Learning Strategies

The subjects were asked to indicate the most effective way to enrich their vocabulary according to their point of view. A number of strategies were given, namely,

memorizing new words, using new words in context, watching or listening to more English TV/ radio programs, reading more English books, magazines or newspapers, and studying with TOEFL or TOEIC books. The results showed that 52% of them thought that reading more English books, magazines or newspapers is the most effective way to enrich their vocabulary while 20% of them thought that memorizing new words is the most effective strategy. The rest (16%) preferred using new words in context. For studying with TOEFL or TOEIC books, the students did not respond to the option.

The responses given by the subjects are useful information that the researcher can further use for discussion and analysis of the errors in the next section of this chapter. The results of the questionnaire can be used as a part of explanation why the errors are made.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, the researcher has analyzed the lexical errors in the English compositions of Thai EFL students at the tertiary level. Explanations of the causes of errors were given, which are useful for both teachers and learners, especially, in Thailand. They will be able to recognize the types of lexical errors Thai EFL students often produce as well as the causes and possible sources of the errors.