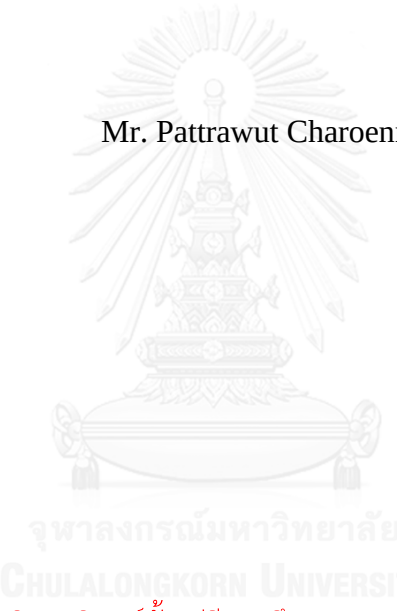
An Interlanguage Pragmatic Study on the Speech Act of Disagreement Performed by Thai EFL Learners and Addressed to the Lecturer in the Classroom Context

Mr. Pattrawut Charoenroop



A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Program in English as an International Language
(Interdisciplinary Program)
Graduate School
Chulalongkorn University
Academic Year 2016

การศึกษาวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ภาษาระหว่างกลางของวัจนกรรมแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างโดยผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศชาวไทยต่อผู้สอนในบริบทห้องเรียน

นายภัทราวุธ เจริญรูป

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต
สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ (สหสาขาวิชา)
บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
ปีการศึกษา 2559

Thesis Title	An Interlanguage Pragmatic Study on the Speech Act of Disagreement Performed by Thai EFL Learners and Addressed to the Lecturer in the Classroom Context
By	Mr. Pattrawut Charoenroop
Field of Study	English as an International Language
Thesis Advisor	Assistant Professor Jiranthara Srioutai, Ph.D.

Accepted by the Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Doctoral Degree

.....Dean of the Graduate School
(Associate Professor Sunait Chutintaranond, Ph.D.)

THESIS COMMITTEE

.....Chairman
(Associate Professor Nattama Pongpairoj, Ph.D.)
.....Thesis Advisor
(Assistant Professor Jiranthara Srioutai, Ph.D.)
.....Examiner
(Assistant Professor Chansongklod Gajaseni, Ph.D.)
.....Examiner
(Assistant Professor Pavinee Thirakhupt, Ph.D.)
.....External Examiner
(Assistant Professor Boonjeera Chiravate, Ph.D.)

ภัทราวุธ เจริญรูป : การศึกษาวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ภาษาระหว่างกลางของวัจนกรรมแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างโดยผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศชาวไทยต่อผู้สอนในบริบทห้องเรียน (An Interlanguage Pragmatic Study on the Speech Act of Disagreement Performed by Thai EFL Learners and Addressed to the Lecturer in the Classroom Context) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: ผศ. ดร. จิรันธรา ศรีอุทัย, 172 หน้า.

งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษากลยุทธ์ความสุภาพที่ผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศชาวไทยใช้เพื่อแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างกับครูผู้สอนด้วยภาษาอังกฤษในบริบทห้องเรียนและเปรียบเทียบผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศชาวไทยจำนวน ๒ กลุ่ม ที่ซึมซาบกับภาษาอังกฤษซึ่งเป็นสื่อการสอนในปริมาณน้อยและในปริมาณมาก ซึ่งเรียกว่ากลุ่ม ผอทน และกลุ่ม ผอทม ตามลำดับ ในแง่การใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพเพื่อแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างระหว่างนักเรียนและครูผู้สอน สมิทธิภาพทางภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียนทั้ง ๒ กลุ่มนี้อยู่ในเกณฑ์ปานกลางโดยพิจารณาจากผลคะแนนเฉลี่ยจากแบบทดสอบภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสารระหว่างประเทศแบบเดียวกัน ในบริบทห้องเรียนที่อำนาจระหว่างนักเรียนและครูผู้สอนไม่สมมาตรกัน ผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศชาวไทยถูกตั้งสมมติฐานว่าจะไม่ใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพด้วยถ้อยคำตรงในการแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างกับครูผู้สอน นอกจากนี้ผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศชาวไทยทั้ง ๒ กลุ่มนี้ถูกตั้งสมมติฐานว่าจะใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพที่ต่างกันเนื่องจากปริมาณการซึมซาบภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสื่อการสอนนั้นไม่เท่ากัน ในการรวบรวมข้อมูล ห้องเรียนจำนวน ๒ ห้องที่มีจำนวนผู้เรียน ๑๘ ถึง ๒๐ คนถูกบันทึกวีดีโอเทปเป็นระยะเวลา ๓๐ ชั่วโมง ภายใน ๑๐ สัปดาห์ ข้อความแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างด้วยวาจาถูกวิเคราะห์ในแง่กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพโดยพิจารณาจากลักษณะภาษาศาสตร์ (Rees-Miller, ๒๐๐๐; Kakava, ๒๐๐๔; Locher, ๒๐๐๔; Walkinshaw, ๒๐๐๗; Sifianou, ๒๐๑๒) นอกจากนี้ลักษณะปรลักษณ์ภาษาศาสตร์ (Rees-Miller, ๒๐๐๐; Kakava, ๒๐๐๒; Hong, ๒๐๐๓) และลักษณะอวัจนภาษา (McClave ๒๐๐๐, Pease และ Pease, ๒๐๐๔; Sifianou, ๒๐๑๒) ถูกนำมาพิจารณาร่วมด้วย ผลการวิจัยพบว่าผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศชาวไทยใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพด้วยถ้อยคำตรงในการแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างกับครูผู้สอน นอกจากนี้ผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศชาวไทยทั้ง ๒ กลุ่ม มักใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพที่ต่างกัน กลุ่ม ผอทน มักใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพเชิงลบโดยแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างอย่างชัดเจนแต่ผ่านกระบวนการลดระดับความรุนแรง กลุ่ม ผอทม มักใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพด้วยถ้อยคำตรงโดยแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างอย่างตรงไปตรงมา งานวิจัยนี้ยังได้ตรวจสอบการใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพโดยผู้พูดภาษาแม่ด้วยภาษาไทย (กลุ่ม ผท) และผู้พูดภาษาแม่ด้วยภาษาอังกฤษ (กลุ่ม ผอ) เมื่อแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างระหว่างนักเรียนและครูผู้สอนในบริบทห้องเรียน พบว่า กลุ่ม ผท มักใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพเชิงลบ ในขณะที่ กลุ่ม ผอ มักใช้กลยุทธ์ความสุภาพด้วยถ้อยคำตรง เมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับบรรทัดฐานความสุภาพของกลุ่ม ผท และกลุ่ม ผอ พบว่ากลุ่ม ผอทน ได้ถ่ายโอนความรู้ด้านวัจนปฏิบัติในภาษาไทยสู่การแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างระหว่างนักเรียนและครูผู้สอนในภาษาอังกฤษ ทว่าไม่มีหลักฐานที่นำไปสู่ข้อสรุปว่าความรู้ด้านวัจนปฏิบัติในภาษาอังกฤษของกลุ่ม ผอทม ถูกพัฒนาอย่างสมบูรณ์แบบ เมื่อเปรียบเทียบกลยุทธ์ความสุภาพที่กลุ่ม ผอทน และกลุ่ม ผอทม ใช้ในการแสดงความเห็นแตกต่างระหว่างนักเรียนและครูผู้สอนในภาษาอังกฤษ ผู้วิจัยพบว่าความรู้ทางภาษาศาสตร์วัจนปฏิบัติและวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์สังคมของผู้เรียนทั้ง ๒ กลุ่มนี้ มีความแตกต่างกัน

สาขาวิชา ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ ลายมือชื่อนิสิต .....

ปีการศึกษา 2559 ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก .....

5387797620 : MAJOR ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE
KEYWORDS: INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS / DISAGREEMENT / THAI EFL LEARNERS / LECTURER / CLASSROOM CONTEXT

PATTRAWUT CHAROENROOP: An Interlanguage Pragmatic Study on the Speech Act of Disagreement Performed by Thai EFL Learners and Addressed to the Lecturer in the Classroom Context. ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. JIRANTHARA SRIOUTAI, Ph.D., 172 pp.

The study explored politeness strategies Thai EFL learners used to disagree with their lecturer in English in the classroom context and compared two groups of Thai EFL learners, with less and more exposure to English as a medium of instruction−the EFLt and the EFLe, respectively−in terms of the politeness strategies they used to perform student-lecturer disagreements. Their levels of English proficiency were intermediate as assessed based on their mean scores from the Test of English for International Communication. In the classroom context where there is an asymmetrical power between the students and the lecturer, Thai EFL learners were hypothesized not to use bald on-record strategies. In addition, the two groups of Thai EFL learners were hypothesized to use different politeness strategies due to their different amounts of exposure time to English as a medium of instruction. The data were collected by means of videotaping two classrooms of 18−20 students for 30 hours for 10 weeks. The learners' verbal expressions of student-lecturer disagreements were analyzed in terms of politeness strategies based on the use of different linguistic features (Rees-Miller, 2000; Kakava, 2004; Locher, 2004; Walkinshaw, 2009; Sifianou, 2012), and secondarily analyzed in terms of paralinguistic features (Rees-Miller, 2000, Kakava, 2002; Hong, 2003), and non-verbal gestures (McClave, 2000; Pease and Pease, 2004; Sifianou, 2012). The results showed that Thai EFL learners used bald on-record strategies to disagree with their lecturer. Furthermore, the two groups of Thai EFL learners normally used different sets of politeness strategies. The EFLt normally used negative politeness strategies, that is, they modified their disagreements through imposition minimizers. The EFLe normally used bald on-record strategies, that is, they disagreed with the lecturer explicitly. This study also investigated what politeness strategies native speakers of Thai (the NT) and native speakers of English (the NE) used to disagree with their lecturers in the classroom context. Results showed that the NT normally used negative politeness strategies while the NE normally used bald on-record strategies. In comparison with the NT's and the NE's politeness norms, it was discovered that the EFLt transferred some pragmatic competence in Thai to their production of student-lecturer disagreements in English. However, there was no evidence to conclude that the EFLe's pragmatic competence in English was fully developed. Having compared the EFLt's and the EFLe's politeness strategies they used to perform student-lecturer disagreements in English, the researcher found that their pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence were different.

Field of Study:	English as an International Language	Student's Signature	.....
		Advisor's Signature	.....
Academic Year:	2016		

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank God, who comes first in my life. Without His infinite Grace, doing this doctoral dissertation would not have been possible; “What is impossible with man is possible with God” Luke (18:27). I wish to express my deepest gratefulness to my dissertation adviser, Assistant Professor Dr. Jiranthara Srioutai, who had a key role in shaping my academic expertise. Her teaching styles have changed me into a critical researcher. My sincere thanks also go to the chair of the committee, Associate Professor Dr. Nattama Pongpairoj, and all other members: Assistant Professor Dr. Chansongklod Gajaseni, Assistant Professor Dr. Pavinee Thirakhupt, and Assistant Professor Dr. Boonjeera Chiravate. A perfect combination of the committee ensured the successful completion of this research project. My profound gratitude is extended to TUSEF/Fulbright-Thailand, whose research scholarship I was granted. A period of seven months to become a Fulbrighter was absolutely invaluable. Thanks to the Department of Linguistics at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign for providing educational facilities for me while I was conducting my project. My special thanks go to Associate Professor Dr. Marina Terkourafi, who gave editorial comments for my pragmatics-related papers. I would also like to convey my honest thanks to Thai Airways International Public Company Limited. Without the consent for an eight-month leave, I would not have had the quality time to concentrate on my work and duties as a Fulbright visiting scholar. I had an outstanding productive time to write some articles for publication. I would like to convey my wholehearted thanks to my family, especially my beloved mother, Mrs. Kanittha Charoenroop, who has firm beliefs and full confidence in me. Her daily prayers empowered me, particularly when I encountered some difficulties and challenging times. I would also thank my father, Mr. Somboon Charoenroop, whose life is exemplary. My special thanks go to my twin brother, Mr. Pattravej Charoenroop, for his positive inspiration that encouraged me to keep walking. Hearty thanks go to Dr. Felix Erni, former Dean of the Faculty of Arts at Assumption University of Thailand, who on a volunteer basis, was willing to read all my drafts, and gave valuable opinions on my writing style. I extend my sincere gratitude to Professor Piradee Udommanisuwat for her kind concern and continued positive support. She never refused my calls and always listened to me most caringly. I would finally also like to emphasize my thanks to all my friends, especially Mr. Saran Khumdee and Mrs. Sue Berndt, who were wonderfully supportive both during my happy and less happy days. There are many good friends whose names cannot be listed in the boundary of this page of acknowledgements, but they are written down in my heart where the space is unlimited.

CONTENTS

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This study deals with the speech act of disagreement when Thai learners of English as a foreign language (henceforth Thai EFL learners) disagree with their lecturer in a classroom context. The chapter is divided into five main sections. To begin with, I describe my motivation behind the implementation of this present study. Next, research questions, research objectives, and research hypotheses are established. After that, the scope of this study focusing on who were the participants and how long their classrooms were videotaped is described. Then, I define five key terms from the research title. Finally, theoretical significance and practical significance of the study are sketched.

1.1 Background of the Study

When I was an international student doing my postgraduate degree in Australia, there were several courses in which student discussion was a major part of the course requirements. Having participated in these classes for three years, I found that efficient discussion usually began with a student's expression of disagreement, which led to higher productivity than just explicit lecturing. My observation of the classes revealed that Euro-American and Australian students tended to disagree with their lecturer more frequently than Asian students. For me, the expression of disagreement was an indication of disobedience, confrontation, and impoliteness, which had potential to cause threats to the lecturers. Taking this into account, I infrequently disagreed with my lecturers although I was skeptical in my 'agreement.'

My avoidance strategy may simply be explained by a widespread assumption that the expression of disagreement easily creates social conflicts (Kakava, 1993; Locher, 2004; Waldron & Applegate, 1994). Politeness theorists (e.g. Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983) mention two disagreement strategies which may be used to prevent social conflicts. Leech (1983, p. 132) proposes the 'Agreement Maxim', encouraging the speaker to increase his or her agreement, and to decrease his or her disagreement. In addition, Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 113-117) categorize the 'Avoid Disagreement' strategy under positive politeness strategies. The use of this politeness strategy allows the speaker to avoid disagreeing with others. Based on these politeness strategies, an expression of disagreement tends to be dispreferred and unwanted due to the fact that it normally jeopardizes social harmony. However, evading disagreements in social interactions is nearly impossible. Liu (2004, p. 7) points out that "…disagreements do occur no matter how hard people try to avoid them."

In an institutionalized context, there is an asymmetrical power relationship between the speaker and the addressee. In a classroom context, for example, the power relationship between the lecturer and students is obviously unequal (e.g. Liu, 2004; Walkinshaw, 2007, 2009). The lecturer's superior power status can be marked by his or her greater knowledge, academic status, and probably age. In addition, the

lecturer has some power to assign grades and punishments. This asymmetrical power relationship influences the ways the students use politeness strategies and how they realize the strategies (e.g. Kakava, 2002; Liu, 2004; Locher, 2004; Rees-Miller, 2000; Walkinshaw, 2007, 2009). It is postulated that the students use polite strategies to minimize the threat of their disagreements and realize the strategies tactfully. In short, disagreeing with the lecturer can be challenging for the students because of their inferior power status. Therefore, the students can be expected to be careful to avoid creating a conflict when disagreeing with the lecturer in the classroom context.

Kasper and Rose (2002, p. 237) contend that learners' pragmatic competence in a target language (henceforth L2 pragmatic competence) can be developed if the learners are immersed in a classroom where the target language is used as a means of communication. They further argue that the development of learners' L2 pragmatic competence in a classroom context can be enhanced under three conditions: (i) L2 pragmatic competence is explicitly taught, (ii) L2 pragmatic competence is implicitly taught, and (iii) L2 pragmatic competence is not a learning objective. Bardovi-Harlig (2013) supports Kasper and Rose (2002) that learners' awareness of pragmatic differences between the target culture and their native culture can be fostered through regular classroom-based immersion. Within the scope of this study, disagreeing with the lecturer in English is not a learning objective in the selected classrooms.

This study explores politeness strategies Thai EFL learners use to disagree with their lecturer in a classroom context. This study also compares politeness strategies used by two groups of Thai EFL learners: (i) a group of Thai EFL learners who are *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, and (ii) another group of Thai EFL learners who are *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, when they disagree with the lecturer in their classrooms. If results show that these groups of learners select the same set of politeness strategies, realizations of politeness strategies will be further investigated. This investigation is to discover whether the learners, whose amounts of exposure time to English are different, realize the same politeness strategies similarly or differently.

1.2 Research Questions

1. What politeness strategies do Thai EFL learners use to disagree with their lecturer in the classroom context and how are the strategies realized?

2. To what extent do Thai EFL learners, whose amounts of exposure to English as the medium of instruction are different, choose politeness strategies and realize the strategies differently when they disagree with the lecturer in the classroom context?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

In accordance with the research questions, the objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To describe politeness strategies used to perform the speech act of disagreement by Thai EFL learners when they disagree with their lecturer in the classroom context.

2. To compare politeness strategies selected by two groups of Thai EFL learners, whose amounts of exposure to English as the medium of instruction are different, when they disagree with the lecturer in the classroom context.

1.4 Statements of Hypotheses

With reference to the research questions and reviews of literature, the hypotheses of this study are as follows:

1. Following Hong (2003, pp. 107-117); Liu (2004, pp. 107-110); Walkinshaw (2009, pp. 47-51), Thai EFL learners do not use bald on-record strategies when they disagree with their lecturer in the classroom context.

2. Following Kasper and Rose (2002, pp. 237-239), two groups of Thai EFL learners, whose amounts of exposure to English as the medium of instruction are different, choose different politeness strategies when they disagree with the lecturer in the classroom context.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The data of student-lecturer disagreements used in this study were taken from classroom videotaping at four different classrooms. They were (i) a classroom of Thai EFL learners who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction at Rangsit University, (ii) a classroom of Thai EFL learners who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction at the international college of Burapha University, (iii) another classroom of native speakers of Thai at Burapha University, and (iv) a classroom of native speakers of English from Brock University. All classrooms were videotaped for three hours every week for ten weeks, except the classroom of students from Brock University, which was videotaped for three hours every week for five weeks.

1.6 Definitions of Terms

The following terms are keywords which appeared in the research title.

a. Interlanguage Pragmatic Study

Interlanguage Pragmatic Study refers to a study that investigates interlanguage production of disagreements by Thai EFL learners. This study explores the learners' social perceptions that underlie their performance of student-lecturer disagreements in English, and their linguistic resources the learners use to express student-lecturer disagreements in English (cf. Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p. 78).

b. Disagreement

Disagreement refers to a verbal expression of an opinion that is not aligned with a preceding opinion (Bjorge, 2012; Edstrom, 2004; Georgakopoulou, 2001; Kakava, 2002; Rees-Miller, 2000; Sifianou, 2012). According to this definition, a disagreement is always a responsive act, as shown in Extract 1.

Extract 1:

1. L: Hardworking
2. L: (long pause) Is that(/) POSitive or NEGative
3. Ss: (silent)
4. L: Many */kʰōn tʰāī/* would say negative
5. S: (long pause) (P)No(P) ⟵ ***a token of disagreement***
   (the student shakes his head)
6. L: No(/) (short pause) hardworking is positive(/)
7. S: I don't know

(the student shakes his head)

Videotaped EFLe: July 18th, 2012

c. Thai EFL Learners

Thai EFL Learners are native speakers of Thai who were third-year undergraduate students consisting of males and females. Their age range was between 20 and 22. They lived in Thailand and learned English at the tertiary level. Their native language was Thai, and their target language was English. Their university curriculum allowed them to be exposed to English used as a medium of classroom instruction.

d. The Lecturer

The Lecturer refers to a male lecturer who was a native speaker of English. In this study, the lecturers in the selected classes were American. Their ages were 56 and 58 years old. The lecturers had never taught the research participants before the implementation of this project. Both of them had more than 10 years of teaching experience at the tertiary level in Thailand.

e. Classroom Context

Classroom Context refers to a medium-sized classroom of 18−20 students. The student desks are in straight rows facing the front of the classroom. The aisles between rows are wide enough for the students to stand up in front of their desks. The

lecturer desk is in a corner in front of the classroom. The observed classrooms were skill development classes where the students' speaking and listening skills in English were taught and practiced.

1.7 Significance of the Study

There is twofold significance of this present study: (i) theoretical and (ii) practical significance. Theoretically, this study contributes to existing literature on disagreements. According to Kasper (1992), the speech act of disagreement is claimed to receive the least attention among other types of speech acts such as apologies, thanks, refusals, requests, complaints, and compliments and compliment responses. Nearly twenty years later, Behnam and Niroomand (2011) repeatedly point out that there are only few existing studies on disagreement. It is clearly discernible that the body of literature on disagreement has been growing slowly. Findings of this present study do not only enlarge the number of studies on disagreement in terms of quantity, but also contribute to further understanding of how EFL learners perform the disagreement speech act in a classroom context. Results from this study not only widen the interlanguage pragmatic subfield, but also broaden the cross-cultural pragmatic subfield because politeness strategies used by a group of native speakers of Thai and a group of native speakers of English are explored. These native speakers are used as norm providers for Thai EFL learners. In practice, this study contributes to the lecturer's awareness. Findings on politeness strategies Thai EFL learners use may raise the lecturers' awareness of Thai EFL learners' performance of student-lecturer disagreements in a classroom. Performance of student-lecturer disagreements in this context can be inferred that disagreements do not always create social conflicts, especially in the context where there is an asymmetrical power relationship between the speaker and the addressee.

1.8 Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, I have introduced my motivations behind the implementation of this study. After that, two research questions, two objectives of the study, and two hypotheses have been presented. Next, I have mentioned the scope of my study based on the participants and how long each group of the participants was videotaped. Then, five keywords from the research title have been defined. Lastly, I have described the theoretical and practical significance of the study. The next chapter reviews literature relevant to this study.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Having introduced my study in the previous chapter, I turn to present the review of literature in relation to the study. In this chapter, the review of literature is divided into two major sections: (i) the theoretical background and (ii) related studies.

2.1 Theoretical Background

In this section, the theoretical background comprises five topics: (i) communicative competence, (ii) two subfields in pragmatics, (iii) speech acts, (iv) the speech act of disagreement, and (v) Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. These topics provide some fundamental background for further discussion, particularly in chapters 4 and 5.

2.1.1 Communicative Competence

Introduced by Hymes (1962, 1967, 1971), communicative competence governs the actual use of language requiring both linguistic and pragmatic knowledge. Hymes' communicative competence stays in sharp contrast with Chomsky's linguistic competence in that to Chomsky the pragmatic knowledge does not play a role. In relation to this study, the communicative competence is discussed. The discussion is divided into three main parts. To begin with, I explain Chomsky's linguistic and competence dichotomy. Next, I present four models of communicative competence: (i) Canale and Swain (1980), (ii) Canale (1983), (iii) Bachman (1990), and (iv) Bachman and Palmer (1996). Finally, I discuss pragmatic competence in relation to the scope of this present study.

2.1.1.1 Competence and Performance

Prior to the introduction of communicative competence, there was an influential concept of competence proposed by Chomsky (1957, 1965). His concept of competence refers to native speakers' grammatical knowledge, which encompasses the knowledge of sounds, sentence structures, and semantic meanings. They enable the speakers to use the language grammatically and to recognize what is considered grammatical and ungrammatical in their native languages. For example, knowing English, native speakers of English will subconsciously recognize that;

(1) the [ŋ] sound does not exist as an initial sound in English words,

(2) the pronunciations of [-s] to indicate plurality in ‘cats’ and ‘dogs’ are different,

(3) ‘Pragmatics is fascinating and fun’ is a grammatical sentence in English,

(4) ‘*And fun is fascinating pragmatics’ is an ungrammatical sentence in English, and

(5) ‘The boy kissed the girl’ is semantically different from ‘The boy was kissed by the girl.’

Based on the above examples, linguistic competence enables native speakers to recognize sounds used in their language, the combination of sounds, the creation of grammatical sentences, and the interpretation of sentence meanings. Chomsky (1957, 1965) refers to the subconscious linguistic knowledge of native speakers as competence, while the use of language governed by these grammatical rules is referred to as performance.

Later, the concept of competence and performance was defeated by Hymes (1962, 1967), who is an anthropologist and linguist. Hymes (1962, 1967) points out that in order to communicate effectively, the linguistic knowledge or the knowledge of grammatical rules may be insufficient to make the actual use of language communicative. The speakers should not only be fluent due to their mastery of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, but should also be able to produce the language that is socially and culturally appropriate in any given context.

Hymes’ principle of communicative competence becomes central in a range of disciplines to the study of language in use, especially in sociolinguistics and linguistic anthropology. This widely accepted principle has led to several modifications, but although there are numerous attempts to re-examine Hymes’ model of communicative competence, its central principle remains unchanged with the notion of appropriate use of language according to the context as core.

2.1.1.2 Models of Communicative Competence

There are several models that aim to strengthen the components of Hymes’ (1962, 1967, 1971) communicative competence. In this section, I review four models of communicative competence. They are taken from (i) Canale and Swain (1980), (ii) Canale (1983), (iii) Bachman (1990), and (iv) Bachman and Palmer (1996).

2.1.1.2.1 Canale and Swain (1980)

Canale and Swain (1980) classify the components of communicative competence into three major categories: (i) *the grammatical competence*, (ii) *the*

sociolinguistic competence, and (iii) *the strategic competence*. Although the term grammatical competence is relatively similar to Chomsky's linguistic competence, which primarily focuses on the knowledge of sounds, sentence structures, and semantic meanings, Canale and Swain's (1980) grammatical competence covers more various language codes, for example, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, meaning and sentence structures. The concept of sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability to select proper linguistic forms to convey appropriate meanings in a given situation, which is determined by pragmatic rules and social appropriateness. The strategic competence denotes the ability to apply verbal and non-verbal communication strategies in order to avoid communication breakdowns or failures.

2.1.1.2.2 Canale (1983)

Three years later, Canale (1983) adjoins the final component to the existing model of communicative competence. The final component is (iv) *the discourse competence*. This competence helps strengthen cohesion in form and coherence in meaning in order to unite the discourse.

2.1.1.2.3 Bachman (1990)

Bachman (1990) proposes his model of communicative competence and introduces four components of communicative competence. He classifies them into two major categories: (i) *the organizational competence*, and (ii) *the pragmatic competence*. The former comprises the grammatical competence and the textual competence. The latter consists of the illocutionary competence and the sociolinguistic competence. This model of communicative competence is re-presented in Table 2.1.

Communicative Competence (Bachman, 1990)			
Organizational Competence		Pragmatic Competence	
Grammatical Competence	Textual Competence	Illocutionary Competence	Sociolinguistic Competence
-Phonetics	-Cohesion	-Instrumental Function	-Dialect
-Phonology	-Coherence	-Regulatory Function	-Register
-Morphology		-Representational Function	-Nature
-Syntax		-Interactional Function	-Culture
-Semantics		-Personal Function	
		-Heuristic Function	
		-Imaginative Function	

Table 2.1: Bachman's (1990) Model of Communicative Competence

The model of communicative competence proposed by Bachman (1990) shares some similarities with the models introduced by Canale and Swain (1980), and Canale (1983). Bachman's (1990) model includes the grammatical, the textual, and the sociolinguistic competence. These components are reorganized and put under two major categories, which are (i) the organizational and (ii) the pragmatic competence. Bachman (1990) subdivides the organizational competence into (i) the grammatical competence and (ii) the textual competence, which are to some extent similar to the grammatical and the discourse competence in Canale and Swain's (1980) communicative competence. The pragmatic competence is further divided into (i) the illocutionary and (ii) the sociolinguistic competence. The introduction of the illocutionary competence, based on Halliday's (1975) taxonomy of language functions, distinguishes Bachman's (1990) model of communicative competence from Canale and Swain's (1980).

The suggested illocutionary competence (Bachman, 1990) consists of (i) the instrumental function (i.e. to accomplish the speakers' needs such as obtaining food and drinks), (ii) the regulatory function (i.e. to influence other people's behaviors such as making a command or request), (iii) the representational function (i.e. to exchange information such as asking and answering for pieces of information), (iv) the interactional function (i.e. to develop social relationship such as using small talk to strengthen solidarity), (v) the personal function (i.e. to express the speakers' personal preference and identity such as declaring one's preference), (vi) the heuristic function (i.e. to learn and explore the environment such as learning new things through the use of questions and answers), and (vii) imaginative function (i.e. to explore the imagination such as creating an imaginary world). In summary, the illocutionary competence in Bachman's (1990) model of communicative competence specifically refers to the use of language as a means to accomplish several functions.

2.1.1.2.4 Bachman and Palmer (1996)

In 1996, Bachman and Palmer re-designed the model of communicative competence and proposed a similar model to Bachman's (1990). Bachman and Palmer (1996) also divided their model of communicative competence into two major components: (i) the organizational competence and (ii) the pragmatic competence. The former comprises the grammatical and the textual competence, while the latter consists of the functional and the sociolinguistic competence. The grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of sounds, words, and sentences in both spoken and written languages. The textual competence enables the speakers' comprehensions and productions of both propositions and utterances. Unlike Bachman (1990), Bachman and Palmer (1996) introduced the rhetorical and the conversational organization. The rhetorical organization enables the language users to develop narratives, descriptions, comparisons or classifications, while the conversational organization enables the language users to initiate, maintain, and close conversations. The functional competence is the knowledge of pragmatic conventions used to perform and interpret language functions (e.g. the ideational functions, the manipulative functions, the heuristic functions, the cultural references, and figures of speech). The sociolinguistic competence promotes the language users' ability to produce and perceive language utterances which are appropriate in a given context. The model is summarized in Table 2.2.

Communicative Competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996)			
Organizational Competence		Pragmatic Competence	
Grammatical Competence	Textual Competence	Functional Competence	Sociolinguistic Competence
-Vocabulary	-Cohesion	-Ideational functions	-Dialects and language varieties
-Phonology/ Graphology	-Rhetorical and Conversational organization	-Manipulative functions	-Registers
-Morphology		-Heuristic functions	-Natural and idiomatic expressions
-Syntax		-Cultural references and figures of speech	

Table 2.2: Bachman and Palmer's (1996) Model of Communicative Competence

In Bachman's (1990), and Bachman and Palmer's (1996) models of communicative competence, the pragmatic competence appears as part of communicative competence. This is to affirm that communicative competence does

not only encompass linguistic knowledge but also includes pragmatic knowledge. In this current study, linguistic knowledge refers to Thai EFL learners' knowledge of grammatical rules in English used to perform disagreements. Pragmatic knowledge refers to the learners' knowledge of how disagreements should be performed according to the learners' intention under the contextual constraints.

2.1.1.3 Pragmatic Competence

As defined by Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983), pragmatic competence comprises two major components: (i) the pragmalinguistic competence, and (ii) the sociopragmatic competence. The pragmalinguistic competence is available linguistic resources used to accomplish a communicative intention appropriately. The available linguistic resources of the pragmalinguistic competence refer to pragmatic strategies (e.g. directness and indirectness, linguistic forms to strengthen or soften communicative acts), which deal with the mapping of form, meaning, force and context. The sociopragmatic competence governs an ability to vary pragmatic strategies in relation to situational and social variables (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009; Kasper, 2001; Kasper & Roever, 2005). In brief, the pragmalinguistic-sociopragmatic dichotomy gives evidence that language and culture are interwoven, as shown in Figure 2.1.

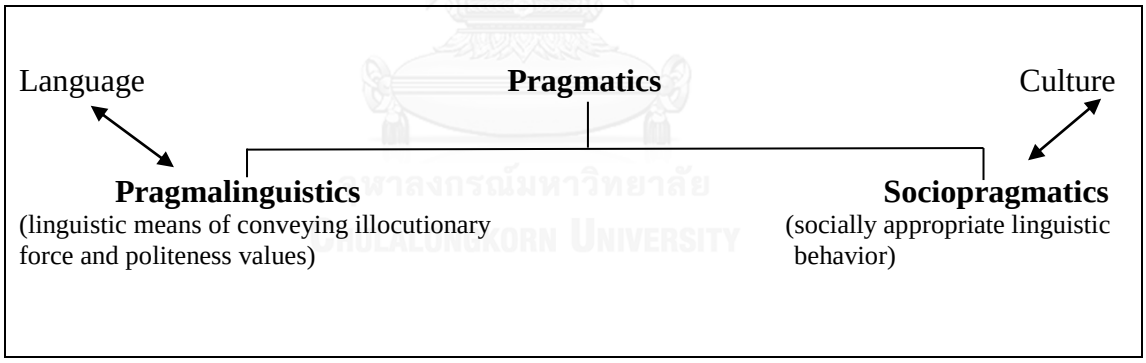


Figure 2.1: The Continuum of Pragmalinguistic-Sociopragmatic Dichotomy

2.1.2 Two Subfields in Pragmatics

In this section, I initially present the interlanguage pragmatic sub-field, which is the interface of pragmatics and the second language acquisition (henceforth SLA)), which fundamentally describes the language used by learners. To understand the structures of the learners' language, their native language, and their target language should also be examined. Thus, I also mention the cross-cultural pragmatic subfield. In the following sections, I explain the two subfields within the scope of this study.

2.1.2.1 Interlanguage Pragmatics

Introduced by Selinker (1972), the term interlanguage is defined as a language that is typically produced by non-native speakers, usually second or foreign language learners who are in the process of learning a target language (e.g. Ellis, 1994; Richards, 1992). In principle, learners' language has a structural status between a native language and a target language. Learner language is neither the native language nor the target language. Sometimes, it is referred to as a third language with its own structures.

Interlanguage usually contains different language systems that make it distinct from the native and the target languages. Richards (1992) lists three major causes to explain this phenomenon. Firstly, learners might borrow language structures from their native language. Secondly, learners might over-extend language structures of the target language. Thirdly, learners might express meaning by their possibly limited knowledge of the target language they have already acquired. In reference to these assumptions, the interlanguage might be viewed as a developmental acquisition of the target language. The pathway of learner language acquisition and development is also possibly interfered with by their native language and culture.

2.1.2.1.1 Scope of Interlanguage Pragmatics

Kasper and Rose (2002) argue that within the domain of second language studies, pragmatics is usually seen as the interlanguage pragmatics (henceforth ILP). Like Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993), Kasper and Rose (2002) view the ILP as a second-generation hybrid, which belongs to two disciplines: (i) the second-language acquisition (SLA) and (ii) the pragmatics. The main focus of ILP in SLA is on linguistic actions in contexts acquired and produced by second or foreign language learners who have already acquired at least one fully pragmatic competence of their native language (Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983).

In a narrow sense, there are two frameworks that underlie the ILP: (i) the framework of pragmatic competence (e.g. Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983) and (ii) the framework of second-language acquisition. The former refers to non-native speakers' pragmatic knowledge underlying an appropriate and polite production and/or comprehension of a speech act in a target language. The latter refers to non-native speakers' acquisition, use, and comprehension of speech acts in a target language. The former framework underlies the scope of this ILP study on disagreement (i.e. to investigate what politeness strategies Thai EFL learners choose and how the strategies are realized in a comparison with native speakers of Thai and native speakers of English). The framework of SLA, however, is not used as an underlying framework in this study because the learners' developmental stages are not examined. It is therefore beyond the scope of this study.

2.1.2.1.2 Contributions to the Present Study

With regard to the scope of the ILP in this present study, learners' language acquisition can be interfered with by their native language and culture. This is the result from similarities and differences between the target language and the native language that has been previously acquired. Such interference contributes to the concept of 'transfer.' In the interlanguage pragmatic study, one of the focal attentions lies in the pragmatic transfer. Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990, p. 50) define the pragmatic transfer as 'the transfer of L1 sociocultural competence in comprehending and producing speech acts in a target language.' In short, the performance of disagreements in the target language can be influenced by previously acquired L1 pragmatic knowledge.

The learners' L1 pragmatic knowledge may influence their performance of disagreements in L2. The influences have potential to generate pragmatic transfer. There are two kinds of pragmatic transfer: (i) positive pragmatic transfer, and (ii) negative pragmatic transfer. The former is a result of similar pragmatic knowledge between L1 and L2, while the latter is a result of different pragmatic knowledge between L1 and L2. Following Leech (1983), Thomas (1983) and Kasper (1992), pragmatic transfer consists of (i) the pragmalinguistic transfer and (ii) the sociopragmatic transfer. The former refers to the transfer of L2 linguistic resources to perform the disagreements in English−positive pragmalinguistic transfer, or the transfer of L1 linguistic resources to express the disagreements in English−negative pragmalinguistic transfer. The latter refers to the transfer of L2 social perceptions underlying the performance of disagreement in English−negative sociopragmatic transfer, or the transfer of L1 social perceptions underlying the expressions of disagreement in English−negative sociopragmatic transfer. Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993, pp. 3-17) suggests that to examine the learners' pragmatic transfer, the cross-cultural pragmatic subfield should also be taken into account. The results from native speakers of Thai and native speakers of English can be used as a baseline for detecting instances of positive and negative pragmatic transfer in this ILP study.

2.1.2.2 Cross-Cultural Pragmatics

Throughout several centuries, the concept of culture has been addressed in the area of second-language acquisition (Hall, 1976; Hofstede, 1991, 2001; Larson & Smalley, 1972). Culture is loosely defined as a way of life (D. H. Brown, 2000; Larson & Smalley, 1972). Culture is assumed to have great impacts on people's linguistic behaviors and tends to direct people towards their socio-cultural conventions. As a result, doing a particular thing in one culture is acceptable, but unacceptable in another culture.

Hofstede (1991, 2001) refers to the concept of culture as 'the software of the human mind.' This mental software affects many aspects of human activities, including the use of language. Hofstede (1991, 2001) claims that social environment and life experience have also developed and established the human's mental software. Due to the fact that people across different cultures experience different social environments and have different life experiences, people's behaviors of one culture

are thus likely to be divergent from those in other cultures. Wierzbicka (1991) writes her introduction of the cross-cultural pragmatic study contending that people of different cultures speak in different ways. It is not primarily because people living in different cultures speak in different linguistic codes, but the ways the codes are used are different from culture to culture. In other words, people's linguistic behaviors are different from one particular culture to another. This principle gives rise to another sub-field of pragmatics, which is the cross-cultural pragmatics (cf. Katriel, 1986; Ochs, 1976; Schiffrin, 1984; Tannen, 1981; Wierzbicka, 1985, 1991).

2.1.2.2.1 Scope of Cross-Cultural Pragmatics

The core principle of cross-cultural pragmatics is to explore people's linguistic behaviors across cultures. The exploration of linguistic behaviors across cultures aims to find out universality and culture-specification of linguistic behaviors. According to Wierzbicka (1991, p. 69), the cross-cultural pragmatic study is rooted in four beliefs, summarized as follows;

1. In different societies and different communities, people speak differently.
2. These differences in ways of speaking are profound and systematic.
3. These differences reflect different cultural values, or at least different hierarchies of values.
4. Different ways of speaking or different communicative styles can be explained and made sense of in terms of independently established different cultural values and cultural priorities.

The above claims show that native speakers of different communities (broadly speaking, in different countries) tend to speak differently from one another. Their different communicative styles are systematic and can be described. In this present study, the cross-cultural pragmatics concerns how native speakers of Thai and native speakers of English perform disagreements in their native languages. Based on the aforementioned beliefs, it is surmised that the ways in which native speakers of Thai disagree with their lecturer in Thai should be different from disagreements expressed in English by native speakers of English.

2.1.2.2.2 Contributions to the Present Study

With reference to the scope of the cross-cultural pragmatics, I review Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture that illustrates why people from different countries tend to speak differently. Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture has been

widely used as a starting point in several cross-cultural studies (e.g. Phukanchana, 2004; Prykarpatska, 2008; Walkinshaw, 2009). Even though there is a lot of criticism on its reliability and variability, it preliminarily offers an understanding of why people from different countries possess different linguistic behaviors.

Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture comprises four cultural dimensions: (i) Power Distance Index (PDI), (ii) Collectivism and Individualism (IDV), (iii) Femininity and Masculinity (MAS), and (iv) Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI). The PDI includes the assumption that all individuals in societies are not equally treated. Less powerful members expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. The IDV involves the definition of self-image between 'I' and 'We.' In individualist countries, people are supposed to look after themselves while people in the collectivist countries belong to a group of the society. The MAS is divided into (i) masculinity and (ii) femininity. The former refers to a country that is driven by competition, achievement, and success, whereas the latter refers to a country whose dominant values in the society are caring for others and the quality of life. The UAI treats the future as a mystery−it can never be known. This dimension indicates that the members of a country may feel threatened by an unknown future and thus attempt to avoid involvement in future uncertainty.

The above dimensions are discussed in many cross-cultural pragmatic studies on speech acts (e.g. Deephuengton, 1992; Phukanchana, 2004; Prykarpatska, 2008; Walkinshaw, 2007, 2009). Prykarpatska (2008), for example, studies cross-cultural pragmatics of complaints in her native language of Ukrainian, and American English. Part of her literature review covers the model of American English culture. Based on Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture, Prykarpatska (2008) adopts the figures from Hofstede (1991, 2001) to describe some stereotypes of the American people. These figures are PDI = 40 percent, IDV = 91 percent, MAS = 62 percent, and UAI = 46 percent. Prykarpatska (2008) outlines some stereotypes for the American people based on the figures taken from Hofstede (1991, 2001) that American people typically value personal independence as their paramount importance. They do not recognize authority. Their society is relatively egalitarian as opposed to hierarchical societies. People in the American culture are competitive and ambitious. In communication, they tend to be direct with communicative means of explicit wordings and gestures.

The dimensions of culture according to Hofstede (1991, 2001) are also applicable to Thai cultural structures. The representing figures, however, are significantly different from those in the American culture. Phukanchana (2004, pp. 7-9) uses these dimensions to describe Thai people's stereotypes. Phukanchana (2004) adopts the figures from Hofstede (1991, 2001) to explain the characteristics of Thai people. These figures are PDI = 64 percent, IDV = 20 percent, MAS = 34 percent, and UAI = 64 percent. According to Phukanchana's (2004) interpretation of these figures, Thai people typically place high values on deference to ranking and respect for authority. In Thai culture, social harmonies are strongly emphasized. People normally respect one another and tend to avoid having conflicts. Thai people often avoid uncertainty, which might embarrass them. In most cases, they are humble and prefer not to criticize others' opinions.

In relation to the native speakers of Thai and native speakers of English as research participants in my study, I adopt these figures according to Hofstede (1991,

2001) and convert them into a bar graph, comparing native speakers of Thai with two groups of native speakers of English−American English and Canadian English. The two groups of native speakers of English are relatively similar to each other in terms of their models of culture. In comparison with native speakers of English, however, the model of culture of native speakers of Thai has a completely different structure, as shown in Figure 2.2.

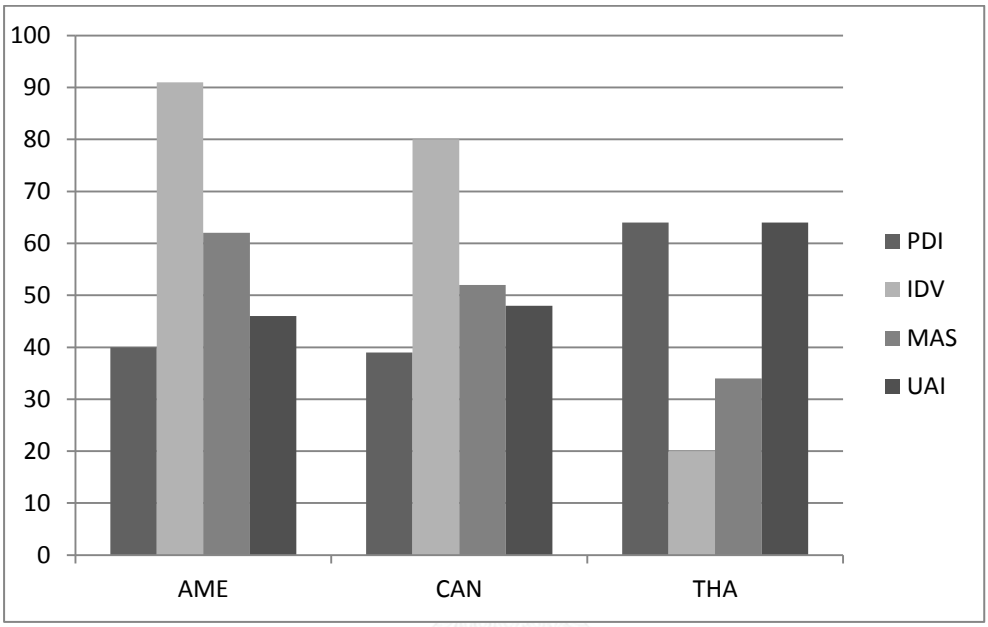


Figure 2.2: Models of Culture in English-Speaking Countries and Thailand

The graph depicts that the typical characteristics of native speakers of English−Americans and Canadians−are relatively similar. If Hofstede's (1991, 2001) belief that people's linguistic behaviors are affected by these representing figures is reliable, it is more probable that Americans and Canadians will behave in a similar manner. It is clearly discernible that Thai people will behave differently from both groups of native speakers of English based on their models of culture.

In conclusion, the representation of these figures may provide a blueprint for developing cross-cultural awareness that native speakers of English are broadly different from native speakers of Thai in terms of their linguistic behaviors. However, the use of this model of culture by no means encourages generalizations based on Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture. Instead, the above discussion aims to describe people at the surface level. Hofstede (1991, 2001) himself insists that social environment and life experience are key factors that have potential to influence people's linguistic behaviors. Therefore, differences can be found not only across cultures but also within the same culture.

2.1.3 Speech Acts

Austin (1962) studies the meaning of a language when it is used in a context. He rejects the idea that language is exclusively used to convey pieces of information. Austin believes that 'Saying is part of doing' or 'Words are connected to action.' This influential principle has led to the emergence of the Speech Act Theory according to Searle (1979). In this section, Austin's (1962) developmental concepts of speech acts and Searle's (1979) speech act theory are discussed.

2.1.3.1 Austin's (1962) Concepts of Speech Acts

Austin (1962) develops several concepts on the study of speech acts. In the following sections, three topics in relation to the study of speech acts introduced by Austin (1962) are mentioned. They are (i) constative and performative dichotomy, (ii) three dimensions of speech acts, and (iii) Austin's (1962) speech act typology.

2.1.3.1.1 Constative and Performative Dichotomy

This dichotomy distinguishes two types of utterances, which are constative and performative utterances. A constative utterance is used to describe facts−propositions; it can be said to be true or false, as shown in (1).

(1) Huang is a pragmatist.

In the truth-conditional sense, the proposition (1) can be said, whether true or false. Its truth value is true if and only if Huang is a pragmatist. However, it is insignificant to identify its truth value. Austin (1962) calls the utterance of assertion or statement in (1) the constative utterance. It explicitly aims to convey pieces of information or to describe something. Austin's (1962) discussion of the constative utterances stays in contrast with the performative utterances. The performative utterances do not have a truth condition. They are uttered to perform an act or to create a state of affairs, as depicted in (2).

(2) I promise to give you a good grade.

The above utterance is not constative. Instead, it is used to perform an action. Austin (1962) argues that the truth conditions cannot be verified in the above

utterance. Instead, it contains a success condition, which can be said whether its success value is successful or unsuccessful; happy or unhappy; felicitous or infelicitous. Austin (1962) further divides the performative utterances into two sub-categories: (i) the explicit versus (ii) the implicit performatives.

The explicit performative refers to an utterance with a performative verb that makes explicit what type of speech act is being performed (e.g. I promise I will be at the airport before 4 a.m. tomorrow.) With the performative verb of 'promise', it can be objectively identified that the utterance performs the act of promising. On the other hand, the implicit performative refers to an utterance without a performative verb. Although there is no verb of 'promise', the act of promising can be successfully performed (e.g. I will be at the airport before 4 a.m. tomorrow).

2.1.3.1.2 Three Dimensions of Speech Acts

Austin (1962) points out that all types of speech acts contain three facets of meaning, which consist of the literal meaning, the speaker's intended meaning, and the effect on the addressee. The three layers of meaning are described as three dimensions of acts, which are (i) the locutionary act, (ii) the illocutionary act, and (iii) the perlocutionary act respectively. To illustrate the three dimensions of speech acts, I offer a realization of an indirect request in (3) to describe the three acts in details.

(3) The room is very hot.

Locutionary	The literal meaning	Saying something meaningful
Illocutionary	The speaker's intended meaning	The act of a request
Perlocutionary	The effect on the addressee	Influence on the addressee to turn on an air-conditioner

Table 2.3: Three Dimensions of an Indirect Request

Regarding to the locutionary act, the literal meaning of the above utterance is meant to say that the room the speaker and possibly the addressee are concurrently staying in is very hot. A second layer of the speaker's intended meaning associates with the speaker's purpose in mind. The illucotionary act of the above realization can be used to perform (i) an indirect request, (ii) a warning of threat, (iii) a complaint, or even (iv) a disagreement with the preceding utterance insisting that the room is not hot. The above interpretations of the same locutionary act may generate various illocutionary forces, and each of these possibilities is called the 'illocutionary act potential.' The third facet of the speech act−the perlocutionary effect−is a certain influence on the addressee. The speaker does not have full control over the

addressee's perlocutionary effect because it depends on how the illocutionary force is interpreted by the addressee.

2.1.3.1.3 Austin's Speech Act Typology

Austin (1962) provides a preliminary discussion of his speech act typology. It appears in the closing chapter of the book entitled *How to do things with words*. His speech act typology consists of five classifications: (i) verdictives (i.e. to exercise judgement), (ii) exercitives (i.e. to exercise power or exert influence), (iii) commissives (i.e. to assume obligation or declare intention), (iv) behabitives (i.e. to adopt attitude and express feeling), and (v) expositives (i.e. to classify reasons or argument). Austin (1962) provides a speech act typology as a blueprint to classify speech acts into certain categories. Based on Austin's (1962) concepts of speech acts, Searle (1979) develops his speech act theory.

2.1.3.2 Searle's (1979) Speech Act Theory

Following Austin's (1962) lectures and publication of *How to do things with words*, Searle (1979) continues to strengthen and systematize Austin's concepts of speech acts. A lot of Searle's (1979) contributions have led to the emergence of the Speech Act Theory. In this section, three major contributions by Searle are discussed. They are (i) Searle's speech act taxonomy, (ii) felicity conditions, and (iii) indirect speech acts.

2.1.3.2.1 Searle's (1979) Speech Act Typology

Austin's (1962) preliminary typology of speech acts contains a few weaknesses. One of the weaknesses is the overlap between the classes (i.e. Austin classifies the same speech act in two different classifications). Searle (1979) argues that this weakness should be improved. Although there are five types of speech acts in Searle's (1979) taxonomy, they are not identical to those earlier introduced by Austin (1962). Searle's speech act taxonomy comprises (i) representatives, (ii) directives, (iii) commissives, (iv) expressives, and (v) declarations.

Firstly, the representatives are speech acts that commit the speaker to the truth of an expressed proposition, and thus carry a truth-value. They express the speaker's belief. Its direction to fit is 'Words-to-World' (i.e. when the illocutionary act is satisfied, its propositional content fits a state of affairs existing in the world). Examples of speech acts in the representatives are asserting, claiming, admitting, confessing, informing, concluding, reporting, reminding, and notifying.

Secondly, the directives are speech acts that represent attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something. Its direction to fit is 'World-to-Words' (i.e. when the illocutionary act is satisfied, the world is transformed to fit the propositional content. The responsibility for achieving the success of fit is assigned to the hearer.)

Examples of speech acts in the directives are advice, demands, commands, orders, questions, and requests.

Thirdly, the commissives are speech acts that commit the speaker to some future course of action. They express the speaker's intention to do something. Its direction to fit is 'World-to-Words' (i.e. when the illocutionary act is satisfied, the world is transformed to fit the propositional content. The responsibility for achieving the success of fit is assigned to the speaker.) Examples of speech acts in the commissives are offers, pledges, promises, refusals, threats, swears, and vows.

Fourthly, the expressives are the speech acts that express a psychological attitude or state in the speaker such as joy, sorrow, and likes or dislikes. The expressive does not have any direction to fit in that there is no question of success or failure of fit, and their propositional content is in general presupposed to be true. Examples of speech acts in the expressives are apologizing, blaming, congratulating, deploring, welcoming, praising, and thanking.

Lastly, the declarations are the speech acts that effect immediate changes in some current state of affairs. In performing this type of speech act, the speaker brings about changes in the world; that is, he or she affects a correspondence between the propositional content and the world. The speech acts in this classification fall into both directions of fit; 'Words-to-World' and 'World-to-Words.' Examples of speech acts in the declarations are bidding a bridge, declaring war, firing from employment, nominating a candidate, approving a project, blessing a marriage couple, christening, and naming a ship.

2.1.3.2.2 Searle's Felicity Conditions

Searle (1969) proposes four conditions that the speech acts should meet in order to be successful. These conditions are (i) propositional content conditions, (ii) preparatory conditions, (iii) sincerity conditions, and (iv) essential conditions. To understand these conditions better, the scope of these conditions is discussed with an example of the speech act of promising.

Considering the following utterance '*I promise to give a good grade*', which is an explicit performative uttered to perform the act of promising, it can be said whether it is successful or unsuccessful. In order to say so, we need to consider the act of promising in reference to Searle's four felicity conditions. Table 2.4 describes the felicity conditions for a promise.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">Felicity Conditions for a Promise</th></tr>
<tr><td>1</td><td>Propositional Content Conditions</td><td colspan="2">There has to be a proposition used with the content of the promise.
I promise to <u>give you a good grade</u>. (the content of the promise)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">2</td><td rowspan="2">Preparatory Conditions</td><td rowspan="2">The promise must be about</td><td>the event beneficial to the addressee, otherwise it would be a warning or threat.
? I promise to give you a bad grade.
(This is uttered during the course of lecturing and many students do not pay attention to the lecture.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>the event that is going to happen anyway.
? I promise to grade your final exam.
(Like every semester, before the end of this semester, all students have to take the final exam.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>Sincerity Conditions</td><td colspan="2">The promiser must have an intention to make a promise.
It is implicated that the speaker has an intention to give the addressee a good grade.</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>Essential Conditions</td><td colspan="2">The promiser must have the awareness of putting him/herself under an obligation to perform the action.
It is obligated that the promiser must give the addressee a good grade.</td></tr>
</table>

Table 2.4: Felicity Conditions for a Promise

If the speech act of promise is correctly performed in that the felicity conditions are satisfied, it is permissible to say that the act of promising is successful, happy, and felicitous. If, however, one of the felicity conditions is not fulfilled, the act of a promise is thus considered unsuccessful, unhappy, and infelicitous.

2.1.3.2.3 Indirect Speech Acts

Another contribution by Searle (1969, 1975) is ‘indirect speech acts.’ Searle (1969, 1975) selects an Austinian topic of the illocutionary act and contributes to the study of indirect speech acts. Universally speaking, most human languages contain three types of basic sentences, which are (i) the declarative, (ii) the interrogative, and (iii) the imperative. These types of sentences are distinguishable by syntactic structures, as illustrated in Table 2.5.

Realization	Sentence Type
You ate it.	Declarative
Did you eat it?	Interrogative
Eat it now!	Imperative

Table 2.5: Sentence Types in English

Searle (1969, 1975) points out that the three sentence types are typically associated with different illocutionary forces, as shown in Table 2.6;

Realization	Sentence Type	Illocutionary Force
You ate it.	Declarative	Asserting or Stating
Did you eat it?	Interrogative	Asking or Questioning
Eat it now!	Imperative	Ordering or Requesting

Table 2.6: Direct Speech Acts

If a sentence type directly matches with an illocutionary force as illustrated in Table 2.6, a direct speech act will be the result. Chances are that a direct correlation between the sentence type and the illocutionary force may not occur. For example, the interrogative may not always be associated with the illocutionary force of asking or questioning. This produces an indirect speech act, as presented in Table 2.7.

Realization	Sentence Type	Illocutionary Force
Can you close the window?	Interrogative	Asking or Questioning
Close the window!	Imperative	Ordering or Requesting

Table 2.7: Indirect Speech Act of a Request

‘Can you close the window?’ as suggested by its sentence type of an interrogative should contain the illocutionary force of asking or questioning someone. The interrogative may require an answer from the addressee whether he or she has an ability to close the window (e.g. Yes, I have an ability to close the window., or No, I do not have any ability to close the window.). However, the above question does not aim to elicit a direct answer. Instead, the speaker performs an indirect speech act of request. In other words, the speaker’s intended meaning is to make a request to the addressee to close the window. The mismatch between the sentence type and the illocutionary force produces a conventional indirect speech act.

As opposed to the conventional indirect speech acts, Searle (1969, 1975) introduces the non-conventional indirect speech acts. This particular type of indirectness is not associated with any correlations between sentence types and illocutionary forces. In other words, it is not associated with conventional patterns. Searle (1969, 1975) suggests that this type of indirectness must be calculated by the speakers (see example (4)).

(4) Speaker A: Do you want to join the party tonight?

Speaker B: I have to study for the exam.

Based on example (4), Speaker A has to calculate whether Speaker B's response is a performance of an indirect refusal of an invitation or to express the constative utterance to describe the fact that Speaker B has to study for the exam tonight.

With reference to the discussed concepts based on Austin's (1962) speech acts and Searle's (1979) speech act theory, I turn to discuss the speech act of disagreement in the light of Searle's (1969, 1975) speech act theory.

2.1.4 The Speech Act of Disagreement

The disagreement speech act is different from other types of speech acts such as a request, a complaint, an offer, an apology, or a promise because the disagreement is responsive, which requires a prior utterance from a conversational partner (Sornig, 1977, p. 364). Without a preceding utterance, the responsive utterance may not function as a disagreement. Therefore, disagreements in this current study are examined within the discourse analysis framework, where naturally-occurring data display talk exchanges between the student and the lecturer. In accordance with Searle's (1969, 1975) speech act theory, there are four discussions in the next section: (i) disagreement in Searle's speech act typology, (ii) felicity conditions for disagreement, (iii) disagreement and indirectness, and (iv) disagreement in cross-cultural pragmatics.

2.1.4.1 Disagreement in Searle's Speech Act Typology

There are five types of speech acts in Searle's (1969, 1975) typology; namely declarations, representatives, expressives, directives, and commissives. Liu (2004, p. 27) points out that disagreement is not a directive or commissive according to Searle's (1969, 1975) typology, Kieu (2006) declares that the classification of disagreement can fit in the representatives in Searle's (1969, 1975) typology. Kieu's (2006) uses

Yule's (1996) summary to refer to Searle's (1969, 1975) speech act typology. The summary does not only describe 'the direction to fit' but also includes the relationship between the speaker and the situation. Yule (1996, p. 55) initially points out that the representative has the Words-to-World direction of fit (i.e. when the illocutionary act is satisfied, its propositional content fits a state of affairs existing in the world). The disagreements may not have the propositional content condition in that they can be realized without the propositional content (e.g. *No*, *I disagree*, *I don't think so*, and *I don't think like that*). The successful performance of disagreements can also have the propositional content (e.g. *No*, *it's wrong*. *I disagree*, *the idea is not practical*.) to show a contradictory opinion. When the propositional content is applied, the direction to fit 'Words-to-World' can describe the proposition content. Yule (1996) claims that when the speakers perform the disagreements, they believe in the situation. In a similar fashion, Rees-Miller's (2000) explicates that to express the disagreements both the speaker and the addressee should initially have different beliefs. Her definition is as follows;

> A Speaker (*S*) disagrees when he or she considers untrue some Proposition (*P*) uttered or presumed to be espoused by an Addressee (*A*) and reacts with an utterance the propositional content or implicature of which is *Not P*.

That is to say, the speaker (S) initially considers the preceding proposition (P) produced by the addressee (A) inappropriate. Then S utters another P that is different from the preceding P to display the disagreement. This is because S believes that the preceding P is inappropriate but believes that his or her P is more appropriate. The following is example (5) shows disagreement taken from a radio interview produced by the U.S. President Bill Clinton when he was interviewed about the war in Iraq. This radio interview illustrates that the President does not believe that the radio interviewer's opinion is appropriate.

(5) Goodman: 1 ˆPresident Clinton uh ˆUN figures show that up to=
2 =ˆ5,000 children a month die in Iraq because of the,
3 uh ˆsanction [against Iraq.]

Clinton: 4 [that's not true.]
5 that's ˆnot true.
6 and that's ˆnot what they show.
7 ˆlet me just ˆtell you something.
8 ˆbefore the sanctions
9 the year before the Gulf War? ((CONT.))

Locher (2004, p. 294)

In turns 4, 5 and 6, the President expresses his different beliefs three times. These beliefs are different from what is initially addressed by Goodman. This example shows that the President expresses three utterances to disagree with the preceding proposition which is considered inappropriate. The President's utterances in turns 4, 5 and 6 are not only used to describe the statement of fact, but also to perform the disagreements.

2.1.4.2 Felicity Conditions for Disagreement

Huang (2007, pp. 104-105) asserts that 'Just as its truth conditions must be met by the world for a sentence to be said to be true, its felicity conditions must be fulfilled by the world for a speech act to be said to be felicitous.' Liu (2004, pp. 27-28) argues that the disagreement may not be describable by the felicity conditions similarly to the speech act of promising in that the act of promising has four felicity conditions (the propositional content conditions, the preparatory conditions, the sincerity conditions, and the essential conditions). Unlike the speech act of promise, the speech act of disagreement does not necessarily have four felicity conditions. Below, the felicity conditions for disagreement are proposed based on Searle's felicity conditions for speech acts (see Table 2.8).

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Felicity Conditions for Disagreement</th></tr>
<tr><td>1</td><td>Propositional Content Conditions</td><td>N/A</td><td colspan="2">Unlike the promising, the disagreement does not necessarily have its propositional content conditions. For example, No, I disagree, I don't think so, and I don't think like that.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">2</td><td rowspan="2">Preparatory Conditions</td><td rowspan="2">Yes</td><td rowspan="2">The disagreement must be about</td><td>the speaker believes the preceding utterance is inappropriate or inaccurate.
If the speaker does not believe the preceding utterance to be inaccurate, he will not utter, "That's not true."</td></tr>
<tr><td>the speaker's utterance must be opposite to and different from the preceding utterance.
A: 5,000 children a month die in Iraq because of the, uh sanction [against Iraq.]
B: [that's not true. Absolutely not.]</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>Sincerity Conditions</td><td>Yes</td><td colspan="2">The speaker wants the hearer to know that they both have different thoughts, feelings and emotions.
It is implicated that the speaker wants the hearer to know that the reported figure is incorrect.</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>Essential Conditions</td><td>Yes</td><td colspan="2">The utterance counts as an attempt by the speaker to have the hearer recognize that the speaker's thoughts, feelings and emotions are different from the hearer's.
It is obligated that the speaker must indicate a difference or an opposition.</td></tr>
</table>

Table 2.8: Felicity Conditions for Disagreement

In order to make the speech act of disagreement felicitous, the above felicity conditions for disagreement, namely; (ii) the preparatory conditions, (iii) the sincerity conditions, and (iv) the essential conditions must be met. The propositional content conditions may be applicable or inapplicable in the speech act of disagreement.

2.1.4.3 Disagreement and Indirectness

Brown and Levinson (1987), and Tannen and Kakava (1992) declare that the disagreement is a face-threatening act and has potential to threaten the addressee's

positive face. With an attempt to avoid threatening the addressee's positive face, the speaker can (i) avoid disagreeing (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983), or (ii) use politeness strategies to minimize the threat of disagreements (Kakava, 2002; Rees-Miller, 2000; Walkinshaw, 2007, 2009). The strategies can range from softening to strengthening. One of the softening strategies is to utter not P indirectly. This strategy can decrease the threat of disagreements through implicit realizations. Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 211-227) categorize the use of indirectness under off-record politeness strategies.

Thomas (1995, pp. 120-121) supports that there are at least five reasons to explain why people produce the locutionary acts as indirectly as possible. They are (i) the speaker wishes to avoid hurting someone else, (ii) the speaker wants to avoid appearing aggressive, (iii) the speaker wants to show how clever they are, (iv) the speaker wishes to avoid a taboo word or topic, and (v) the speaker does not know about something clearly and thus avoids speaking about it directly. In the classroom context where the students are inferior to the lecturer in terms of their power status, it is hypothesized that there are two major reasons according to Thomas (1995) to motivate them to disagree with their lecturer implicitly: (i) the students wish to avoid hurting their lecturer, and (ii) the students want to avoid appearing aggressive.

Dascal (1983) points out that the indirect expression for any speech acts is risky and costly. It is risky because the speaker's intended meaning may be misperceived or misinterpreted. The locutionary act of an indirect realization may have various illocutionary forces. These illocutionary act potentials may bring about different perlocutionary effects on the addressee. Thus, it is more likely that misinterpretations can easily take place. Realizations of indirect strategies can be costly because it requires a great deal of effort and possibly high level of language proficiency to realize the strategies indirectly and implicitly. In this current study, the amount of exposure time to English as a medium of instruction is expected to influence the Thai EFL learners' abilities to use English. The Thai EFL learners who were exposed to English as a medium of instruction in all classes throughout the curriculum were expected to use indirect strategies more frequently than the other group of Thai EFL learners who was exposed to English in four courses. This expectation is based on the assumption that the expression of implied disagreements is risky and costly.

2.1.4.4 Disagreement in Cross-Cultural Pragmatics

Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 65-68) name disagreement as an intrinsic face-threatening act (henceforth the FTA), having the potential to threaten the addressee's positive face. It is said to be an FTA because when the speaker disagrees with the addressee, they both do not have the same opinion (Liu, 2004, p. 32). To express a contradictory opinion, the addressee's face can be easily jeopardized. In relation to the speech act of disagreement, Brown and Levinson (1987) describe two strategies to be used to avoid disagreeing with others: (i) seek for an agreement, and (ii) avoid disagreeing with others. Leech (1983), in addition, proposes a set of maxims to avoid disagreements. His 'Agreement Maxim' encourages the speaker to maintain a

social affiliation by increasing the agreement between self and others, but decreasing the disagreement between self and others. With the presence of these strategies, it can be reasonably assumed that the disagreement is universally dispreferred.

Wierzbicka (1991, pp. 68-69) studies Leech's (1983) 'Agreement Maxim' in different cultures. Her study reports that the disagreement speech act is not necessarily dispreferred across all languages and cultures. To strengthen the claim, an example from Schiffrin (1984) displaying that the disagreement can be considered preferred in some particular culture is shown. Example (7) demonstrates that the Jewish-American people value their disagreement as a marker of sociability and it does not have a potential to damage their social affiliations.

(7) Debby (to husband and wife): Have you travelled very much outside of Philadelphia?

Wife: No, I think as far as we got was Canada.

[three turns later]

Husband (to wife): Um…we just went to Kuch's, what the hell do you mean we don't travel?

Schiffrin (1984, p. 317)

Based on my personal judgment, example (7) seems to be an indication of violation when I first came across this short talk exchange. It is unacceptable to disagree with whomever in this manner. Potentially, this expression of disagreement can be considered rude. However, from the cross-cultural pragmatic perspectives, it cannot be over-generalized that all cultures negatively value the performance of disagreement as violations. In the Jewish-American culture, people's solidarity can be strengthened through the expression of disagreement (cf. Schiffrin, 1984). If the expression of disagreement is preferred, wanted, and allowed, the role of politeness strategies can be minimal. By contrast, if the expression of disagreement is dispreferred, unwanted, and disallowed, the role of politeness strategies will be important. In the following section, the politeness theory is delineated.

2.1.5 Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory

This current study initially adopts the politeness theory from Brown and Levinson (1987) to illustrate the politeness strategies Thai EFL learners use when they disagree with their lecturer in the classroom context. Although there are various politeness theories, this current study primarily relies on Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. It is because Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory can well explain the data of this current study in that their theory focuses on the

speaker rather than on the addressee (cf. Watts, 2003). Secondly, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory provides sufficient details that allow real-language data to be tested cross-culturally and empirically. In other words, Brown and Levinson (1987) provide extensive examples that researchers can check against their own materials. These examples describe how politeness strategies can be realized. As a result, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory is chiefly used throughout the study. In the following sections, the concepts of a model person, five possible sets of politeness strategies, linguistic and extra-linguistic realizations of politeness, and criticisms about the politeness theory are presented.

2.1.5.1 The Concept of a Model Person

The politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987) is a production model that mainly focuses on how an individual uses linguistic and extra-linguistic means to maintain their social affiliations. An individual according to Brown and Levinson (1987) is referred to as a Model Person (MP). The MP is assumed to have at least two qualities: (i) the ability to rationalize and (ii) the ability to access levels of face-threat. In short, the MP should be able to choose an appropriate strategy as a means to satisfy his addressee's face wants as well as his or her own face wants.

The notion of face in Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory is borrowed from Goffman (1967) and redefined as '…something that is emotionally invested and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction' (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). Based on the borrowing concept of face, their theory is thus known as the face-saving theory. Brown and Levinson (1987) contend that every MP has two kinds of face: (i) a positive face and (ii) a negative face. The former is the individuals' desire to have their wants appreciated and approved, while the latter is the individuals' desire to have freedom from imposition.

2.1.5.2 Five Possible Sets of Politeness Strategies

Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest five possible sets of politeness strategies. They are (i) 'Do the FTA baldly with no redressive action' (i.e. to perform the disagreement explicitly with no mitigation), (ii) 'Do the FTA with redressive action with positive politeness strategies' (i.e. to mitigate the threat of disagreement aiming to satisfy the addressee's want to be liked), (iii) 'Do the FTA with redressive action with negative politeness strategies' (i.e. to mitigate the threat of disagreement aiming to satisfy the addressee's want to be free from imposition), (iv) 'Go off-record' (i.e. to perform the disagreement implicitly), and (v) 'Don't do the FTA' (i.e. do not use any linguistic means to perform the disagreement). Below, these possible sets of politeness strategies are re-presented in Figure 2.3, ranking from the least polite−number 1−to the most polite−number 5.

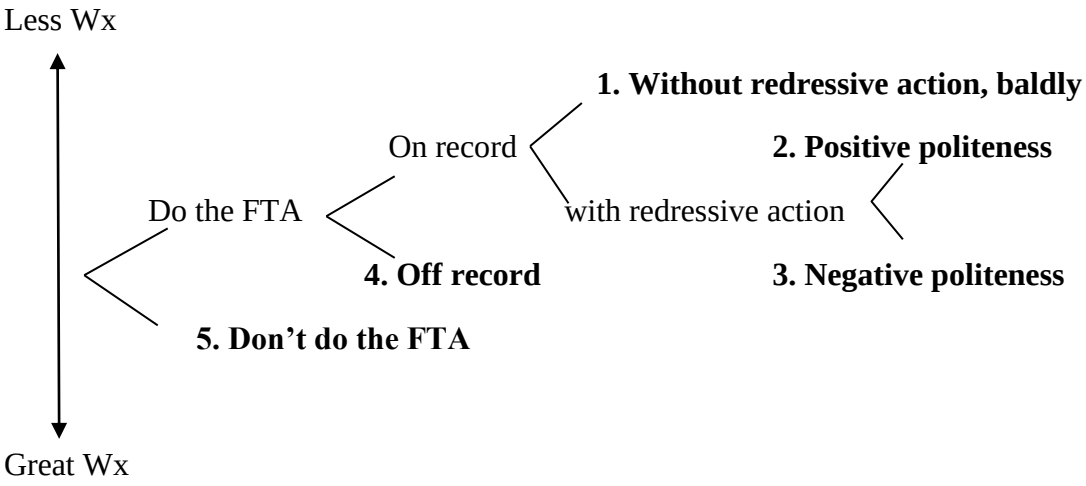


Figure 2.3: Brown and Levinson's (1987, p. 60) Politeness Strategies

A selection of politeness strategies is dependent on what Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 76-84) call socio-cultural variables, consisting of the power (P), the social distance (D), and the ranking of imposition (R). The first variable refers to the power that the addressee has over the speaker. The second variable refers to the social distance between the speaker and the addressee. The last variable refers to the degree of social ranking of impositions. Brown and Levinson (1987) compute the degree of seriousness or weightiness of the FTA by accumulating the weightiness of these variables. The calculation is presented in a tangible formula:

$$\mathbf{Wx = D(S,H) + P(H,S) + Rx}$$

(Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 76)

In the formula, H stands for hearer, S for speaker. Wx represents the weightiness or seriousness of an FTA, D represents social distance between the interlocutors, P represents the degree of power that the hearer has over the speaker, and Rx represents the degree of imposition. If the value of the Wx of a particular speech act becomes great, it is more likely that the speaker will not do the FTA. If the value of Wx is small, conversely, the speaker may happen to do the FTA baldly with no redressive action.

2.1.5.3 Linguistic Realizations of Politeness Strategies

Based on the two qualities of the MP−the abilities to rationalize and to access levels of face risk, the MP chooses from an appropriate choice of politeness strategies to minimize the threat of a FTA. In order to achieve the selected strategies, the

speaker possibly uses linguistic means−verbal expressions−to construct and compound such expressions. There are four possible sets of politeness strategies; however, Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 94-227) provide extensive examples of linguistic realizations to explain four sets of politeness strategies−(i) bald on record strategies, (ii) positive politeness strategies, (iii) negative politeness strategies, and (iv) off record strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to these possible sets of politeness strategies as super-strategies. They provide plentiful examples of linguistic realizations of four possible sets of super-strategies such as (i) that's wrong; the gap should be bigger−bald on record strategy, (ii) A: That's where you live, Florida B: That's where I was born−avoid disagreement: positive politeness, (iii) I rather think it's hopeless−hedges: negative politeness, and (iv) perhaps someone did something naughty−be vague: off record strategy.

2.1.5.4 Extra-Linguistic Realizations of Politeness Strategies

In a broader communicative spectrum, the speaker can also use extra-linguistic means to satisfy his or her selected politeness strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 91-92) refer to these extra-linguistic means as paralinguistic and kinetic features. Although Brown and Levinson (1987) do not describe extra-linguistic means used to realize the strategies in great detail, they contend that the use of the extra-linguistic means cannot be omitted because their presence in an utterance contributes to additional meanings. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 92) point out that;

> "[a]lthough we refer, then, to this section of the paper as 'linguistic realizations', we have in mind also the broader communicative spectrum including paralinguistic and kinesic detail. But the apparatus for describing language is so much better developed that we organize our description around the linguistic categories. Nevertheless, it is interesting that many aspects of non-linguistic communicative behavior can be naturally accommodated in the same scheme."

The analysis of linguistic and extra-linguistic means is applicable in this current study. However, the major analysis focuses on linguistic realizations of politeness strategies, that is, how linguistic means are used to achieve disagreements. The major analysis is supported by the analyses of paralinguistic and non-verbal realizations. The transcriptions of these extra-linguistic features can be retrieved in Chapter 3. Although Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory has been widely used, it has been criticized a lot, particularly from cross-cultural perspectives that Brown and Levinson' (1987) politeness theory is more appropriate for the Anglo-Saxon culture, but not for the Asian culture (e.g. Gu, 1990; Intachakra, 2011; Matsumoto, 1988, 1993).

2.1.5.5 Criticisms on the Politeness Theory

Even though the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987) has been commonly used in many cross-cultural pragmatic-related studies, the model has also been widely criticized, particularly by scholars of non-Western cultures (e.g. Gu, 1990; Intachakra, 2011; Matsumoto, 1993). These scholars question its universal concept of face. Gu (1990), Intachakra (2011), and Matsumoto (1993) introduce their own politeness systems, particularly with a redefinition of the face concept in China, Japan and Thailand respectively. They conclude that Brown and Levinson's politeness theory cannot explain the politeness system, particularly the face concept in Asian cultures.

Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory focuses on how the Model Person (MP) selects an appropriate strategy to decline the level of threat to the addressee when performing the FTA. The focal attention in Brown and Levinson' politeness theory is on the notion of face. However, the Western-oriented concept of face deals with an individual's desire to have his own as well as the other's face recognized during their interaction. The above concept of face is counted appropriate only for the Euro-American culture (Doi, 1973; Ide, 1982, 1989; Mao, 1994; Matsumoto, 1988, 1993; Nakane, 1965, 1972). These claims have a potential to make the universality of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory questionable. Gu (1990) argues that the core principle of Chinese politeness integrates humility with regard to the self and the willingness to show respect to others. The politeness concepts in China are based on four different notions, namely; (i) respect, (ii) modesty, (iii) attitudinal warmth, and (iv) refinement. In a similar fashion, Matsumoto (1993) points out that the Japanese put their major concern with their position in relation to the others, which governs all social interactions in Japanese culture. The Japanese people are highly aware of their own position in relation to others because of their hierarchical social structure in which each of the individuals has different standings in relation to the others (e.g. more senior, more powerful etc.). In accordance with the selected Asian cultures, Kummer (2005) studies politeness in the Thai community and claims that Thai people typically seem to be very considerate in their behavior with politeness. Intachakra (2011) introduces an aspect of Thai politeness, /*kʰwa:mkre:ŋtɛaj*/, and declares that Thai politeness places much concern on the other's feelings, emotions and peace of mind. These definitions of politeness according to Asian scholars make it manifest that Brown and Levinson's politeness theory stands in opposition to Asian contexts.

The above notions seem to point to the fact that the Asian cultures do not look upon their politeness as strategies to deal with the speaker's face, but they frequently deal with the addressee's feelings in an attempt to sustain a harmonious relationship with the addressee. The concept of Asian politeness is based on hierarchical social structures, which is put under consideration when dealing with politeness. This difference makes Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory less apt to be accepted as a universal theory. Several scholars (e.g. Gu, 1990; Intachakra, 2011; Matsumoto, 1993) reveal some deficiencies that make Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory fragile.

Although the face concept in China, Japan and Thailand are claimed to be cross-culturally different from what has been defined in Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, Leech (2005) argues that Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory is sufficient to describe all politeness phenomena. Prior discussions of face concept in China, Japan, and Thailand have led to the conclusion that the face concept is rather culture-specific. However, the East and the West share similar patterns of politeness, for example, the appropriate language usage or polite forms of behaviors. Leech (2005) also points out that if the core principle of politeness differs from culture to culture, the concepts of politeness may be meaningless across languages and cultures.

Having discussed some theoretical background on (i) communicative competence, (ii) two subfields in pragmatics, (iii) speech acts, (iv) the speech act of disagreement, and (v) Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, I turn to review some related studies. In the following section, nine studies on disagreements, particularly when learners of English disagree with their lecturer in a classroom context, are reviewed.

2.2 Related Studies

In this section, I review eleven empirical studies related to disagreements. They were taken from Behnam and Niroomand (2011); Charoenroop (2015); Chen (2006); Choyimah and Latief (2014); Guodong and Jing (2005); Hong (2003); Kakava (2002); Liu (2004); Rees-Miller (2000); Walkinshaw (2009); and Xuehua (2006). All related studies can be divided into three categories according to their socio-cultural variables, affecting the performance of disagreements: (i) collectivist and individualist cultures, (ii) the lecturer power, and (iii) the learners' variables.

2.2.1 Collectivist and Individualist Cultures

Some cross-cultural pragmatic studies of disagreement began by reviewing Hofstede's (1991, 2001) cultural dimensions (e.g. Chen, 2006; Guodong & Jing, 2005; Walkinshaw, 2007, 2009). One of the four dimensions of Hofstede's (1991, 2001) culture model is the collectivist and individualist dichotomy. The following, among others, includes three different characteristics of people in collectivist and individualist cultures (Hofstede, 1991, p. 67) (see Table 2.9)

Collectivist Culture	Individualist Culture
People are born into extended families or other in-groups which protect them in exchange for loyalty.	People grow up to look after themselves and their immediate family only.
Identity is based on one's social network.	Identity is based on the individual.
Harmony should be maintained and direct confrontations should be avoided.	Speaking one's mind is a characteristic of an honest person.

Table 2.9: Key Differences between Collectivist and Individualist Cultures

The characteristics based on the collectivist or individualist culture are assumed to affect people's speech act behavior. More specifically, the collectivist and individualist cultures tend to affect the ways in which choices of politeness strategies are selected and realized in the disagreements. Four studies; (i) Guodong and Jing (2005), (ii) Chen (2006), (iii) Walkinshaw (2009), and (iv) Rees-Miller (2000) supported the above statement. These studies compared how the politeness strategies were realized in disagreements by people in the individualist cultures (e.g. the American English and the New Zealand English) and those from the collectivist cultures (e.g. the Chinese and the Japanese).

Guodong and Jing (2005) compared the realizations of politeness strategies used to express disagreements by native speakers of American English and native speakers of Mandarin Chinese. The American and Chinese cultures are examples of highly individualist versus collectivist communities. The participants were university students from the United States and Mainland China. Guodong and Jing (2005) used a written Discourse Completion Test (the written DCT) to collect data. One of the scenarios included the expressions of disagreement addressed to the lecturer where the lecturer questioned whether part of a candidate's thesis was taken from other people. She thought the candidate's ideas were not original. In fact, the candidate did not plagiarize. All ideas appearing in the thesis were the candidate's. The lecturer said "I'm sorry, but I don't think these ideas are yours." Guodong and Jing (2005) asserted that the individualism-oriented and the collectivism-oriented cultures have strong influences on the people's selections of politeness strategies and how they realize the strategies. The results indicated that the Chinese participants expressed their disagreement as indirectly and politely as possible. They tended to be more cooperative in maintaining group solidarity than the Americans. In addition, the Chinese participants employed varied address forms more frequently than the American participants when they disagreed with their lecturer. These address forms included the use of proper second-person pronouns, for example, "lao-shi" (teacher), "jiao-shou" (professor) and "dao-shi" (supervisor) to mitigate the degree of face-threats when the Chinese participants began to disagree with their lecturer.

Chen (2006) initially examined how Chinese EFL learners with different English proficiency levels performed the act of disagreement. There were four groups of samples in this study: (i) native speakers of Chinese, (ii) EFL Chinese learners who had lower English proficiency, (iii) EFL Chinese learners who had higher English

proficiency, and (iv) native speakers of American English. Chen (2006) used a written Discourse Completion Task (the written DCT) to collect data. The DCT consisted of 16 situations that were most likely to take place in school, for example, a lecturer suggested a certain topic for a report. The lecturer thought it was interesting and appropriate to the students. However, the students found the proposed topic uninteresting and they already had their topic. Results showed that native speakers of Chinese and American English realized their politeness strategies in a different manner. The Chinese participants typically chose the "Don't Do the FTAs" strategy, whereas the English participants normally chose the "Do the FTAs" strategy but they often realized the strategies with a redressive action. The Chinese participants' placed their concern on the notion of face, both their face and the lecturer's face. This emphasis led to the use of "no linguistic realizations." The Chinese participants valued social harmony and aimed to maintain interpersonal relationships. Unlike the Chinese participants, the American participants were more expressive and able to disagree with their lecturer.

Walkinshaw (2009) initially compared politeness strategies used by Japanese EFL learners who had just arrived in New Zealand less than three months before and native speakers of New Zealand English. There were 14 Japanese participants who were between the ages of 18 and 25. There were 10 native speakers of New Zealand English in the same age range who participated in this study. Walkinshaw (2009) used a written Discourse Completion Task (the written DCT) to elicit the participants' linguistic realizations to perform the disagreements and classified them according to the strategies used, ranging from non-mitigated strategies (e.g. the On-Record Strategy) to mitigated strategies (e.g. Positive Strategy, Negative Strategy and Off-Record Strategy). Results showed that the Japanese participants mitigated their realizations when they disagreed with their lecturer more often than the native speakers of New Zealand English. Walkinshaw (2009) declared that these differences were partly impacted by their cultural differences between collectivism and individualism.

Rees-Miller (2000) examined how American graduate students as representatives from the individualist culture performed the disagreements with their lecturer in the classroom context. Data were previously collected by means of audiotape recording in history and linguistics classes for 46.5 hours in total. The results showed that the American participants disagreed with their lecturer directly with only rare redressive actions, particularly when the lecturer made minor errors in front of the class. The severity of disagreements was not softened by any means of linguistic markers. The American participants perceived that their explicit realizations to perform the disagreements did not threaten their lecturer's face. The on-record strategy used in the classroom context was rather viewed as classroom participation than confrontation and aggressiveness.

To sum up, the results explained that the collectivism-individualism dichotomy might have potential to vary people's realizations of politeness strategies used to perform the disagreements. According to the studies, two conclusions can be reached: (i) people from the collectivist cultures tended to avoid disagreeing with the lecturer, diversely (ii) people from the individualist cultures tended to disagree with their lecturer. The present study examines what politeness strategies are chosen and

how the strategies are realized by two groups of people representing collectivist and individualist cultures. They are (i) a group of native speakers of Thai and (ii) two groups of native speakers of English from America and Canada.

2.2.2 The Lecturer Power

Several studies on disagreements performed by learners suggested that the lecturer power had influences on what politeness strategies the learners chose and how they realized the strategies. It is not a matter of how much power the lecturer has over the learners but also how the lecturer power is interpreted. In this section, there are three studies that discuss the lecturer power and its effects on the learners' selections of politeness strategies and realizations of the strategies. These studies belong to Hong (2003); Liu (2004); and Walkinshaw (2009).

Part of Hong's (2003) investigation of disagreements compared how Japanese and Korean graduate learners of English realized their politeness strategies to perform the act of disagreement in an online video conferencing class. Hong (2003) used the videotape recording to collect the naturally occurring data for 40 hours. Results indicated that the Korean learners rarely disagreed with others who were in a higher position such as the lecturer. The Korean participants often softened their realizations with the off-record strategy while the Japanese participants normally mitigated their realizations with the positive strategy in that they disagreed with their lecturer with humorous and playful tones. These learners interpreted the formality of the academic context and the lecturer powers in different fashions. The Korean participants perceived that the academic discussions were more hierarchical than interactive while the Japanese participants perceived them as more cooperative and supportive. More frequently, the Japanese participants disagreed with their lecturer through back-channeling, requesting for clarification and repetitions of the utterances. In addition, the Japanese participants were more cooperative and contributed to the discussion more than the Korean participants. Like the Korean participants, the Japanese participants were aware of their lecturers' higher academic status, competence and experience. In this regard, however, the Koreans tended to be more hesitant and preferred not to disagree with their lecturer.

Part of Liu's (2004) investigation was to examine politeness strategies native speakers of Chinese used to disagree with their Chinese lecturers. Liu (2004) selected 120 students and 120 lecturers from six universities in China. She used a written Discourse Completion Task (the written DCT) to collect the data and also used questionnaires, classroom observation, and interviews to collect data for the qualitative analysis to compensate her data from the written DCTs. Results showed that power relations influenced the learners' selections of politeness strategies and how the strategies were realized. In the Chinese higher education context, the learners softened their linguistic realizations as politely as possible to disagree with the lecturer (e.g. If you think it must be changed, I'll do it. All others do it in the same way as this. You're right, but…). Liu (2004, pp. 107-110) described five types of power that the lecturer in the Chinese higher education context held over their learners. They are in Liu's (2004) view, (i) knowledge (i.e. the lecturer has superior intelligence, comprehension, expertise and skills), (ii) information (i.e. the lecturer is

regarded as a significant information source in the classroom), (iii) responsibility (i.e. the lecturer has the authority to influence the learners), (iv) coercion (i.e. the lecturer is associated with a high status and should be respected by others), and (v) rewards and penalties (i.e. the lecturer reserves the right to pass or fail the learners in the course). With regard to these interpretations of lecturer power, the Chinese participants usually mitigated their linguistic realizations of politeness strategies to perform the disagreements.

Walkinshaw (2009) investigated how the Japanese learners of English in New Zealand realized their politeness strategies to disagree with the lecturer. There were 12 participants in this study. All of them were studying at different language schools in Christchurch. Their English proficiency was considered intermediate. They had been staying in New Zealand for less than three weeks and none of them had been living in, or experiencing, an English-speaking culture. Walkinshaw (2009) used a written Discourse Completion Task, the audiotape of the participants' role-play and weekly task sheets to collect data. Results showed that the Japanese participants preferred to employ simple and newly-learned language items when they disagreed with their lecturer. Findings also showed that when power became a factor, the Japanese participants avoided experimenting with newly-learned language items. Walkinshaw (2009, p. 52) classified five types of lecturer power in his study. They are (i) reward power (i.e. learners perceive that the lecturer has an ability to negotiate rewards for them), (ii) coercive power (i.e. learners perceive that the lecturer has an ability to mediate punishments for them), (iii) legitimate power (i.e. learners perceive that the lecturer has a legitimate right to prescribe behaviors), (iv) referent power (i.e. learners want to be liked by the lecturer in some respects), and (v) expert power (i.e. the lecturer has some special knowledge that is needed by the learners).

In sum, lecturer power in Asian countries (e.g. China, Japan, and Korea) was correlated with the interpretations of a superior level in hierarchy that influenced the learners' selections of politeness strategies and with how the strategies were realized. Frequently, the Asian participants avoided disagreeing with their lecturer in the classroom context because of their interpretations of the lecturer powers. Liu (2004) and Walkinshaw (2009) classified types of lecturer power into five groups. These classifications of lecturer power tended to influence the learners' choices of politeness strategies and their realizations. The present study aims to investigate the strategies and realizations used by Thai EFL learners to disagree with their lecturer.

2.2.3 EFL Learners' Variables

A number of interlanguage pragmatic studies of disagreements have explored EFL learners when they performed their disagreements in English. Review of literature showed that previous researchers adopted a small number of variables to distinguish groups of EFL learners. To my best knowledge, I reviewed the most frequently studied variable, which was L2 proficiency levels (2.2.3.1), and the least frequently used variable, which was exposure time to English as the medium of classroom instruction (2.2.3.2).

2.2.3.1 L2 Proficiency Levels

In this section, I include four studies of (i) Xuehua (2006), (ii) Chen (2006), (iii) Behnam and Niroomand (2011), and (iv) Choyimah and Latief (2014). These studies examined the relationship between L2 proficiency levels and L2 learners' performance of disagreement. Chen (2006) and Xuehua (2006) argued that there were some correlations between learners' L2 proficiency and their pragmatic transfer (i.e. an increasing level of L2 proficiency lessened the interference of L1 pragmatic norms). Two studies, Behnam and Niroomand's (2011) and Choyimah and Latief (2014), similarly pointed out that learners with higher proficiency levels adopted indirect strategies more often than learners with lower levels of English proficiency.

Xuehua (2006) investigated what politeness strategies were used by the Chinese EFL learners when they disagreed with their lecturer. The samples were classified into two groups; sophomore and senior students at the School of Foreign Studies of Nanjing University. The two groups of participants had different English proficiency levels; low and high. Xuehua (2006) used a written Discourse Completion Task (the written DCT) to collect data. There were 24 scenarios in his written DCT with inclusions of different interlocutors to ensure that the three social variables; power, social distance and ranking of imposition (cf. Brown & Levinson, 1987) are represented. Results indicated that the Chinese EFL sophomores tended to disagree with their lecturer baldly with no redressive action due to a lack of sophisticated English language means while the Chinese seniors tended to vary their strategies and softened their linguistic realizations by means of rhetorical questions, partial agreement or positive comments.

Chen (2006) compared how Chinese EFL learners of different English proficiency levels performed the act of disagreement in English. The Chinese EFL participants were categorized into two groups; (1) non-English major juniors and (2) English major seniors. They represented learners of lower and higher English proficiency. The Chinese EFL participants were from National Sun Yat-Sen University. Chen (2006) included 16 situations in which the participants were engaged with different conversational partners. One of the situations was the student-lecturer disagreements where a lecturer introduced a book and told the students that it was a very good book. In fact it was a deadly boring book. The participants had to inform the lecturer that the book was not as good as the lecturer thought. Results showed that the participants of lower English proficiency level relied heavily on their native pragmatic norms. Their linguistic realizations of politeness strategies used to disagree with the lecturer were different from those realized by the native speakers of American English. The Chinese EFL juniors realized their strategies in English quite similarly to native speakers of Chinese. More frequently, they used the avoidance strategies and preferred not to disagree with their lecturer. The Chinese EFL seniors tended to use more native-like strategies to disagree with their lecturer.

Behnam and Niroomand (2011) studied what politeness strategies Iranian EFL learners with different English proficiency levels used and how their politeness strategies were linguistically realized when the learners disagreed with their lecturer in a university setting. There were forty samples in his study. The samples were grouped into two according to their English proficiency levels based on their scores

from a proficiency test. The two groups comprised (i) the intermediate and (ii) the upper-intermediate levels. Behnam and Niroomand (2011) used a written Discourse Completion Task (the written DCT) to collect data. In his DCT, there were five scenarios, which were adopted from Takahashi and Beebe (1993) and Guodong and Jing (2005). One example was that the samples were to respond to their lecturer's question that their submitted term paper did not originally belong to them but was taken from someone else. Results showed that both groups of the samples selected different politeness strategies to disagree with their lecturer. The samples in the intermediate level frequently used the direct strategy to perform the disagreement (e.g. *no, you misunderstand, if I wrote them I know they are mine*). The samples in the upper-intermediate level often employed the indirect strategy to perform the disagreement (e.g. *Teacher, I don't know how I can prove it but believe me they are definitely my own ideas*). In addition, the samples with the upper-intermediate level used different politeness strategies (e.g. giving deference, the use of "*I don't know*" , "*I think*" or the address term and rhetorical questions) to soften their disagreement.

Choyimah and Latief (2014) examined disagreement strategies that were used by Indonesian EFL learners in university classroom discussions. According to the TOEFL scores, twenty-eight participants were classified into two groups: (i) higher levels of English proficiency, consisting of 13 pre-advanced and 3 advanced learners, and (ii) lower levels of English proficiency, comprising 3 pre-intermediate and 9 intermediate learners. Choyimah and Latief (2014) collected the data by videotaping classroom seminars for 2.5 hours for ten weeks. In their data analysis, Choyimah and Latief (2014) initially transcribed disagreements and categorized each of them into (i) the direct strategies and (ii) the indirect strategies. The former consist of (i) refusal strategies (e.g. H: *Why you don't try to interview experts?* S: *...I must not interview the expert for my thesis*), (ii) denial strategies (e.g. H: *Alay language users usually add N in the end of the word and change the AND into N*; S: *This is not from the theory of Alay language…*), (iii) correction strategies (e.g. S: *...it is better for you to read your slide,…on your notebook, not the screen because you cannot face the audience*), and (iv) strong criticism strategies (e.g. *I want to give a suggestion for you. I think your slide is not appropriate with a formal situation like seminar of thesis proposal*). The latter comprise (i) mild-criticism strategies (e.g. *...for me as a reader it is a kind of confusing title because eh…what I have in mind in here…*), (ii) internally contrasting strategies (e.g. *...you will choose five slogans that consist of ambiguous meaning but in the problem of study, you did not mention the ambiguous meaning*), (iii) reminding strategies (e.g. *there are three problems here, so maybe you you forgot to put S for problems of study*), and (iv) suggestion strategies (e.g. *I will give a comment for you,…title in your previous study, it should eh…you should eh…type the last name of the writer*). The results showed that the use of disagreement strategies by the Indonesian EFL learners in the classroom seminars was positively related to the learners' English proficiency levels. Those who had higher levels of English proficiency frequently utilized indirect strategies. Conversely, those who had lower levels of English often used direct strategies.

In conclusion, Xuehua's (2006) and Chen's (2006) studies yielded consistent results in that the increasing level of L2 proficiency decreases the interference from L1 pragmatic transfer in disagreements. Results from the two studies indicated that the participants on a lower level of L2 proficiency were less pragmatically

sophisticated. They frequently relied on their pragmatic norms in performing the disagreements. In addition, Behnam and Niroomand (2011) and Choyimah and Latief (2014) similarly claimed that different proficiency levels influence the way in which politeness strategies were chosen and their realizations produced. Reviewing the sampling methods showed that the studies of Xuehua (2006) and Chen (2006) grouped their samples according to the number of years the samples were in the university to represent high and low levels of L2 proficiency. This criterion of classification may be unreliable because it is not necessarily true that all lower level students show lower level of English proficiency. My study adopts different criteria to distinguish two groups of Thai EFL learners. This study examines whether different amounts of English as the medium of instruction have any influence on Thai EFL learners' selections of politeness strategies and their realizations of politeness strategies.

2.2.3.2 Exposure to English inside EFL Classrooms

There were few existing studies on disagreements that explored amounts of exposure to English as medium of classroom instruction the learners were immersed into in the classroom context. In this section, one empirical study by Charoenroop (2015) was reviewed. This study compared politeness strategies which two groups of Thai EFL learners, those with frequent and infrequent exposure to English as the medium of classroom instruction, used to disagree with their lecturers in the classroom context.

Charoenroop (2015) explored and compared what politeness strategies Thai EFL learners used in order to perform their student-lecturer disagreements in English. There were two groups of research participants: (i) Thai EFL learners, who were less frequently exposed to English as medium of instruction, and (ii) Thai EFL learners, who were more frequently exposed to English as medium of instruction. The former group consisted of 20 students who were exposed to English in four courses throughout their curriculum, while the latter group comprised 18 students who were immersed in English in 36 courses throughout their curriculum. The learners' English proficiency levels were considered similar as assessed based on an English proficiency test. Data were collected by means of classroom videotaping in skill development courses for three hours for ten weeks. The data were analyzed in terms of identifiable linguistic markers. Results showed that the Thai EFL learners who were less frequently exposed to English as medium of instruction normally used negative politeness strategies, that is, they mitigated their disagreements through imposition minimizers, such as L: *Listening to English is easier than reading it* (elliptical lines) S: (short pause) *I think reading in English is easier /kʰʌ̂ ʔāːcjāːn/*. The Thai EFL learners, who were more frequently exposed to English as medium of instruction, normally used bald on-record strategies, that is, they disagreed with their lecturer explicitly without using any linguistic mitigation, such as L: *An aisle seat is better than a window seat* S: (short pause) *No* (short pause) *the window seat is better*.

2.2.4 Summary

There are eleven related studies on the speech act of disagreement performed by students and addressed to the lecturer in an academic setting. These studies can be categorized into (i) the cross-cultural pragmatic and (ii) the interlanguage pragmatic. There are two cross-cultural pragmatic studies (Liu, 2004; Rees-Miller, 2000), focusing on the speech act of disagreement performed by native speakers. There are nine interlanguage pragmatic studies (Behnam & Niroomand, 2011; Charoenroop, 2015; Chen, 2006; Choyimah & Latief, 2014; Guodong & Jing, 2005; Hong, 2003; Kakava, 2002; Walkinshaw, 2009; Xuehua, 2006), describing the speech act of disagreement performed by the learners of English. In the following section, Tables 2.10 and 2.11 are given to summarize necessary details of the nine empirical studies. The details include (i) socio-cultural variables, (ii) data collection, and (iii) the analyses of politeness strategies and realizations.

	Socio-Cultural Variables	Data Collection Method	Politeness Strategies	Realizations		
				Linguistic	Para-Linguistic	Non-Verbal
Rees-Miller (2000)	N/A	Videotape	●	●	●	x
Liu (2004)	Gender Domicile	Written DCTs	●	x	x	x

Table 2.10: Two Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Studies on Disagreement

	Socio-Cultural Variables	Data Collection Method	Politeness Strategies	Realizations		
				Linguistic	Para-Linguistic	Non-Verbal
Kakava (2002)	N/A	Audiotape	●	●	●	x
Hong (2003)	Nationality	Videotape	●	●	●	x
Gudong and Jing (2005)	Gender	Written DCTs	●	x	x	x
Xuehua (2006)	English proficiency	Written DCTs	●	x	x	x
Chen (2006)	English proficiency	Written DCTs	●	●	x	x
Walkinshaw (2009)	Length of residence	Written DCTs	●	●	x	x
Behnam and Niroomand (2011)	English proficiency	Written DCTs	●	●	x	x
Choyimah and Latief (2014)	English proficiency	Videotape	●	●	x	x
Charoenroop (2015)	Exposure to English	Videotape	●	●	●	●

Table 2.11: Nine Interlanguage Pragmatic Studies on Disagreement

Reviews of the empirical literatures on disagreements enabled the researcher to identify several research gaps that could be filled out. Based on the two cross-cultural pragmatic studies on disagreements, there were two research gaps that needed to be closed: (i) there were minimal numbers of studies on disagreement that extensively explored what politeness strategies native speakers of Thai used to disagree with their lecturer in a classroom context, and (ii) native speakers of English used as research participants in past studies were mainly Americans. In order to fill out the gaps, a group of native speakers of Thai was used as my research participants, and in addition a group of native speakers of Canadian English was used. Based on the nine interlanguage pragmatic studies on disagreements, there were two research gaps to be further bridged: (i) many empirical studies investigated learners who had different levels of English proficiency, and (ii) none of the studies examined how gestures were applied when learners performed their student-lecturer disagreements verbally. In order to fill out these missing gaps, another variable-the amounts of exposure time to English as the medium of instruction-was used to differentiate the

two groups of Thai EFL learners in my study, and gestures were also included in the analysis of realizations.

2.3 Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, I have reviewed some theoretical background and nine related studies. To begin with, Hymes' (1962, 1967, 1971) communicative competence has been mentioned. His communicative competence has generated several models of communicative competence in later years. In this regard, four models of communicative competence proposed by (i) Canale and Swain (1980), (ii) (Canale, 1983), (iii) Bachman (1990), and (iv) Bachman and Palmer (1996) have been explored. After that, the two sub-fields in pragmatics: (i) the interlanguage pragmatics, and (ii) the cross-cultural pragmatics, have been delineated in the realm of this present study. Then, concepts of speech acts initially suggested by Austin (1962) and the theory of speech acts proposed by Searle (1979) have been described. Next, the speech act of disagreement has been explicated in the scope of Searle's speech act typology, felicity conditions, indirectness, and the cross-cultural pragmatics. Afterward, Brown and Levinson's politeness theory focusing on the concept of a model person, five possible sets of politeness strategies, linguistic realizations of politeness strategies, extra-linguistic realizations of politeness strategies, and criticisms on the theory have been reviewed. Finally, eleven empirical studies on student-lecturer disagreements: (i) Rees-Miller (2000), (ii) Kakava (2002), (iii) Hong (2003), (iv) Liu (2004), (v) Guodong and Jing (2005), (vi) Xuehua (2006), (vii) Chen (2006), (viii) Walkinshaw (2009), (ix) Behnam and Niroomand (2011), (x) Choyimah and Latief (2014), and (xi) Charoenroop (2015), have been examined. The studies conducted by Guodong and Jing (2005), Chen (2006), and Walkinshaw (2009) have explicated how collectivist and individualist cultures have an impact on the students' performance of disagreements in English. The studies carried out by Hong (2003), Liu (2004), and Walkinshaw (2009) have elucidated how the lecturer power affects the students' performance of disagreements in English. The studies done by Xuehua (2006), Chen (2006), Behnam and Niroomand (2011), and Choyimah and Latief (2014) have explained how L2 proficiency levels influence the students' interlanguage production of disagreements. Lastly, Charoenroop (2015) disclosed that the amounts of exposure to English as medium of instruction contributed to the Thai EFL learners' selections of politeness strategies when they disagreed with their lecturers in the classroom context. Lastly, four research gaps based on the reviews of eleven related studies on disagreements have been identified. The next chapter describes the research methodology and presents the preliminary findings from the pilot study.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Having reviewed some theoretical background and nine related studies in the previous chapter, I turn to discuss the research methodology in this chapter. The discussion is divided into four main sections. To begin with, I mention the study populations based on the research questions, and identify the samples of this study. Next, I clarify how the data were collected. In this section, information about research instruments and research procedure are given. After that, I present the taxonomy used in the analysis and explain how the collected data were analyzed. Finally, preliminary findings based on the pilot study conducted at three different classrooms are reported.

3.1 Populations and Samples

This section provides detailed explanation of (i) the target populations and (ii) the selected samples. The selection of the populations and the samples is based on the research questions of this study.

3.1.1 The Target Populations

Put forward in Section 1.2, there are two research questions. The first research question aims to examine what politeness strategies Thai EFL learners use to perform disagreements with their lecturer, and how the politeness strategies are realized. To answer this research question, three groups of populations are needed: (i) Thai EFL learners disagreeing in English, (ii) native speakers of Thai disagreeing in Thai, and (iii) native speakers of English disagreeing in English. The second research question aims to compare two groups of Thai EFL learners, who are exposed to English as the medium of instruction in different frequencies, in terms of politeness strategies and realizations. To answer the second research question, two groups of Thai EFL learners are needed: (i) Thai EFL learners who are *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, and (ii) Thai EFL learners who are *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction. Obviously, this study explores different amounts of exposure time to English as the medium of instruction to determine whether they contribute to the Thai EFL learners' uses of politeness strategies when they disagree with their lecturer in the classroom context. These learners were studied as groups, hence their individual personalities and genders were not variables included in the investigations. These variables were beyond the scope of this study.

In summary, there are four groups of populations needed to answer the two research questions: (i) Thai EFL learners who are *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, (ii) Thai EFL learners who are *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, (iii) native speakers of Thai, and (iv) native speakers of English.

3.1.2 The Selected Samples

I selected the purposive sampling method to choose four groups of samples to represent the target populations in this study. I did not randomly choose the samples according to the convenience of their availability. All sample groups were third-year undergraduate students from different universities. Two groups of Thai EFL learners were from Rangsit University, and Burapha University. They were differentiated by the amount of exposure time to English as the medium of instruction. The Rangsit University students were exposed to English as the medium of instruction in four courses[1] throughout their curriculum. On the other hand, the students from Burapha University were exposed to English as the medium of instruction in all classes throughout their curriculum bringing the total number of thirty-six courses.

All learners took the General Attitude Test (GAT) as a pre-university requirement before commencing their undergraduate programs. The test comprised two different subjects: (i) Logical Thinking Test (LTT), and (ii) English Proficiency Test (EPT). The full score of the GAT was 300, consisting of 150 from the LTT and 150 from the EPT. The learners took the GAT three times: (i) in May 2009, (ii) in October 2009, and (iii) in March 2010. They reported their scores from the EPT taken in March 2010. The mean score of the Rangsit University students was 74.61 from 150, or 49.74 percent. The highest score was 90, and the lowest score was 64. The mean score of the students from Burapha University was 75.80 from 150, or 50.53 percent. The highest score was 95, and the lowest score was 67. These figures suggest that their English proficiency levels were comparable.

In addition, all learners took the Test of English for International Communication, or the TOEIC before their graduation in 2014. The test consisted of two parts: (i) the listening test, and (ii) the reading test. The full score of the TOEIC test was 990, comprising 495 from the listening test, and 495 from the reading test. The learners took the test at different times according to their convenience because the test has been administered twice a day. They were asked to report the highest score they had achieved. The mean score reported by the students from Rangsit University was 436.95. The maximum score was 495, and the minimum score was 380. In a similar fashion, the mean score reported by the Burapha University students was 450. The maximum score was 550, and the minimum score was 395. According to an official website[2] of the TOEIC test, a range of scores between 405 and 600 was categorized as intermediate. On average, the students' levels of English proficiency were similarly intermediate.

Regarding the sample groups of native speakers, there were two sample groups needed: (i) native speakers of Thai, and (ii) native speakers of English. The former was another group of students from Burapha University. The latter was a group of Canadian students from Brock University. They were exchange students at Burapha University for one semester. This sample group was videotaped in fifteen hours or within the shortest period of time compared to other classrooms. This aimed

[1] The four classes were (i) English I, (ii) English II, (iii) English for Tourism and (IV) Listening and Speaking in English for Professional Development.
[2] www.toeic-training.com/Interpret-your-TOEIC-score.php

to prevent their pragmatic knowledge from being interfered with by the Thai pragmatic competence. Results from Rees-Miller (2000) were thus used to support the findings from the Canadian group. I did not videotape the American samples' classroom. Instead, their performance of disagreement, put in a collection of corpora, was adopted from the previous study carried out by Rees-Miller (2000). The samples in Rees-Miller's study came from a university[3] in America.

Table 3.1 shows a summary of all sample groups. Details of the summary include the participants' study background and universities. I also introduce the abbreviated codes to be used to represent each group of the samples throughout the study.

	The Target Populations		The Samples	Codes
1	1.1	Thai EFL learners who are less frequently exposed to English as the medium of instruction	Third-year undergraduate students majoring in Tourism and Hotel Management at Rangsit University, Thailand	EFLt
	1.2	Thai EFL learners who are more frequently exposed to English as the medium of instruction	Third-year undergraduate students majoring in Management Information Systems at Burapha University, Thailand	EFLe
2		Native speakers of Thai	Third-year undergraduate students majoring in Mass Communication at Burapha University, Thailand	NT
3		Native speakers of English	Third-year undergraduate students majoring in Tourism at Brock University, Canada	NE

Table 3.1: The Populations and the Samples of this Study

The aforementioned codes: (i) the EFLt, (ii) the EFLe, (iii) the NT, and (iv) the NE are used to represent (i) the Thai EFL learners who were exposed to English as the medium of instruction in four courses throughout their curriculum, (ii) the Thai EFL learners who were exposed to English as the medium of instruction in thirty-six courses throughout their curriculum, (iii) the native speakers of Thai, and (iv) the native speakers of English. In the following sections, additional information of each sample group is provided. The information includes the total number of participants in

[3] Rees-Miller (2000), in her study, does not specify which university in America her samples were from. She calls it an "American University" throughout her study.

each class, the number of male and female participants, the participants' age range, the participants' first language background, the name of the observed class, and some relevant details of the class.

3.1.2.1 The EFLt

There were 18 students, consisting of 7 males and 11 females in this class. Their ages were between 20 and 22. The students' first language was Thai. They studied in a program in which their exposure to English used as the medium of instruction was in four classes throughout the curriculum. I videotaped the class in *Listening and Speaking in English for Professional Development*, which was offered as an elective course for non-English majoring students. The class was taught in English by an American male professor for three hours once a week on Tuesday morning (9 a.m. to 12 p.m.) from June 2012 to September 2012.

3.1.2.2 The EFLe

There were 20 students, comprising 9 males and 11 females in this class. Their age range was 20–22. The students' first language was Thai. They studied at an international college where they were exposed to English used as the medium of instruction in all courses throughout the curriculum bringing the total number of thirty-six courses. I videotaped the class in *English for Specific Purposes*, which was offered as an elective course. The class was taught in English by an American male professor for three hours once a week on Wednesday morning (9 a.m. to 12 p.m.) from June 2012 to September 2012.

3.1.2.3 The NT

There were 22 students, comprising 10 males and 12 females in this class. Their age range was 21–23. All of the students' native language was Thai. I videotaped the class in *Argumentation and Debate*, offered as an elective course. The class was taught in Thai by the researcher of this study for three hours once a week on Tuesday morning (9 a.m. to 12 p.m.) from November 2011 to March 2012.

3.1.2.4 The NE

There were 16 students: 7 males and 9 females. Their age range was 20–27 years but the mean age was 22.31. I videotaped the class in *Cross-Cultural Communication*, offered as an elective course. The class was taught in English by the researcher for three hours once a week on Tuesday morning (9 a.m. to 12 p.m.) from January 2013 to March 2013.

3.2 Data Collection

There are two major discussions in this section. First, research instruments used to collect the data from the selected samples are introduced. Second, procedures to collect the data using different research instruments are explained.

3.2.1 Research Instruments

Three research instruments were used to collect the data from the samples. They were (i) a videotape recorder, (ii) a questionnaire[4], and (iii) an interview. The videotape recorder was used as the primary data-gathering instrument for this study. In other words, the naturally-occurring data acquired from the samples were primarily analyzed in order to answer the research questions. The questionnaire and the interview were used as secondary data-collecting instruments for this study. The samples' information and opinions were used to supplement the obtained data from the videotape recordings.

3.2.1.1 The Videotape Recorder

The videotape recorder enables the researcher to collect the samples' performance of student-lecturer disagreements from an authentic classroom environment. Using the videotape recorder to gather the data enables to capture linguistic, paralinguistic, and non-verbal means the samples used to disagree with their lecturer. The naturally-occurring data acquired by videotaping are claimed to have both advantages and disadvantages (e.g. Cohen, 1996; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Tseng, 1999; Yuan, 2001). On the one hand, the obtained data are spontaneous, reflecting what the speakers actually say rather than what they think they are supposed to say. The use of the written discourse completion tasks (DCTs), for example, gives the speakers some extra time to think before they write down their answers. Unlike the written DCTs, the videotape recorder captures the samples' performance when they are in a natural situation and perform the disagreement spontaneously with a minimal time to plan their response. As a result, the obtained data can be a rich source of pragmatic structures. On the other hand, there is no guarantee that sufficient samples of disagreement tokens can be found in a natural setting, particularly during the limited time when the classroom is videotaped. It may consume considerable time to gather the data. In addition, it is difficult to control contextual and social variables such as power, social distance, and ranking of imposition in the classroom environment.

Even though there are several disadvantages, I used the videotape recorder as the main instrument to gather the naturally-occurring data of disagreements from both classes of Thai EFL learners, the class of native speakers of Thai, and the class of native speakers of English because the principal objective in this study is to examine disagreements expressed by the students and addressed to the lecturer in a real

[4] See Appendix I

classroom context. Besides, I put a great deal of effort into minimizing all possible weaknesses that might have affected the quality of the collected data in that the classroom discussions were arranged not to contain overwhelmingly complicated contents, for the learners' third language to be excluded, for the class to promote the learners' interaction, and for the learners to communicate effectively in proficient English.

3.2.1.2 The Questionnaire

The use of a questionnaire serves two purposes: (i) to obtain the samples' demographic information, and (ii) to elicit the samples' personal opinions with reference to their student-lecturer disagreements performed in the context of a classroom. The design of the questionnaire was adapted from the previous study on argumentative strategies by Hong (2003, pp. 123-124). The questions and statements used to elicit the samples' opinions were piloted twice, aiming to delete unnecessary and irrelevant questions. Questions or statements which appeared in the questionnaire are exemplified below.

a) Will you disagree with your lecturer in class?

b) Will you give a reason when you disagree with your lecturer?

c) Will you disagree with your lecturer when you are misunderstood?

d) It is appropriate to disagree with the lecturer during class.

The samples were asked to answer by rating each question or statement on a one-to-five response scale, ranging from always to never, absolutely appropriate to absolutely inappropriate, and strongly agree to strongly disagree. In addition, the samples were allowed to justify their opinions under each question in a space provided.

3.2.1.3 The Interview

The use of the interview aims to increase the reliability of the obtained data from the videotape recording. There are two reasons to conduct the interview: (i) in case implied disagreements were performed, and it was indecisive whether or not it was a token of disagreement, and (ii) in case of unintelligibility when some data were not clearly heard or understood. These uncertain decisions had to be made clear before further implementations of data analysis. Furthermore, this study did not overlook the analysis on paralinguistic means nor on non-verbal means. As a result, the transcriptions had to be highly accurate.

3.2.2 Research Procedure

There were three phases of research procedure used to collect the data from all sample groups. In the following sections, each phase of the research procedure is described in details.

3.2.2.1 Phase I: The Videotape Recorder

At first, each sample classroom was videotaped. Prior to the procedure of videotaping, an information sheet[5] and a consent form[6] were given to provide all research participants instructions of the research project. The samples reserved the right to accept or refuse the invitation to be involved in the research project. If any of them decided to refuse to get involved with the project, his or her performance of disagreements would not be used in the analysis. There was no indication of any kind to inform the participants that their expressions of student-lecturer disagreement were being captured. All samples perceived that their general classroom conducts were recorded. The videotape recorder was set up in front of the class fifteen minutes prior to the beginning of each class. It mainly captured the students' interactions with the lecturer, enabling the researcher to analyze the students' linguistic, paralinguistic, and non-verbal expressions of disagreements. I also created a template[7] used to do field notes in both classes of Thai EFL learners. The field notes assisted me in remembering the samples' behaviors, classroom activities, and other events that might not be captured by the videotape.

There were two reasons to videotape all sample classrooms prior to my preliminary exam (i.e., before April 1st, 2013). Firstly, the naturally-occurring data were not elicited but were captured from an authentic classroom environment. Consequently, no elicitation instrument needed to be approved before the data collection. Unlike the use of role-plays (e.g. Walkinshaw, 2007, 2009) or written and oral discourse completion tasks (e.g. Chen, 2006; Guodong & Jing, 2005; Xuehua, 2006), situations used to elicit the students' disagreements need to be approved before collecting the data. Secondly, tokens of disagreement performed by the samples were in the classroom setting. Whether to gather the data before or after the preliminary exam should not change the fundamental characteristics of student-lecturer disagreements.

3.2.2.2 Phase II: The Questionnaire

The written questionnaire was distributed to all research participants on the final week (i.e. week ten for both classes of Thai EFL learners and for the class of native speakers of Thai, and week five for the class of native speakers of English) at

[5] The information sheet can be reviewed in Appendix II
[6] The consent form can be retrieved in Appendix III
[7] The template can be viewed in Appendix IV

the end of the class. This was to acquire their personal demographic information and personal opinions on disagreements performed by them and addressed to their lecturer in the classroom context. The implementation of this data collection method was carried out on the final week to ensure that the research participants were unaware of their production of student-lecturer disagreements.

3.2.2.3 Phase III: The Interview

In case there was a doubt whether the student's utterance was or was not a disagreement, that particular participant would be invited for an interview. The interview was carried out after the transcriptions were completely made. During the interview, the invited participants were allowed to watch their performance of disagreements recorded in the videotape to freshen their memory in case they did not remember what they had done during the class period. Based on the demographic information given by the research participants, their contact information: email addresses, telephone numbers, and facebook accounts, were requested for personal contacts in case their performance of student-lecturer disagreements were found to create some confusion.

3.3 Data Analysis

The collected data from the classroom videotaping on the first week, or from the first three hours, were not analyzed. This was to allow the research participants to become familiar with the presence of a videotape recorder. Consequently, the data used in the analysis for the EFLt, the EFLe, and the NT were taken from nine weeks, bringing the total number of twenty-seven hours. Following the same criteria, the data used in the analysis for the NE came from four weeks, bringing the total number of twelve hours. After that, disagreements performed by students and addressed to the lecturer were inspected and transcribed in a form of talk exchange. The talk exchange began with the lecturer's statement of an opinion, followed by a student's verbal expression of a contradictory opinion. The transcription of a talk exchange would not be carried out if the lecturer moved to a different topic or after the students justified their disagreements. In each talk exchange, there was at least one token of student-lecturer disagreement embedded (see Extract 1).

Extract 1:

1. L: Hardworking
2. L: (long pause) Is that(/) POSitive or NEGative
3. Ss: (silent)
4. L: Many */kʰōn tʰāi/* would say negative
5. S: (long pause) (P)No(P) } ***a token of disagreement***
   (the student shakes his head)
6. L: No(/) (short pause) hard working is positive(/)
7. S: I don't know

(the student shakes his head)

Videotaped EFLe: July 18th, 2012

Extract 1 shows how the data was transcribed in the form of a talk exchange between the lecturer and a student. In the transcription, L stands for the lecturer; S stands for a student, and Ss stands for many students. In this extract, there is one token of student-lecturer disagreement in turn 5 when the student expresses a contradictory opinion that many Thai people would not say '*hardworking*' is negative. In this extract, there is only one token of disagreement performed by a student and addressed to the lecturer. Turn 7 is not a token of disagreement but it is a response to the lecturer's question. The student admits to the lecturer that he does not know whether *'hardworking'* implies a positive or negative meaning for many Thai people. Once all data were transcribed, each token of disagreement was analyzed in terms of politeness strategies (3.3.1) and realizations (3.3.2). If the learners used the same set of politeness strategies, a further analysis of realizations would be implemented.

3.3.1 Politeness Strategies

There were four sets of politeness strategies: bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record strategies to be used in this study. These politeness strategies were adopted from Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 94-227). The fifth set of politeness strategies−Don't do the face-threatening act (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 68-69)−was excluded from the taxonomy of politeness strategies because disagreement has been defined as a verbal expression (cf. Section 1.6b). Therefore, an explicit use of a non-verbal expression to convey a meaning of disagreement is outside the scope of this study.

The first three sets of politeness strategies: bald on-record, positive politeness strategies, and negative politeness strategies, are explicit. Bald on-record strategies are different from positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies because bald on-record strategies do not involve any redressive action (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69). Bald on-record strategies were used to perform direct, clear,

unambiguous, and concise disagreements. Considering disagreement strategies, six linguistic features were used to perform disagreements explicitly: (i) *No*, (ii) *No*, Negative Statement, (iii) Negative Statement, (iv) *I disagree*, (v) *I don't think so*, and (vi) *I don't think like that*. Positive politeness strategies are similar to negative politeness strategies in that they both involve a redressive action (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 69-71). However, such an action serves different purposes. Positive politeness strategies were used to save the lecturer's positive desire, that is, the face to be liked. Considering disagreement strategies, three linguistic features were used to soften the threat of student-lecturer disagreements, aiming to maintain the lecturer's positive face: (i) *I agree, but*…, (ii) *Yes, but*…, and (iii) *It is good, but*…. Negative politeness strategies were used to save the lecturer's negative face, that is, the want to be free from imposition. Considering disagreement strategies, nine linguistic features were used to minimize the imposition of disagreements, aiming to maintain the lecturer's negative face: (i) Verb of Uncertainty (*seem*, *tend*), (ii) Downtoner (*sort of*, *kind of*), (iii) Modal (*should*, *might*), (iv) Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*), (v) *I think*, (vi) *I think* + Modal (*should*, *might*), (vii) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*), (viii) Question, and (ix) If Clause. Using off-record strategies to disagree with the lecturer stays in contrast with using on-record strategies because the former are implicit while the latter are explicit. Considering disagreement strategies, three linguistic features were used to express implied disagreements: (i) Ellipsis, (ii) Rhetorical Question, and (iii) Statement. The above-mentioned linguistic features were adapted from five taxonomies of disagreement strategies (Kakava, 2002; Locher, 2004; Rees-Miller, 2000; Sifianou, 2012; Walkinshaw, 2009). All politeness strategies are illustrated in Table 3.2.

Sets of Politeness Strategies	Disagreement Strategies	
	Semantic Formulas	Linguistic Features
Bald On-Record Strategies	Explicit Contradiction	*No*
		No, Negative Statement
		Negative Statement
		I disagree
		I don't think so
		I don't think like that
Positive Politeness Strategies	Partial Agreement	*I agree but…*
		Yes, but…
	Positive Initiation	*It's good, but...*
Negative Politeness Strategies	Hedge	Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*)
		Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*)
		Modal (*should, might*)
		Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)
		I think
		I think + Modal (*should, might*)
		I think + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)
		Question
	Condition	If Clause
Off-Record Strategies	Implied Contradiction	Ellipsis
		Rhetorical Question
	Hint	Statement

Table 3.2: Taxonomy of Politeness Strategies

Table 3.2 demonstrates that a wide range of linguistic features are used to perform student-lecturer disagreements in different manners. These linguistic features fall into various semantic formulas. *No*, *No* Negative Statement, Negative Statement, *I disagree*, *I don't think so*, and *I don't think like that* are used to express explicit contradictions. *I agree, but…* and *Yes, but…* are used to show a partial agreement, and *It is good, but…*is used to begin an expression of disagreement with a positive comment. Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*), Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*), Modal (*should, might*), Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*) *I think*, *I think* + Modal (*should, might*), I think + Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*), Question are used as hedges to minimize the imposition of disagreements, and If Clause is used to express a hypothetical meaning. Ellipsis and Rhetorical Question are used to express implied contradictions, and Statement is used to give a hint.

The use of Ellipsis, Rhetorical Question, and Statement indicates that the students do not express their student-lecturer disagreements in a direct, clear, unambiguous, and concise manner. In this regard, analyzing the student's verbal expression without considering the immediate uptake provided by the lecturer can be inconclusive whether or not the student's verbal expression conveys an intention of disagreement. To draw a reliable conclusion that the students use off-record strategies to perform their student-lecturer disagreements requires an additional inspection of the following utterances (see Extract 2).

Extract 2:

1. L: If you deliver a baby
2. L: You would go to a hospital in Bangkok
3. L: They give you a better care
4. S: (short pause) It's too far ┐ ***a token of implied disagreement***
5. L:You won't go to Bangkok(/)=┘ ***the lecturer's immediate uptake***
6. S:=No

Videotaped EFLe: August 15th, 2012

In Extract 2, the student's performance of disagreement is in turn 4. It can be inconclusive that turn 4 is a token of disagreement if without inspecting the following utterances. This is because the student's verbal expression of disagreement is implicitly uttered. In order to say that turn 4 is an expression of disagreement, the lecturer's immediate uptake in turn 5 must be taken into consideration. In turn 5, the lecturer questions the student whether she is not going to Bangkok to deliver her baby. The presence of the lecturer's question after the student's implicit disagreement ensures that the student's utterance shows a disagreement. In turn 6, the student does not reluctantly answer to the lecturer's closed-ended question that she will not go to Bangkok to deliver her baby. The extract above illustrates that to reach a conclusion that a student really uses off-record strategies to express his or her disagreement, the immediate uptake produced by the lecturer must be taken into account. Once the student's implicit expression is confirmed to be a disagreement, it is analyzed according to the taxonomy presented in Table 3.2.

After analyzing all tokens of disagreements and codifying them according to politeness strategies in the taxonomy, it was possible to count how frequently bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record strategies were used. The most frequently used politeness strategies by the native speakers of Thai and the native speakers of English were firstly highlighted because they represented the native norms. Secondly, the Thai EFL learners' disagreements were analyzed according to the taxonomy in order to count how often each politeness strategy was used by the two groups of learners. According to the frequencies of politeness strategies used by these learners, comparisons were made to find out differences and similarities between them. In short, this study was a qualitative study, while the findings, however, were supported by the frequencies.

3.3.2 Realizations of Politeness Strategies

Realizations of politeness strategies are different means used to achieve a communicative intention to disagree with the lecturer. There are three potential means to perform a disagreement: (i) linguistic means, (ii) paralinguistic means, and (iii) non-verbal means (Bjorge, 2012; Edstrom, 2004; Habib, 2008; Kakava, 2002; Locher,

2004; Marra, 2012; Rees-Miller, 2000; Sifianou, 2012; Walkinshaw, 2007). In naturally-occurring data, the presence of these means can occur simultaneously. In this study, linguistic means are the principal mechanism to convey a communicative intention of disagreement. The literature on disagreement (Angouri, 2012; Behnam & Niroomand, 2011; Chen, 2006; Guodong & Jing, 2005; Hong, 2003; Kakava, 2002; Liu, 2004; Locher, 2004; Rees-Miller, 2000; Walkinshaw, 2009; Xuehua, 2006) has pointed out that linguistic means is the key element to delineate how disagreement is expressed. Following Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 172), the explicit focus on linguistic means provides an incomplete picture to understand how disagreements are intentionally communicated. The focus on other means−(i) paralinguistic means, and (ii) non-verbal means−potentially makes the analysis of disagreement complete. The growing body of literature on disagreements (Behnam & Niroomand, 2011; Chen, 2006; Hong, 2003; Kakava, 2002; Locher, 2004; Rees-Miller, 2000; Walkinshaw, 2009) has corroborated that paralinguistic means play an auxiliary role in contributing to the speaker's communicative intention. Following Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 172), the use of paralinguistic means can broadly indicate tentativeness or emphasis. The expressions of disagreement can be tentative if they are prefaced by a pause or a delay, produced in soft volume, and uttered in slow tempo (Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Locher, 2004, pp. 114-142; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). On the contrary, the performances of disagreement can be emphasized if they are uttered quickly, produced in loud volume, and expressed in accelerated tempo (Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Locher, 2004, pp. 114-142; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). The transcription conventions for paralinguistic means were adapted from Locher (2004, pp. vii-viii).

\	: A backslash is used to indicate a falling intonation.
/	: A slash is used to indicate a rising intonation.
CAPS	: Capital letters carry the primary stress in a monosyllabic word.
=	: Equals show an immediate connection between two turns uttered by the lecturer and the student.
:::	: Colons are used to indicate lengthened vowels.
[…]	: Square brackets indicate speech overlap by lecturer and student or vice versa.
@	: The symbol @ is used to represent laughter in syllable.

X	: The letter X indicates an unclear or unintelligible syllable or word.
A…A	: Utterances marked by this are rapid speech.
S…S	: Utterances marked by this are slow speech.
P…P	: Utterances marked by this are soft.
@...@	: Utterances marked by this are produced with laughs.
Short pause	: Short pause is used to indicate a delay that by measurement lasted less than 5 seconds.
Long pause	: Long pause is used to indicate a delay that lasted 5 seconds or more.

Lastly, the use of non-verbal means in pragmatic research studies has been argued to be expressive (cf. Glenn, 2003; Wharton, 2009). According to the definition of a disagreement put forward in Section 1.6b, an explicit use of non-verbal means to convey a communicative intention of disagreement such as the explicit headshaking gesture is beyond the scope of this study. The presence of non-verbal means plays a supplementary role to the speaker's illocutionary force. Previous literature (McClave, 2000; Pease & Pease, 2008; Sifianou, 2012) has elaborated that some non-verbal means, such as headshaking (see Figure 3.1), hands waving (see Figure 3.2), and stern face (see Figure 3.3), when co-occurring with a verbal expression of disagreements, emphasize an intentional meaning of disagreement.

Figure 3.1: Headshaking

Figure 3.2: Hands Waving

Figure 3.3: Stern Face

The transcription of non-verbal means the students used to perform student-lecturer disagreements was written to describe what gestures the students used and how the gestures were used to convey a meaning of disagreements. Examples of the gestures are as follows: (i) the student shakes her head (see Figure 3.1), (ii) the student waves his palms and shakes his head (see Figure 3.2), and (iii) the student has a stern face (see Figure 3.3). The transcription of gestures was put in parentheses under a verbal expression of disagreement. The presence of the transcription also marked the beginning and the end of the gesture in utterances. Table 3.3 re-illustrates the taxonomy with an inclusion of linguistic features used to perform disagreements together with linguistic, paralinguistic and non-verbal realizations.

In the processes of transcribing and analyzing the data, an inter-rater, Miss Kewalin Sounburee, who obtained her master's degree in English as an International Language from Chulalongkorn University, assisted me in validating the accuracy of the transcription and the analysis. Her M.A. dissertation explored the speech act of refusal in the interlanguage pragmatic framework. She is also presently doing her doctoral degree in the pragmatic fields in the United States of America.

Disagreement strategies: Linguistic features	Realizations
No	1. L: Speaking English is difficult 2. S: No (the student shakes his head) 3. S: English is more systematic 4. S: (short pause) Comparing to other languages 5. S: Speaking other Asian languages (short pause) for me can be really difficult
No, Negative Statement	1. L: Canadian accent is hard to understand= 2. S: =NO:::, it's NOT (the student shakes her head) 3. S: (short pause) If you find American accent easy to understand 4. S: You shouldn't have any problem listening to our accent
Negative Statement	1. L: Western foods are typically greasy 2. L: Many of them are very unhealthy (short pause) I think 3. S: They are not typically greasy (the student shakes her head) 4. S: (short pause) Like salads= 5. S: =They're rich in fibers and vitamins
I disagree	1. L: Bangkok is an expensive city 2. S: (short pause) I I (short pause) disagree 3. L: (long pause) Why 4. S: (short pause) (P)Everything is cheap in Bangkok(P)
I don't think so	1. L: Western foods are very expensive= 2. S: =I don't think so (the student shakes his head) 3. S: McDonald's is an example (laughter)
I don't think like that	1. L: Many languages will die (short pause) because people increasingly speak English 2. S: I don't think like that 3. S: I see a lot of bilingual kids (short pause) HERE in Thailand= 4. S: =Speak perfect Thai and English
I agree but…	1. L: There are many international schools in Pattaya= 2. L: =Only Farang's kids go to international school 3. S: (short pause) (P)I agree(P) (short pause) but many Thai parents also send their kids to international schools too
Yes, but…	1. L: I think a lot of Thai teachers are very strict 2. S: (short pause) Yes, but not a lot 3. L: Really(/) 4. S: A lot of them (short pause) a lot of them are nice
It's good but...	1. L: Learning to speak a third language is a huge advantage

	2. S: It's good to speak another language but it is a waste of time and effort (laughter)
Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*)	1. L: Ronaldo is qualified to be the best football player this year 2. S: (short pause) He tends to be disqualified 3. L: Really(/) (short pause) In what way= 4. S: =Well (short pause) he was a better player last year
Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*)	1. L: Learning to speak French after English is not difficult 2. S: (short pause) It's kind of difficult learning to speak two different languages
Modal (*should, might*)	1. L: Thailand is too hot in December 2. S: (short pause) (P)It shouldn't be too hot(P) 3. S: December is winter in Thailand /kʰɑ̂ ʔāːcjāːn/
Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)	1. L: Thai people do not speak English because they are too shy 2. S: (long pause) (P)Maybe not(P) 3. L: (short pause) Really(/) SO why they don't speak English 4. S: It is difficult for them (laughter) (@)and for me(@)
I think	1. L: It's good to have a lot of tourists in Thailand 2. S: I think it's not 3. L: (short pause) Why do you think like that(/) 4. S: Well (short pause) many of them are careless= 5. S: =They abuse the environment
I think + Modal *(should, might*)	1. L: The university library shouldn't close early on weekdays 2. S: I think they should 3. L: (short pause) Why do you think they should 4. S: Well it's not safe for female students to stay up very late
I think + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)	1. L: Learning to speak Thai is VERY difficult 2. S: I think maybe it's not that difficult (the student shakes her head)
Question	1. L: Thai soap operas are boring JUST because of the characters 2. S: (short pause) What about the plots(/)= 3. S: =Thai soap operas are boring because they have the same plot 4. L: Right you're right
If Clause	1. L: Now, people give more importance on technology than morality 2. S: If people give more importance on technology= 3. S:=they should only rely on technology, professor 4. S: I think technology can only facilitate us and make our lives more comfortable.
Ellipsis	1. L: I think Public libraries here should be open on Saturdays and Sundays 2. S: (long pause) Most people stay home on…

Rhetorical Question	1. L: Corruption is a serious problem in Thailand 2. S: Who cares= 3. S: =Corruption in Thailand is so common
Statement	1. L:The most convenient way to get around Bangkok is by taxi 2. S: Traffic in Bangkok is always unpredictable nʌ́ kʰrʌ́b ʔāːcjāːn

Table 3.3: Realizations of Politeness Strategies to Perform Disagreements

Having described how politeness strategies were realized, I turn to explain the implementation of the pilot study in the next section.

3.4 Pilot Study

In the previous section, I discussed how student-lecturer disagreements were transcribed and analyzed in the main study. In this section, I explain why and how the pilot study was conducted prior to the main study. There are two main sections under this discussion. Initially, I state the objective of the pilot study. After that, details of three observed classrooms are given. In this section, I point out some weaknesses found in the observed classrooms, and propose some solutions to eradicate the weaknesses in the classrooms selected in the main study.

3.4.1 Objective of the Pilot Studies

My pilot study was carried out to ensure the quality and efficiency of the selected classrooms in the main study. There was a primary objective to implement the pilot study with different groups of students from different universities. The objective was to find out some ideal characters to screen the selected classrooms used in the main study. Based on the selected samples put forward in Section 3.1.2, four classrooms needed to be investigated in order to answer the two research questions: (i) a classroom of the EFLt, (ii) a classroom of the EFLe, (iii) a classroom of the NT, and (iv) a classroom of the NE. Following the characters of classrooms based on the pilot study, it was expected that data were sufficient for the analysis.

3.4.2 The Pilot Studies Based on Three Classrooms

Kasper and Dahl (1991), and Yuan (2001) concede that to capture the naturally-occurring data in an authentic environment may provide deficient data for an analysis. Taking this into account, the pilot study was conducted at three different classrooms to understand which type of classrooms should be used in the main study. In the next section, I firstly introduce the three classrooms. After that, I address the weaknesses found in these classrooms.

3.4.2.1 Information of the Three Classrooms

The first pilot study was conducted with a group of 12 postgraduate students in Chulalongkorn University's English as an International Language Program. Nearly all of the learners were native speakers of Thai, except for one female from mainland China. The age range was 23–39. These learners majored in one of the following fields offered by the program: (i) English Linguistics, (ii) English Language Teaching, and (iii) English Language Assessment. The observed class was *Current Trends in English Linguistics*, taught by an American male lecturer. The class was carried out once a week on Friday from 9 a.m. to 12 p.m. The three-hour class was videotaped for four weeks bringing the total number of twelve hours.

The second pilot study was carried out in an *English Listening and Speaking* class where there were 11 students. All of them were third-year undergraduate students at Huachiew Chalermprakiet University. They studied in the International English-Chinese program, where the curriculum was bilingual in English and Mandarin Chinese. The observed class was taught in English by an Australian male lecturer. The learners were seven native speakers of Thai and four native speakers of Chinese. Their ages were between 19 and 21. The class was held twice a week on Tuesday and Friday from 10 a.m. to 12 p.m. The two-hour class was observed for two weeks bringing the total number of eight hours.

The third pilot study was implemented in an *English Writing* class. There were 23 first-year undergraduate students of the English Department at Huachiew Chalermprakiet University. All of them were native speakers of Thai, aged between 18 and 19. The class was taught by an English male lecturer once a week on Wednesday from 10 a.m. to 12 p.m. The two-hour class was observed three times bringing the total number of six hours.

There were some weaknesses found in the aforementioned classrooms. These weaknesses were to be eliminated to improve the quality and efficiency of the selected classrooms in the main study.

3.4.2.2 Weaknesses and Applications

Based on the data collection from these classrooms, I found four weaknesses. These weaknesses needed to be pointed out so that the criteria for choosing the classrooms in the main study would be more effective.

Firstly, if the content of classroom discussions is difficult, learners become unwilling or unable to disagree with the lecturer. It is possible that the learners have not enough insight and knowledge to buttress their contradictory opinions. Secondly, the learners' third-language background possibly influences their realizations of politeness strategies in English. The immersion in a third−language environment, where the language is regularly used, can affect the learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence. In other words, the learners' (linguistic) realizations of politeness strategies may be partly interfered with by third language. Thirdly, the classroom that explicitly focuses on lecturing might not promote the learners'

interactions during the class periods. The observation in the writing class shows that the learners passively listen to the lecture and do their note-taking quietly. Within a couple of hours per week, the opportunities for learners to disagree with the lecturer can be minimal if not none. Fourthly, the learners' ability to disagree with their lecturer in English should also be taken into account. The observed participants in year one in the writing class do not disagree with their lecturer in English. It is reasonably assumed that their English proficiency level is insufficient to allow them to use English to express their student-lecturer disagreements.

These four weaknesses (i) difficult content, (ii) third-language background, (iii) no classroom interaction, and (iv) learners' English proficiency level, provided useful guidelines in classroom selections for the main study. The selection of the four classrooms should follow these criteria strictly. This is to increase a possibility to acquire sufficient data from the selected classrooms because finding naturally-occurring data from natural settings can be time-consuming (Cohen, 1996; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Tseng, 1999; Yuan, 2001). If the selection of classrooms is not thoroughly made in the main study, there might not be sufficient data for the analysis.

3.5 Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, I have firstly described four groups of the populations and the samples in this study. They are (i) Thai EFL learners who were exposed to English as the medium of instruction in four courses throughout their curriculum (the EFLt), (ii) Thai EFL learners who were exposed to English as the medium of instruction in thirty-six courses throughout their curriculum (the EFLe), (iii) the native speakers of Thai (the NT), and (iv) the native speakers of English (the NE). Secondly, the information of research instruments and research procedure has been given. Regarding the use of research instruments, the primary data-collecting instrument is the videotape recorder, and the secondary data-gathering instruments are the questionnaire and the interview. Thirdly, I have described the data analysis and have introduced the taxonomy of politeness strategies used to analyze the data in the main study. Collecting the data by videotaping has allowed the researcher to investigate linguistic, paralinguistic, and non-verbal realizations of politeness strategies. Finally, I have expounded the conductions of the pilot study as enhancing the quality and efficiency of the selected classrooms for the main study.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results are reported in two dimensions in relation to the research questions of this study. In the first dimension, politeness strategies used by the Thai EFL learners are investigated. To begin with, the norms of politeness strategies used to disagree with the lecturer by native speakers of Thai (the NT) and native speakers of English (the NE) are demonstrated. After that, politeness strategies used in student-lecturer disagreements by the Thai EFL learners are shown. In the second dimension, student-lecturer disagreements performed by the Thai EFL learners who were *less frequently* exposed to English used as the medium of instruction (the EFLt) are compared with those expressed by the Thai EFL learners who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction (the EFLe).

4.1 Politeness Strategies Used in Student-Lecturer Disagreements

The first research question aims to discover what politeness strategies Thai EFL learners use when disagreeing with the lecturer in English in a classroom context. The learners were native speakers of Thai who were studying English at the university level in Thailand. Clearly, their native language was Thai and their target language was English. In order to investigate the Thai EFL learners' interlanguage production of student-lecturer disagreements, it is inevitable to study what politeness strategies native speakers of Thai use to disagree with their lecturer in Thai and what politeness strategies native speakers of English use when disagreeing with their lecturer in English. This leads to understand how native speakers of Thai and native speakers of English deal with student-lecturer disagreements in their native languages in a classroom context. In the following sections, politeness strategies used by the NT and the NE are firstly mentioned and the most frequently used sets of politeness strategies are underscored. Next, all politeness strategies used in student-lecturer disagreements by the Thai EFL learners are illustrated.

4.1.1 Native Norms

In the twenty-seven hours of classroom videotaping, the NT produced 72 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements in Thai. In the twelve hours of classroom videotaping, the NE expressed 91 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements in English. According to the analysis of politeness strategies, the NT and the NE utilized five sets of politeness strategies when disagreeing with the lecturer in their native languages. These sets of strategies were (i) bald on-record strategies, (ii) positive politeness strategies, (iii) negative politeness strategies, (iv) off-record strategies, and (v) hybrid

strategies[8]. The participants used these sets of strategies in different frequencies as enumerated in Table 4.1.

Sets of Politeness Strategies	NT		NE	
	Frequency		Frequency	
Bald On-Record Strategies	6	8.33%	**50**	**54.95%**
Positive Politeness Strategies	11	15.28%	13	14.29%
Negative Politeness Strategies	**42**	**58.33%**	11	12.08%
Off-Record Strategies	8	11.12%	8	8.79%
Hybrid Strategies	5	6.94%	9	9.89%
Total	72	100%	91	100%

Table 4.1: Politeness Strategies Used by the NT and the NE

In the 72 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements, the NT used bald on-record strategies in six tokens or 8.33 percent, positive politeness strategies in 11 tokens or 15.28 percent, negative politeness strategies in 42 tokens or 58.33 percent, off-record strategies in eight tokens or 11.12 percent, and hybrid strategies in five tokens or 6.94 percent. Obviously, the NT normally utilized negative politeness strategies when disagreeing with their lecturer in Thai. In the 91 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements, the NE utilized bald on-record strategies in 50 tokens or 54.95 percent, positive politeness strategies in 13 tokens or 14.29 percent, negative politeness strategies in 11 tokens or 12.08 percent, off-record strategies in eight tokens or 8.79 percent, and hybrid strategies in nine tokens or 9.89 percent. Clearly, the NE normally used bald on-record strategies to disagree with their lecturer in English. In the following sections, the NT's and the NE's norms are exemplified and discussed in detail.

4.1.1.1 The NT's Norm: Negative Politeness Strategies

The NT used five linguistic features to decrease the imposition of disagreements. They were (i) Modal (*/nâ:cjà/ (should)* or */ʔλ:dcjà/ (might)*), (ii) */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)*, (iii) */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)* + Modal */nâ:cjà/ (should)* or */ʔλ:dcjà/ (might)*, (iv) Question, and (v) If Clause. The NT used these linguistic features in different frequencies, as shown in Table 4.2.

[8] Realizations of hybrid strategies by native speakers of Thai and native speakers of English are illustrated in Appendix V.

Semantic Formulas	Disagreement Strategies Linguistic Features	Frequency	
Hedge	Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)*	7	16.67%
	/nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/ or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)*	13	30.95%
	/nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/ or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)* + Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)*	15	35.72%
	Question	4	9.52%
Condition	If Clause	3	7.14%
	Total	42	100%

Table 4.2: The NT's Norm

4.1.1.1.1 Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)*

The NT used modals (*/nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)*) as hedges to downgrade face-threatening aspects of their disagreements in Thai. This linguistic feature was rarely used by the NT. In the 42 tokens, */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)* was used in seven tokens or 16.67 percent. In Extract 1, a realization of negative politeness strategies an NT student used a modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* to perform a mitigated disagreement is demonstrated.

Extract 1:

1.L:	dɛ̀k	wāirûn		tʰî:	wʌ̄n	wʌ̄n	jù:	tæ̀:	rá:n	kɛ̄:m
	เด็ก	วัยรุ่น		ที่	วัน	วัน	อยู่	แต่	ร้าน	เกมส์
	child	teenagers		at	day	day	live	but	shop	game
	Teenagers who spend their entire day in a game shop									
2.L:	pʰûakní:	rêak	wâ:	sâ:ŋsĕa:		nʌ́	mâi	ʃâi	sâ:ŋsʌ̌n	
	พวกนี้	เรียก	ว่า	สร้างเสีย		นะ	ไม่	ใช่	สร้างสรรค์	
	they	call	that	disruptive		Ø	not	yes	constructive	
	are labeled as disruptive, not constructive.									
3.S:	dɛ̀k	tʰî:	jù:	rá:n	kɛ̄:m					
	เด็ก	ที่	อยู่	ร้าน	เกมส์					
	child	at	live	shop	game					
	The teenagers who stay in a game shop									
3.S:	mâi	nâ:cjʌ̀	sâ:ŋsĕa:		nʌ́	kʰʌ́	ʔā:cjā:n			
	ไม่	น่าจะ	สร้างเสีย		นะ	คะ	อาจารย์			
	not	should	disruptive		Ø	Ø	lecturer			
	should not be disruptive, professor.									
4.S:	jà:ŋnɔ́:j	kʰʌ́w	kɔ̂:	mâidâi		jûŋ	kʌ̀b	jā:sɛ̀btìd		
	อย่างน้อย	เขา	ก็	ไม่ได้		ยุ่ง	กับ	ยาเสพติด		
	at least	they	Ø	not		deal	with	drugs		
	At least, they are not involved in any drug abuse.									

Videotaped NT: January 17th, 2012

Extract 1 demonstrates how an NT student uses a modal /*nâ:cjà*/ *(should)* as a hedge to minimize the imposition of disagreement in Thai. This modal can be translated into *should* in English. The use of this linguistic feature weakens the threat of disagreement because it conveys a probability meaning (Locher, 2004, pp. 122-124), producing a less threatening disagreement. In this extract, the lecturer firstly over-generalizes that teenagers who spend days playing games in a game shop are labeled as disruptive. The lecturer's opinion is stated without any linguistic mitigation. From a student's standpoint, she disagrees with the lecturer's opinion that those teenagers are labeled as disruptive. The student uses a modal /*nâ:cjà*/ *(should)* in her statement, and makes a negative statement to perform her disagreement by inserting a negative marker /*mâi*/ in front of the modal. At the end of her disagreement, the student employs two polite particles to make her disagreement sound pleasant to the lecturer. These polite particles are (i) a particle to end a statement /*ná*/, and (ii) the polite particle for females /*kʰá*/. In addition, the student uses a professional term /*ʔā:cjā:n*/ to address the lecturer in Thai (cf. Kummer, 2005, pp. 325-331; Srisuruk, 2011, p. 12). In the following turn, the student continues to justify her disagreement that teenagers who spend times in a game shop should not be labeled as disruptive because at least they are not involved in any drug abuse. Her provision of justification is not elicited by the lecturer. It comes out immediately after the disagreement.

4.1.1.1.2 /*nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:*/ or /*pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:*/ (*I think*)

/nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/ or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)* was used as another hedge by the NT to soften the threat of their disagreements in Thai. The NT frequently used this linguistic feature. In the 42 tokens, the NT used */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)* in 13 tokens or 30.95 percent. In Extract 2, a realization of negative politeness strategies an NT student used */nŭ: kʰíd wâ:/ (I think)* is provided.

Extract 2:

1.L:	ʔāːcjāːn	wâː	tʰâː	pʰûːpʰûd	mīː	tʰʌ́ksʌ̀
	อาจารย์	ว่า	ถ้า	ผู้พูด	มี	ทักษะ
	lecturer	that	if	speaker	have	skill
	I think if a speaker has					
1.L:	pʰāːsăː	dīː	tæ̀ːktʃăːn			
	ภาษา	ดี	แตกฉาน			
	language	good	excellent			
	an excellent language skill.					
2.L:	mʌ̄n	pɛ̄n	pāidâi	sŭːŋ	tʰîː	pʰûːpʰûd	cjʌ̀
	มัน	เป็น	ไปได้	สูง	ที่	ผู้พูด	จะ
	it	is	possible	high	at	speaker	will
	It is highly possible that the speaker will						
2.L:	prʌ̀sòb	kwāːmsʌ̌mrɛ̀d	nāi	kāːntôːjǽːŋ	tʰúk kʰrʌ́ŋ		
	ประสบ	ความสำเร็จ	ใน	การโต้แย้ง	ทุกครั้ง		
	meet	success	in	arguing	every time		
	become successful in arguing every time.						
3.S:	nŭːkʰídwâː	kʰōŋ	mâi	tʰúkkʰrʌ́ŋ	nʌ́	kʰʌ́	ʔāːcjāːn=
	หนูคิดว่า	คง	ไม่	ทุกครั้ง	นะ	คะ	อาจารย์=
	I think	Ø	not	every time	Ø	Ø	lecturer=
	I think it is not every time, professor.						
4.S:	=pʰrɔ́	cjʌ̀	pʰûd	hâi	prʌ̀sòb	kwāːmsʌ̌mrɛ̀d	
	=เพราะ	จะ	พูด	ให้	ประสบ	ความสำเร็จ	
	=because	will	speak	give	meet	success	
	Because becoming successful in arguing						
4.S:	tɔ̂ːŋ	rūam	pʌ̀dcjāi	ʔù̱nʔù̱n	dŭaj		
	ต้อง	รวม	ปัจจัย	อื่นๆ	ด้วย		
	must	include	factors	others	together		
	requires other skills too.						

Videotaped NT: February 21st, 2012

Extract 2 shows how an NT student uses */nŭː kʰíd wâː/ (I think)* as a hedge to diminish the force of her disagreement in Thai. This linguistic feature can be translated as *I think* in English. The student uses a first-person pronoun /nŭː/ as a self-reference term in Thai. This pronoun displays a social hierarchy between the student and the lecturer, suggesting that the student is inferior to the lecturer (Khanittanan, 1988, pp. 357-358). In this extract, the lecturer assumes that a speaker who has an excellent language skill is highly probable to become successful in arguing every time. The lecturer prefaces his utterance with */ʔāːcjāːn wâː/* or *I think*. He adopts a professional address term */ʔāːcjāːn/* as his self-reference term. The use of this term implies that the lecturer is superior to the student in terms of an institutionalized power he has over his students. The presence of the lecturer's *I think* implies that the lecturer's opinion is less certain and thus disagreeable. The student disagrees with the lecturer that a speaker who has an excellent language skill is highly probable to

become successful in arguing every time. Her disagreement begins with */nŭ: kʰíd wâ:/ (I think)*, which is used as a hedge. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 164), *I think* is a quality hedge that can mitigate the threat of a face-threatening act. Prefacing an expression of disagreement with *I think*, her disagreement becomes less challenging because the opinion is subjective as derived from one individual speaker only. In addition, it conveys a probability meaning (cf. Locher, 2004, pp. 122-124). At the end of her disagreement, the student uses two polite particles to make her disagreement sound pleasant to the lecturer: (i) /*nʌ́*/ a particle to end a statement, and (ii) /*kʰʌ́*/ the polite particle for females. Furthermore, the student addresses the lecturer by the Thai professional term /*ʔā:cjā:n*/. After that, the student instantly gives a reason to support her disagreement that there are other factors to make a speaker successful in arguing every time. Her provision of reason is not elicited by the lecturer. It follows the disagreement immediately.

4.1.1.1.3 /*nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:*/ or /*pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:*/ (*I think*) + Modal /*nâ:cjʌ̀*/ (*should*) or /*ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀*/ (*might*)

/nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/ or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)* + Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)* was one of the linguistic features the NT used as a hedge to decrease the imposition of disagreements in Thai. This linguistic feature was used the most by the NT. In the 42 tokens, */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)* + Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)* was used in 15 tokens or 35.72 percent. In Extract 3, a realization of negative politeness strategies an NT student used this linguistic feature is shown.

Extract 3:

1.L:	pʰā:să:	ʔā:ŋkrìd	mʌ̄n	pēn	necessary evil		
	ภาษา	อังกฤษ	มัน	เป็น	necessary evil		
	language	English	it	is	necessary evil		
	English is a necessary evil.						
2.S:	(l.pause) nŭ: kʰíd wâ:		pʰā:să:	ʔā:ŋkrìd	mâi	nâ:cjʌ̀	lē:wrái:
	(l.pause) หนูคิดว่า		ภาษา	อังกฤษ	ไม่	น่าจะ	เลวร้าย
	(l.pause) I think		language	English	not	should	bad
	I think English should not be as bad						
2.S:	tʰŭŋkʰʌ̂n	pēn	evil	dâi	nʌ́	kʰʌ́	ʔā:cjā:n
	ถึงขั้น	เป็น	evil	ได้	นะ	คะ	อาจารย์
	as if	is	evil	possible	Ø	Ø	lecturer
	as evil, professor.						

Videotaped NT: March 6th, 2012

Extract 3 exhibits how an NT student uses */nŭ: kʰíd wâ:/ (I think)* + a modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* to lessen the force of her disagreement in Thai. Using this linguistic feature allows the student to mitigate the threat of her disagreement twice: (i) through

the use of */nŭ: kʰíd wâ:/* or *I think*, and (ii) through the use of */nâ:cjʌ̀/* or *should*. In this extract, the lecturer broadly presumes that English is a necessary evil. His opinion is reflected from an outsider's perspective as a non-native speaker of English. The student disagrees with him, arguing that English is not as bad as evil. Her disagreement is prefaced by *I think*, which is a quality hedge according to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 164). The use of *I think* implies that the student's opinion is subjective coming from an individual speaker. In the disagreement, the student inserts a negative marker /*mâi*/ before the modal as /*mâi nâ:cjʌ̀*/ to form a negative statement. The presence of /*mâi nâ:cjʌ̀*/ suggests that the student's disagreement is probable because the modal conveys a probability meaning (Locher, 2004, pp. 129-130). At the end of her disagreement, the student applies two polite particles to make her expression of disagreement sound pleasing to the lecturer. These particles are (i) /*nʌ́*/ a particle to end a statement, and (ii) /*kʰʌ́*/ the polite particle for females. Moreover, the student addresses the lecturer by the Thai professional term /*ʔā:cjā:n*/. The student does not further provide any reason to support her disagreement and the lecturer does not further elicit any justification from her.

4.1.1.1.4 Question

Question was one of the linguistic features the NT used to lessen the threat of their disagreements in Thai. This linguistic feature was rarely used by the NT: i.e., in four tokens from the 42 tokens or 9.52 percent. In Extract 4, a realization of negative politeness strategies an NT student used a question to disagree with the lecturer is illustrated.

Extract 4:

1.L:	pʰû:d	tʰŭŋ	ʔīntənèt	cjʌ	mī:	dèk		
	พูด	ถึง	อินเตอร์เนต	จะ	มี	เด็ก		
	say	to	internet	will	have	children		
	Talking about the internet, how many students							
1.L:	sʌ́kkì: kʰōn		tʰî:	kʰâw	pāi	hă:	kʰwā:mrú:=	
	สักกี่คน		ที่	เข้า	ไป	หา	ความรู้=	
	how many		at	enter	go	find	knowledge=	
	would log in to find knowledge?							
2.L:	=rɔ́:jtʰáŋrɔ́:j		kɔ̂:	kʰâw	pāi	lɛ̂n	kɛ̄:m	
	=ร้อยทั้งร้อย		ก็	เข้า	ไป	เล่น	เกมส์	
	=all hundred		Ø	enter	go	play	game	
	All of them use the internet to play games,							
2.L:	mâi	kɔ̂:	ʃǽd	rɯ́	pʰó:d	rû:b	tūaʔē:ŋ	
	ไม่	ก็	แชท	หรือ	โพสต์	รูป	ตัวเอง	
	not	Ø	chat	Ø	post	photo	self	
	to chat or to post their photos.							
3.S:	mʌ̄n	kʰû̄n	jù:	kʌ̀b	kʰōn	rɯ́plà:w	kʰrʌ́b	ʔā:cjā:n
	มัน	ขึ้น	อยู่	กับ	คน	หรือเปล่า	ครับ	อาจารย์
	it	up	is	with	people	or not	Ø	lecturer
	Does it depend on each person, professor?							
4.S:	bā:ŋ	kʰōn	pʰŏm	kɔ̂:	hĕn	kʰʌ́:w	kʰâw	pāi	hă:
	บาง	คน	ผม	ก็	เห็น	เขา	เข้า	ไป	หา
	some	people	I	Ø	see	them	enter	go	find
	Some of them use the internet to find some knowledge,								
4.S:	kʰwā:mrú:	pāi	tʰā̄m	rā:jŋā:n	nʌ́	kʰrʌ́b			
	ความรู้	ไป	ทำ	รายงาน	นะ	ครับ			
	knowledge	go	do	report	Ø	Ø			
	to do their reports.								

Videotaped NT: December 20th, 2011

Extract 4 elucidates how an NT student uses a question to reduce the threat of his disagreement in Thai. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 144-172), asking a question is a politeness strategy classified into negative politeness strategies because the degree of imposition can be lessened when a face-threatening act is performed. Disagreeing with the lecturer by asking him a question helps the student to mitigate the threat of disagreement because the student does not impose on the lecturer openly. In this extract, the lecturer over-generalizes that almost all students use the internet for pleasure. The lecturer gives three examples to support his argument. These examples are (i) playing games, (ii) chatting, and (iii) posting their photos. From the student's perspective, he disagrees with the lecturer that students use

the internet for pleasure. He asks whether the lecturer's over-generalization is only applicable for some persons. At the end of his disagreement, the student applies the polite particle for male /*kʰrʌ́b*/ to make his disagreement sound pleasant to the lecturer. The student also addresses the lecturer by the Thai professional term /*ʔāːcjāːn*/. He instantly provides an explanation to support his disagreement, pointing out that some students use the internet to search for knowledge and to do their projects. At the end of his explanation, the student also uses two polite particles to make his explanation sound polite to the lecturer: (i) /*nʌ́*/ a particle to end a statement, and (ii) /*kʰrʌ́b*/ the polite particle for males. The student's explanation is not elicited by the lecturer.

4.1.1.1.5 If Clause

The NT used If Clause as one of the linguistic features to make their disagreements in Thai less threatening. The If Clause was infrequently used by the NT. In the 42 tokens, it was used in three tokens or 7.14 percent. In Extract 5, a realization of negative politeness strategies an NT student used this linguistic feature is exemplified.

Extract 5:

1.L:	sə̄mă̱i		ní: (s.pause)		kʰō̱n	hâi	kwā:msʌ̌mkʰā̱n
	สมัย		นี้ (s.pause)		คน	ให้	ความสำคัญ
	period		this (s.pause)		people	give	importance
	Now, people give more importance						
1.L:	kʌ̀b	tʰɛ́knō:lō:jî:		mâ:k	kwà:	cjìdcjāi	
	กับ	เทคโนโลยี		มาก	กว่า	จิตใจ	
	with	technology		many	than	soul	
	to technology than morality.						
2.S:	tʰâ:	kʰō̱n	hâi	kʰwā:msʌ̌mkʰā̱n		kʌ̀b	tʰɛ́knō:lō:jî:
	ถ้า	คน	ให้	ความสำคัญ		กับ	เทคโนโลยี
	if	people	give	importance		with	technology
	If people give more importance to technology,						
2.S:	mâ:k	kwà:	cjīŋ cjīŋ		kʰă̱w	nâ:cjʌ̀	pʰû̱ŋpʰā:
	มาก	กว่า	จริงๆ		เขา	น่าจะ	พึ่งพา
	many	than	true		he	should	rely
	they should only rely						
2.S:	tæ̀:	tʰɛ́knō:lō:jî:		nʌ́	kʰʌ́	ʔā:cjā:n	
	แต่	เทคโนโลยี		นะ	คะ	อาจารย์	
	but	technology		Ø	Ø	lecturer	
	on technology, professor						
3.S:	(s.pause) nŭ:	wâ:	tʰɛ́knō:lō:jî:		mʌ̄n	kʰæ̂:	tʰʌ̄m
	(s.pause) หนู	ว่า	เทคโนโลยี		มัน	แค่	ทำ
	(s.pause) I	that	technology		it	just	make
	I think technology can only facilitate us						
3.S:	hâi	kʰō̱n	sʌ̀bāi	kʰû̱n			
	ให้	คน	สบาย	ขึ้น			
	give	people	comfort	up			
	and make our lives more comfortable.						

Videotaped NT: December 13th, 2011

Extract 5 demonstrates how an NT student uses an If Clause to minimize the threat of her disagreement in Thai. The structure of this conditional clause is complex, consisting of a main clause and a subordinate clause. The main clause is softened by a modal, while the subordinate clause is mitigated by a hypothetical hedge *if* (cf. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1972, pp. 97-102). This sentence structure is also applicable to the If Clause structure in Thai. In this extract, the lecturer claims that people nowadays give more importance to technology than morality. The student disagrees with him. She begins her disagreement with /*tʰâ:*/ or *if* in English. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 153) propose that *if* is a possibility marker that can decrease the level of certainty. Prefacing the utterance with this marker, the face-threatening

act of disagreement can be mitigated. The student points out that if people today put a higher value on the importance of technology, they should entirely rely on technology. In the main clause, the student also hedges her disagreement with a modal */nâ:cjʌ́/* or *should*. The presence of this modal helps minimize the threat of disagreement because it conveys a probability meaning. At the end of her disagreement, the student uses two polite particles to make her disagreement sound pleasant to the lecturer: (i) */náː/* a particle to end a statement, and (ii) */kʰáː/* the polite particle for females. In addition, the student addresses the lecturer by the Thai professional term */ʔāːcjāːn/*. The student continues to provide a personal support to justify her disagreement. She initiates her justification with */nŭː wâː/* or *I think*. The presence of this hedge suggests that her justification is subjective and thus becomes less threatening. The student contends that technology can only facilitate people to live comfortably.

4.1.1.2 The NE's Norm: Bald On-Record Strategies

The NE used five linguistic features to express their disagreements explicitly without any linguistic mitigation to the lecturer. They were (i) *No*, (ii) *No*, Negative Statement, (iii) Negative Statement, (iv) *I don't think so*, and (v) *I don't think like that*. The NE used these linguistic features in a variety of frequencies, as shown in Table 4.3.

Disagreement Strategies		Frequency	
Semantic Formula	Linguistic Features		
Explicit Contradiction	*No*	3	6.00%
	No, Negative Statement	26	52.00%
	Negative Statement	11	22.00%
	I don't think so	8	16.00%
	I don't think like that	2	4.00%
	Total	50	100%

Table 4.3: The NE's Norm

4.1.1.2.1 *No*

The NE used *No* as one of the linguistic features to disagree with their lecturer unambiguously with no linguistic mitigation in English. They seldom used this linguistic feature to perform their disagreements. In the 50 tokens, the NE used *No* in three tokens or 6.00 percent. In Extract 6, a realization of bald on-record strategies an NE student used *No* to disagree with the lecturer explicitly without any redressive action is elaborated.

Extract 6:

1. L: Speaking English is difficult
2. S: No

(the student shakes his head)

3. S: English is more systematic
4. S: (short pause) Comparing to other languages
5. S: Speaking other Asian languages (short pause) for me can be really difficult

Videotaped NE: January 29th, 2013

Extract 6 demonstrates that an NE student performs an explicit disagreement without using any softening devices to redress its face-threatening aspect. The student uses *No* to disagree with the lecturer that speaking English is difficult. Locher (2004, pp. 143-148) points out that *No*, when standing on its own, can function as a linguistic marker of non-mitigated disagreement. In this extract, the student also uses a gesture, which is the headshaking, to co-construct an intentional disagreement (cf. Sifianou, 2012). In other words, the coincidence between the verbal and the non-verbal means conveys the student's communicative intention to disagree with the lecturer unambiguously. In the following turns, the student continues to point out why he thinks speaking English is not difficult. According to his perspective, he contends that English is a systematic language. He further compares his native language with other Asian languages. Based on his personal evaluation, English is more systematic than Asian languages. He contends that speaking other Asian languages can be really difficult for him. In this extract, his justification is provided instantaneously without the lecturer's elicitation.

4.1.1.2.2 *No*, Negative Statement

No, Negative Statement was one of the linguistic features the NE used to disagree with their lecturer bluntly without any linguistic mitigation in their native language. It was used the most by the NE. In the 50 tokens, the NE used *No*, Negative Statement in 26 tokens or 52.00 percent. In Extract 7, a realization of bald on-record strategies an NE student used *No*, Negative Statement is given.

Extract 7:

1. L: Canadian accent is hard to understand=
2. S: =NO:::, it's NOT
   (the student shakes her head)
3. S: (short pause) If you find American accent easy to understand
4. S: You shouldn't have any problem listening to our accent

Videotaped NE: January 29th, 2013

Extract 7 demonstrates how an NE student disagrees with the lecturer baldly and does not use any linguistic mitigation to soften the threat of her disagreement. The student expresses her explicit contradiction by using *No*, Negative Statement. The use of this linguistic feature allows the student to perform her disagreement twice−through a negative marker *No* and through the content of disagreement. The lecturer initially assumes that the Canadian accent is hard to understand. From the student's standpoint, the Canadian accent is not difficult to understand. The student also uses the headshaking gesture to support her verbal expression of disagreement. Applying this gesture seems to construct an intentional meaning of disagreement because it occurs while the student utters the negative marker and the negative statement (cf. Locher, 2004; Sifianou, 2012). In the next turns, the student continues to clarify her disagreement by comparing her native accent with the American accent. She points out that the two accents are similar. If the lecturer finds the American accent intelligible, he will also find the Canadian accent intelligible. In turn 4, the use of the possessive adjective i.e., *our* suggests that the student broadly assumes that there is no variation in accent among the Canadians. She admits that there is no accent variation between the American accent and the Canadian accent. The student does not hesitate to justify that the Canadian accent is intelligible. Her justification comes out instantly without being elicited by the lecturer.

4.1.1.2.3 Negative Statement

The NE used Negative Statement to show their explicit contradictions to the lecturer in English. Although not the most, this linguistic feature was used frequently. In the 50 tokens, the NE used Negative Statement in 11 tokens or 22.00 percent. In Extract 8, a realization of bald on-record strategies an NE student used a negative statement to disagree with the lecturer is cited.

Extract 8:

1. L: Western foods are typically greasy
2. L: Many of them are very unhealthy (short pause) I think
3. S: They are not typically greasy

   (the student shakes her head)
4. S: (short pause) Like salads=
5. S: =They're rich in fibers and vitamins

Videotaped NE: February 19th, 2013

Extract 8 illustrates how an NE student disagrees with the lecturer baldly without using any linguistic mitigation. The student expresses her explicit contradiction through the use of a negative statement. Her expression of disagreement is nearly identical with the lecturer's utterance in the first turn. There are two observable differences between the student's disagreement and the lecturer's first utterance: (i) when the student uses the subject pronoun−they−to refer to the previous noun '*Western foods*', and (ii) when the student uses a negative marker−not−to form a negative statement. The student disagrees with the lecturer's statement that Western foods are typically greasy. She also adopts the headshaking gesture to support her verbal expression of disagreement. The co-occurrence of her verbal expression and this gesture conveys an intentional meaning of disagreement because the gesture occurs when the student utters the negative statement to perform the disagreement verbally. The student further points out that salads can be examples of non-greasy food; they are good sources of fibers and vitamins. Her justification aims to strengthen the point that Western foods are not typically greasy and some of them are healthy. In this extract, the student does not reluctantly provide the justification. It is given instantaneously without the lecturer's elicitation.

4.1.1.2.4 *I don't think so*

I don't think so was one of the linguistic features the NE used to perform their disagreements explicitly without any linguistic mitigation in English. The use of *I don't think so* was not commonly used. In the 50 tokens, it was used in eight tokens or 16.00 percent. In Extract 9, a realization of bald on-record strategies an NE student used *I don't think so* to express an explicit contradiction to the lecturer is illustrated.

Extract 9:

1. L: Western foods are very expensive=
2. S: =I don't think so
   (the student shakes his head)
3. S: McDonald's is not (laughter)

Videotaped NE: February 19th, 2013

Extract 9 demonstrates that *I don't think so* can be used to perform a non-mitigated disagreement in English. Bardovi-Harlig (2013) names this linguistic feature a fixed expression, meaning that the combination of these words is used spontaneously without being broken into smaller units. Thus, the use of this linguistic feature barely allows the student to minimize the threat. In this extract, the lecturer presumes that Western foods are very expensive. From the student's viewpoint, he disagrees that Western foods are very expensive. He also uses the headshaking gesture while uttering this linguistic feature. The co-occurrence between the verbal expression and the non-verbal expression emphasizes an intentional meaning of disagreement. In the next turn, the student provides a tangible example of a well-known hamburger restaurant to support his explicit contradiction that this Western fast food is inexpensive. In this extract, the student gives his justification promptly without any elicitation from the lecturer.

4.1.1.2.5 *I don't think like that*

I don't think like that was also one of the linguistic features the NE used to express their disagreements bluntly without any linguistic mitigation to the lecturer in their native language. It was rarely used by the NE. In the 50 tokens, *I don't think like that* was used twice or 4.00 percent. In Extract 10, a realization of bald on-record strategies an NE student used *I don't think like that* to express a contradictory opinion explicitly is exemplified.

Extract 10:

1. L: Many languages will die (short pause) because people increasingly speak English
2. S: I don't think like that
3. S: I see a lot of bilingual kids (short pause) HERE in Thailand=
4. S: =Speak perfect Thai and English

Videotaped NE: February 26th, 2013

Extract 10 exemplifies how an NE student uses *I don't think like that* to express her explicit contradiction in English. The use of this linguistic feature is similar to the use of *I don't think so* in that it barely allows the speaker to decrease the threat of disagreement. This linguistic feature is fixed (cf. Bardovi-Harlig, 2013), and thus becomes unusual to be softened by any linguistic mitigation. From the speaker's point of view, she disagrees with the lecturer that many languages will disappear because English has become widely spoken. She gives an example of Thai bilingual children who are fluent speakers in both languages−Thai and English. Her personal example clearly supports her disagreement that an increasing number of people speaking English do not necessarily decrease the number of people speaking their mother language. Based on her personal observation, bilingual children in Thailand are good examples of people who preserve their native language from extinction. In this extract, the student's provision of an example is not elicited by the lecturer. In fact, it comes out instantly after the student's performance of disagreement.

4.1.2 Politeness Strategies Used by the Thai EFL Learners

In the twenty-seven hours of classroom videotaping, the EFLt produced 67 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements in English, while the EFLe expressed 61 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements in English. The analysis of politeness strategies revealed that both groups of the learners used four sets of politeness strategies to disagree with their lecturer in the target language. These sets of strategies were (i) bald on-record strategies, (ii) positive politeness strategies, (iii) negative politeness strategies, and (iv) off-record strategies. Thai EFL learners used these sets of politeness strategies in different frequencies, as shown in Table 4.4.

Sets of Politeness Strategies	EFLt		EFLe	
	Frequency		Frequency	
Bald On-Record Strategies	11	16.42%	**39**	**63.93%**
Positive Politeness Strategies	8	11.94%	7	11.47%
Negative Politeness Strategies	**44**	**65.67%**	12	19.68%
Off-Record Strategies	4	5.97%	3	4.92%
Total	67	100%	61	100%

Table 4.4: Politeness Strategies Used by the EFLt and the EFLe

In the 67 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements, the EFLt utilized bald on-record strategies in 11 tokens or 16.42 percent, positive politeness strategies in eight tokens or 11.94 percent, negative politeness strategies in 44 tokens or 65.67 percent, and off-record strategies in four tokens of 5.97 percent. Evidently, the EFLt used negative politeness strategies as their norm when disagreeing with the lecturer. In the 61 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements, the EFLe used bald on-record strategies in 39 tokens or 63.93 percent, positive politeness strategies in seven tokens or 11.47 percent, negative politeness strategies in 12 tokens or 19.68 percent, and off-record strategies in three tokens or 4.92 percent. Visibly, the EFLe used bald on-record

strategies as their norm when disagreeing with the lecturer. In the following sections, the learners' realizations of each set of politeness strategies are demonstrated and discussed in detail. The realizations of all politeness strategies are exemplified with naturally-occurring data videotaped from the EFLt's and the EFLe's classrooms between June 2012 and September 2012.

4.1.2.1 Bald On-Record Strategies

There were six linguistic features the Thai EFL learners used to perform their disagreements unambiguously without any linguistic mitigation in the target language. They were (i) *No*, (ii) *No*, Negative Statement, (iii) Negative Statement, (iv) *I disagree*, (v) *I don't think so*, and (vi) *I don't think like that*. The EFLt used three linguistic features to perform their non-mitigated disagreements: (i) *No*, (ii) *No*, Negative Statement, (iii) Negative Statement. The EFLe, on the other hand, utilized all of the aforementioned linguistic features to perform their disagreements baldly. Realizations of bald on-record strategies the Thai EFL learners used different linguistic features are summarized in Table 4.5. The summary also demonstrates how often each linguistic feature was used by the learners.

Disagreement Strategies		EFLt		EFLe	
Semantic Formula	Linguistic Features	Frequency		Frequency	
Explicit Contradiction	*No*	9	81.82%	25	64.10%
	No, Negative Statement	1	9.09%	5	12.82%
	Negative Statement	1	9.09%	4	10.25%
	I disagree	-	-	1	2.57%
	I don't think so	-	-	3	7.69%
	I don't think like that	-	-	1	2.57%
	Total	11	100%	39	100%

Table 4.5: Bald On-Record Strategies Used by the EFLt and the EFLe

4.1.2.1.1 *No*

Both groups of the Thai EFL learners used *No* to express their explicit disagreements without any linguistic mitigation in English. This linguistic feature was used the most by the Thai EFL learners. In the 11 tokens, the EFLt used *No* in nine tokens or 81.82 percent. In a similar vein, the EFLe used *No* to express their blunt disagreements in 25 tokens from the 39 tokens or 64.10 percent. Realizations of bald on-record strategies using *No* to disagree with the lecturer unambiguously by an EFLt student and an EFLe student are shown in Extracts 11 and 12.

Extract 11:

1. L: Why English is difficult for Thai students(/)
2. Ss: (silent)
3. L: (long pause) I THINK Thai students don't like English
4. S: (P)No(P)

(the student shakes his head)

Videotaped EFLt: July 10th, 2012

Extract 11 shows how an EFLt student uses *No* to express his explicit contradiction to the lecturer in English. Using this linguistic feature, the student successfully disagrees with the lecturer although he does not provide content of disagreement. In this extract, the student does not mitigate the threat of his disagreement. His expression of disagreement is triggered by the lecturer's personal generalization that Thai students do not like English. From the student's point of view, he disagrees with the lecturer. Although the student does not use any linguistic mitigation to soften the threat, his disagreement is uttered in soft volume, producing a less threatening disagreement. According to Rees-Miller (2000, pp. 1094-1095), and Kakava (2002, pp. 1548-1562), this paralinguistic feature enables the speaker to lessen the threat of verbal disagreements. The student also uses the headshaking gesture to support his verbal disagreement. The co-occurrence between the gesture and the verbal contradiction stresses an intentional meaning of disagreement. In this extract, the student does not give any justification to explain to the lecturer why he thinks Thai students like English.

Extract 12:

1. L: What's the difference between iPhone and iPhone copy
2. Ss: (silent)
3. L: (@)iPhone copy is better than the original one(@)
4. S: (@)NO:::(@)

(the student shakes his head)

Videotaped EFLe: September 5th, 2012

Extract 12 demonstrates that an EFLe student uses *No* to disagree with the lecturer bluntly in English. The student disagrees with the lecturer that an iPhone copy is better than the original one. In the realization, the student does not use any linguistic mitigation to decrease the threat of his disagreement. On the contrary, his disagreement is stressed by the use of the vowel lengthening and is expressed in loud volume. These paralinguistic features can strengthen the threat of disagreement (cf. Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). However, this

linguistic feature is expressed in a playful tone, producing a less threatening disagreement. The reason why the student performs his disagreement in a humorous tone may lie in the fact that the student's expression of disagreement is triggered by an ironic assumption that iPhone copy is better than the original. The lecturer also teased the students in a humorous tone, producing a pleasant atmosphere and fostering group solidarity between them (cf. Glenn, 2003, p. 16; Wharton, 2009, p. 141). The student also shakes his head while encoding this linguistic feature to emphasize his intention to disagree with the lecturer. The co-presence between the gesture and the verbal expression of *No* conveys an intentional meaning of disagreement.

4.1.2.1.2 *No*, Negative Statement

This linguistic feature was used by the EFLt and the EFLe when they disagreed with their lecturer unambiguously and did not use any linguistic mitigation to soften the threat in English. This linguistic feature was used less than 15 percent. In the 11 tokens, the EFLt used *No*, Negative Statement only once or 9.09 percent. In a similar fashion, the EFLe used this linguistic feature in five tokens from the 39 tokens or 12.82 percent. Realizations of bald on-record strategies using *No*, Negative Statement to express unambiguous disagreements to the lecturer in English by an EFLt student and an EFLe student are illustrated in Extracts 13 and 14.

Extract 13:

1. L: Thai teachers think *easygoing* is negative
2. S: (short pause) (P)No(P) They don't think it's negative
   (the student shakes his head)
3. L: Are you sure(/)
4. S: (long pause) I am not sure (laughter)

Videotaped EFLt: August 7th, 2012

Extract 13 exemplifies how an EFLt student uses *No*, Negative Statement to show his explicit contradiction to the lecturer. The student uses this linguistic feature without utilizing any linguistic mitigation to diminish the threat of disagreement. From the student's view point, he disagrees with the lecturer that Thai teachers think an adjective−*easygoing*−is negative. The use of this linguistic feature allows the student to express his disagreement twice: (i) through a negative marker *No*, and (ii) through content of disagreement in a negative statement. The student's negative statement showing an explicit contradiction is structurally identical to the lecturer's utterance except for the use of the two pronouns to refer to the previous nouns, which are (i) *Thai teachers*, and (ii) *easygoing*. Although the student does not decrease the threat of disagreement verbally, his contradiction is expressed in soft volume. Additionally, the student reluctantly expresses the disagreement, which is prefaced by a short pause. The use of these paralinguistic features is able to soften the threat of

verbal disagreements (cf. Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095) because the threat is softened by a delay and is expressed softly. In addition, the student adopts the headshaking gesture to support his verbal disagreement. He shakes his head while encoding *No*. This gesture is not continued when the student utters the negative statement. The co-occurrence between this gesture and *No* emphasize an intentional meaning of disagreement. In the following turn, the lecturer elicits the student's justification with a closed-ended question. The student does not immediately respond to the lecturer, and finally admits to the lecturer that he is not certain whether his explicit contradiction is valid. By admitting that he is uncertain, the student finally laughs at himself. The presence of this laughter helps save the student's own face because failing to defend his disagreement threatens the student's positive face.

Extract 14:

1. L: An aisle seat is better than a window seat
2. S: (short pause) No (short pause) (P)the aisle seat is not better(P)
   (the student shakes her head)
3. L: (long pause) In what way you think the window seat is better
4. S: (short pause) Well they can look out the window

Videotaped EFLe: August 15th, 2012

Extract 14 illustrates how an EFLe student uses *No,* Negative Statement to disagree with the lecturer explicitly in English. The use of this linguistic feature allows the student to show her disagreement twice: (i) through *No*–the non-mitigated disagreement (cf. Locher, 2004, pp. 131-135), and (ii) through a negative statement. The student's negative statement appears to be structurally similar to the lecturer's preceding statement. The student argues that an aisle seat on an airplane is not better than a window seat. Although the student does not use any linguistic mitigation to lessen the threat of disagreement, she reluctantly disagrees with the lecturer. Her expressions of *No* and the negative statement are delayed. In addition, she encodes the negative statement in soft volume. According to Rees-Miller (2000, pp. 1094-1095) and Kakava (2002, pp. 1548-1562), these paralinguistic features have potential to reduce the threat of disagreements. The student also shakes her head while uttering *No*, but does not support the negative statement with the headshaking gesture. The occurrence of this gesture stresses the student's communicative intention to disagree with the lecturer. In this extract, the student does not instantaneously give a reason to support her explicit contradiction. After a long pause, the lecturer elicits a justification from the student by an open-ended question–'*in what way you think the window seat is better*.' The student answers to the lecturer that people sitting next to the window are able to look out. The student's provision of justification is not instantly provided. It is elicited by the lecturer.

4.1.2.1.3 Negative Statement

The Thai EFL learners both used Negative Statement to perform their disagreements bluntly in English. This linguistic feature was not often used by the learners. In the 11 tokens, the EFLt used Negative Statement only once or 9.09 percent. Similarly, the EFLe used this linguistic feature in four tokens from the 39 tokens or 10.25 percent. Realizations of bald on-record strategies using Negative Statement to disagree with the lecturer explicitly by an EFLt student and an EFLe student are shown in Extracts 15 and 16.

Extract 15:

1. L: Thai kids do not like going to a museum=
2. L: =IT'S boring
3. S: (P)It's not boring(P)
4. L: Really(/) (short pause) but why they don't like going to the museum
5. S: (short pause) Expensive tickets (laughter)

Videotaped EFLt: August 21st, 2012

Extract 15 describes how an EFLt student uses a negative statement to reveal her explicit contradiction to the lecturer in English. The lecturer initially establishes that Thai children do not like going to a museum. He contends that going to a museum is boring for Thai children. The student disagrees with the lecturer that going to a museum is boring for Thai children. She does not use any linguistic mitigation to soften the threat of her disagreement. However, her disagreement is softened by a paralinguistic feature because it is expressed in soft volume (cf. Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). The student's statement is structurally similar to the lecturer's preceding utterance in turn 2, except that it is expressed in a negative statement. In turn 4, the lecturer asks the student whether she really thinks going to a museum is not boring for Thai children. The student does not immediately give an answer to the lecturer. Thus, the lecturer further elicits the student's response by an open-ended question−'*why they don't like going to the museum*.' The student answers to the lecturer that expensive tickets make it less possible for Thai children to go to a museum. After providing a reason to support her unambiguous disagreement, the student laughs at herself, promoting group solidarity between the student and the lecturer after the disagreement has been performed.

Extract 16:

1. L: A lot of Thai people want to talk about their income
2. L: (short pause) Like how much they earn per month
3. S: (long pause) (P)They don't wanna talk about it(P)=
4. S: =It's a secret (laughter)

Videotaped EFLe: July 11th, 2012

Extract 16 shows how an EFLe student uses a negative statement to disagree with the lecturer unambiguously. In this extract, the lecturer firstly assumes that many Thai people want to talk about their income. He further explains that income can be in the form of a salary that people receive every month. Based on the student's standpoint, he thinks the lecturer's assumption is mistaken. The student disagrees with the lecturer that a lot of Thai people want to talk about their income. His negative statement is structurally similar to the lecturer's utterance in turn 1 except for the use of pronouns to refer to the previous nouns: *a lot of Thai people* and *their income*. Although the student does not use any linguistic mitigation to soften the threat of disagreement, he prefaces his disagreement with a long pause and disagrees with the lecturer in soft volume. According to Rees-Miller (2000, pp. 1094-1095), and Kakava (2002, pp. 1548-1562) disagreements uttered with these paralinguistic features become less threatening. In this extract, the student instantly gives an explanation to the lecturer why he thinks many of the Thai people do not want to talk about their income. He contends that talking about one's income is a secret. At the end of his utterance, the student laughs at himself. The presence of laughter here fosters their in-group solidarity, producing a less severe atmosphere after the student has performed his student-lecturer disagreement.

4.1.2.1.4 *I disagree*

I disagree was not used by the EFLt when they disagreed with the lecturer in English. The EFLe, on the other hand, used *I disagree*, albeit rarely, to show their explicit contradiction to the lecturer. In the 39 tokens, *I disagree* was used only once or 2.57 percent. A realization of bald on-record strategies using *I disagree* to show an explicit contradiction to the lecturer in English by an EFLe student is presented in Extract 17.

Extract 17:

1. L: Bangkok is an expensive city
2. S: (short pause) I I (short pause) disagree
3. L: (long pause) Why
4. S: (short pause) (P)Everything is cheap in Bangkok(P)

Videotaped EFLe: July 11th, 2012

Extract 17 illustrates how an EFLe student uses *I disagree* to exhibit an explicit contradiction to the lecturer in English. The use of this linguistic feature is fixed (cf. Bardovi-Harlig, 2013) and thus is barely softened by any linguistic mitigation. The student uses *I disagree* to express an explicit contradiction to the lecturer that Bangkok is not an expensive city. Although the content of disagreement is not stated, there is no ambiguity in the student's intention to disagree with the lecturer. In this extract, the student does not use any linguistic mitigation, but he expresses his disagreement reluctantly. The presence of *I think* is prefaced by a short pause. In addition, the student has a false start repeating the subject pronoun *I*. There is another short pause before the performative verb is uttered. In this extract, the student does not instantaneously provide a justification to support his contradictory opinion. After another short pause, the lecturer elicits the student's justification by an open-ended question. The student finally answers to the lecturer that everything in Bangkok is cheap to support his opinion that Bangkok is not an expensive city. His provision of justification is delivered in soft volume, suggesting that he might not be absolutely confident about his reason.

4.1.2.1.5 *I don't think so*

I don't think so was not used by the EFLt to disagree with the lecturer in English. In contrast, the EFLe used this linguistic feature to disagree with their lecturer explicitly but it was used less than 10 percent. In the 39 tokens, the EFLe used *I don't think so* in three tokens or 7.69 percent. A realization of bald on-record strategies using *I don't think so* by an EFLe is quoted in Extract 18.

Extract 18:

1. L: Thai tropical fruits are delicious=
2. L:=Especially durians
3. S: (short pause) I don't think so (laughter)

Videotaped EFLe: August 22nd, 2012

Extract 18 demonstrates how an EFLe student uses *I don't think so* to communicate his explicit contradiction to the lecturer in English. Although content of disagreement is not stated, the use of this linguistic feature can successfully express an unambiguous intention of disagreement. Bardovi-Harlig (2009, 2013) refers to this linguistic feature as a fixed expression in that it is memorized as a chunk. In this, the student does not split *I don't think so* into smaller units. As a consequence, it is less likely to be softened by any linguistic mitigation. The student disagrees with the lecturer that durians, known as famous Thai fruit, are delicious. Although his expression of disagreement is not lessened by any linguistic mitigation, *I don't think so* is prefaced by a short pause. The presence of this paralinguistic feature helps mitigate the threat of disagreement to some extent because the performance of disagreement is delayed. In addition, the student laughs at himself after expressing his student-lecturer disagreement. The use of laughter helps foster their in-group solidarity, making the foregoing disagreement less threatening to the lecturer (cf. Glenn, 2003; Wharton, 2009).

4.1.2.1.6 *I don't think like that*

The EFLt did not use *I don't think like that* to disagree with the lecturer baldly in English. However, the EFLe used this linguistic feature, although barely. In the 39 tokens, *I don't think like that* was used only once or 2.57 percent. A realization of bald on-record strategies using *I don't think like that* by an EFLe student is illustrated in Extract 19.

Extract 19:

1. L: Thai students usually sit in the back of the class=
2. L: =I think they don't want to participate in class activities
3. S: (short pause) I don't think like that
4. L: (long pause) But why don't they participate in class activities
5. S: (short pause) I don't know

Videotaped EFLe: July 11th, 2012

Extract 19 shows how an EFLe student uses *I don't think like that* to perform her disagreement to the lecturer in English. Based on the lecturer's observation, Thai students usually sit in the back of the classroom. He further assumes that the students sitting in the back of the class do not want to participate in classroom activities. From the student's viewpoint, he disagrees with the lecturer's assumption. Even though there is no content of disagreement, using *I don't think like that* allows the student to state an unambiguous contradiction to the lecturer that Thai students who typically sit in the back of the classroom do want to participate in classroom activities. This linguistic feature is comparable to (i) *I disagree*, and (ii) *I don't think so* because all of them are memorized as unbreakable units (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009, 2013). Thus, the

student does not modify this linguistic feature in order to soften its threat. Although there are no linguistic mitigation used to lessen the threat, *I don't think like that* is uttered after a short pause. The presence of this paralinguistic feature has potential to minimize the threat to some degree because the performance of disagreement is delayed. The student does not initially give a reason to support her explicit contradiction. After a long pause, the lecturer elicits the student's response by asking her with an open-ended question '*But why don't they participate in class activity*.' The student cannot give a reason to support her disagreement. She admits that she does not know why Thai students sitting in the back of the classroom do not want to participate in classroom activities.

4.1.2.2 Positive Politeness Strategies

There were three linguistic features the Thai EFL learners used to express their disagreements unambiguously but attempted to save the lecturer's positive face. They were (i) *I agree but…*, (ii) *Yes, but…*, and (iii) *It's good, but…*. The EFLt used two linguistic features to express their mitigated disagreements to maintain the lecturer's positive face: (i) *Yes, but…*, and (ii) *It's good, but…*. The EFLe, on the other hand, utilized all of the above-mentioned linguistic features. The realizations of positive politeness strategies using different linguistic features by the Thai EFL learners are summarized in Table 4.6. The summary also indicates how often each linguistic feature was used.

Disagreement Strategies		EFLt		EFLe	
Semantic Formulas	Linguistic Features	Frequency		Frequency	
Partial Agreement	*I agree but…*	-	-	1	14.28%
	Yes, but…	5	62.50%	4	57.14%
Positive Initiation	*It's good but...*	3	37.50%	2	28.58%
	Total	8	100%	7	100%

Table 4.6: Positive Politeness Strategies Used by the EFLt and the EFLe

4.1.2.2.1 *I agree, but…*

The EFLt did not use *I agree, but…* when disagreeing with their lecturer in the target language. Oppositely, the EFLe used this linguistic feature to initially agree with the lecturer before expressing their disagreements in English. However, the EFLe rarely used *I agree, but….* In the seven tokens, it was used only once or 14.28 percent. A realization of positive politeness strategies using *I agree, but…* by an EFLe student is presented in Extract 20.

Extract 20:

1. L: There are many international schools in Pattaya=
2. L: =Only Farang's kids go to international schools
3. S: (short pause) (P)I agree(P) (short pause) but many Thai parents also send their kids to international schools too

Videotaped EFLe: August 29th, 2012

Extract 20 displays how an EFLe student uses *I agree, but…* to show a partial agreement with the lecturer before disagreeing with him in English. The use of this linguistic feature can save the lecturer's positive face because the student initially acknowledges the lecturer's want to be liked. In this extract, the lecturer mentions a piece of fact based on his personal observation that there are a lot of international schools in Pattaya. He further presumes only children from western families go to these international schools. From the student's standpoint, he thinks many Thai parents also send their kids to international schools in Pattaya. The student does not instantly express his disagreement. He firstly indicates his partial agreement uttering *I agree* to reveal his intention not to threaten the lecturer's positive face immediately. The expression of agreement is encoded in soft volume and is prefaced by a short pause, suggesting that the student may not entirely agree with the lecturer that only children from western families go to international schools in Pattaya. In addition, the student seems reluctant to disagree with the lecturer, as his performance of disagreement is also prefaced with another short pause. After the pause, the student disagrees with the lecturer spontaneously without any hesitation that only children from western families go to international schools in Pattaya.

4.1.2.2.2 *Yes, but…*

Both groups of the Thai EFL learners used *Yes, but…* the most, showing a partial agreement to save the lecturer's positive face when disagreeing in English. In the eight tokens, the EFLt used this linguistic feature in five tokens or 62.50 percent. In the seven tokens, the EFLe used *Yes, but…* in four tokens or 57.14 percent. Realizations of positive politeness strategies using *Yes, but…* to partially show an agreement before disagreeing with the lecturer by an EFLt student and an EFLe student are demonstrated in Extracts 21 and 22.

Extract 21:

1. L: I think a lot of Thai teachers are very strict
2. S: (short pause) Yes, but not a lot
3. L: Really(/)
4. S: A lot of them (short pause) a lot of them are nice

Videotaped EFLt: August 14th, 2012

Extract 21 exemplifies how an EFLt student uses *Yes, but…* to disagree with the lecturer in English. According to Bardovi-Harlig (2009, 2013), this linguistic feature is a face-saving formula to mitigate the threat of disagreement. The presence of *Yes* clearly indicates a partial agreement with the lecturer's preceding opinion. In this extract, the lecturer surmises that many of the Thai teachers are very strict. According to the student's point of view, there are not many Thai teachers who are very strict. The use of *Yes, but…* allows the student to postpone her expression of disagreement in order to save the lecturer's positive face. In addition, the student pauses for a short while before uttering *Yes, but…*. In her disagreement, the student uses a negative marker−not−to produce a negative phrase, indicating that not a lot of Thai teachers are very strict. The teacher seems to disagree with the student and asks whether the student really thinks only few Thai teachers are very strict. In turn 4, the student contends that a lot of Thai teachers are nice. At the beginning of her justification, the student says '*A lot of them*' twice. This repetition may suggest that the student attempts to come up with another expression to describe the Thai teachers' personality in a positive way. Finally, the adjective '*nice*' is used as an antonym of '*strict*' to describe a positive character of many Thai teachers.

Extract 22:

1. L: Taxi drivers in Bangkok speak broken English=
2. S: =Yes, (short pause) but some of them speak English so well
3. S: I heard (short pause) there are free English lessons for taxi drivers

Videotaped EFLe: August 22nd, 2012

Extract 22 demonstrates how an EFLe student uses *Yes, but…* to show a partial agreement before disagreeing with the lecturer in English. The use of this linguistic feature allows the student to postpone her disagreement. In this extract, the lecturer over-generalizes that taxi drivers in Bangkok speak broken English. The student instantaneously responds to the lecturer's generalization but does not instantly disagree with him. The student uses *Yes, but…* to maintain the lecturer's positive face. The presence of *Yes* at first suggests that the student agrees with the lecturer's opinion. In other words, she acknowledges the lecturer's want to be liked by agreeing with the lecturer that taxi drivers in Bangkok speak broken English. However, the

statement after *but* displays her disagreement. From the student's perspective, some taxi drivers in Bangkok speak English well. The presence of '*some*' clearly indicates that not all taxi drivers in Bangkok speak broken English. The student does not use the same adjective '*broken*' to describe taxi drivers' English ability. Instead, she uses an adverbial phrase '*so well*' to modify the main verb. The student further informs the lecturer that there are free English lessons provided for taxi drivers implying a reason why some of them can speak English well. In this extract, her provision of justification is not elicited by the lecturer. Instead, it comes out instantaneously.

4.1.2.2.3 *It's good, but…*

Both groups of the Thai EFL learners used *It's good, but…* to perform their mitigated disagreements aiming to maintain the lecturer's positive face. In the eight tokens, the EFLt used *It's good, but…* in three tokens or 37.50 percent. In the same vein, the EFLe used this linguistic feature to express their mitigated disagreements in two tokens from the seven tokens or 28.58 percent. The uses of *It's good, but…* to maintain the lecturer's positive face by both groups of the learners are demonstrated in Extracts 23 and 24.

Extract 23:

1. L: I think Thai students like their uniforms
2. S: The uniform is good (short pause) but students do not like it
3. L: (short pause) Why they don't like it(/)
4. S: Wearing the uniform every day is boring

Videotaped EFLt: September 4th, 2012

Extract 23 illustrates how an EFLt student uses *It's good, but…* to disagree with the lecturer in English. The student does not immediately disagree with the lecturer but initially provides a positive comment to maintain the lecturer's positive face. In this extract, the lecturer assumes that Thai students like their uniforms. From the student's perspective, he disagrees with the lecturer that Thai students like their uniform. The student states that the uniform itself is good but Thai students do not like it. The expression of a positive comment makes it manifest that the lecturer and the student share a mutual acceptance of the uniform. After the presence of *but*, the student disagrees with the lecturer explicitly. This expression of disagreement is delayed by a short pause, showing that the student is hesitant to reveal his explicit contradiction to the lecturer. After another short pause, the lecturer elicits a justification from the student, asking why he thinks Thai students do not like their uniforms. The student gives as a reason that wearing a uniform every day is boring.

Extract 24:

1. L: Learning to speak a third language is a huge advantage
2. S: It's good to speak another language but it is a waste of time and effort (laughter)

Videotaped EFLe: August 29th, 2012

Extract 24 shows how an EFLe student uses *It's good, but…* to disagree with the lecturer in English. The use of this linguistic feature allows the student to postpone his expression of disagreement. In this regard, the student is able to maintain the lecturer's positive face by giving a positive comment to acknowledge the lecturer's want. The lecturer firstly contends that learning to speak a third language is a huge advantage. The student initially comments on the lecturer's opinion in a positive way that learning to speak another language apart from his native language, which is Thai, and his target language, which is English, is good. However, the student does not think it is a huge advantage to learn a third language. After the presence of *but*, the student does not reluctantly admit to the lecturer that learning to speak an additional language is a waste of time and effort. At the end of his disagreement, the student laughs at himself. The use of this paralinguistic feature helps foster their mutual solidarity, making his foregoing disagreement less intrusive (cf. Glenn, 2003; Wharton, 2009).

4.1.2.3 Negative Politeness Strategies

There were eight linguistic features the Thai EFL learners used to express their disagreements bluntly, but attempted to minimize the imposition of their disagreements in order to save the lecturer's negative face. These linguistic features were (i) Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*), (ii) Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*), (iii) Modal (*should, might*), (iv) Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), (v) *I think*, (vi) *I think* + Modal (*should, might*), (vii) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), and (viii) Question. Neither of the learners used all of the aforesaid linguistic features. The EFLt used five linguistic features to save the lecturer's negative face: (i) Modal (*should, might*), (ii) Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), (iii) *I think*, (iv) *I think* + Modal (*should, may*), (v) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*). The EFLe, on the other hand, used seven linguistic features: (i) Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*), (ii) Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*), (iii) Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), (iv) *I think*, (v) *I think* + Modal (*should, might*), (vi) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), and (vii) Question. The realizations of negative politeness strategies using different linguistic features as hedges by the Thai EFL learners are summarized in Table 4.7. The Table also includes the frequencies each linguistic feature was used by the Thai EFL learners.

Disagreement Strategies		EFLt		EFLe	
Semantic Formula	Linguistic Features	Frequency		Frequency	
Hedge	Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*)	-	-	4	33.34%
	Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*)	-	-	2	16.67%
	Modal (*should, might*)	7	15.91%	-	-
	Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)	2	4.54%	1	8.33%
	I think	16	36.37%	1	8.33%
	I think + Modal (*should, might*)	15	34.09%	1	8.33%
	I think + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)	4	9.09%	1	8.33%
	Question	-	-	2	16.67%
Total		44	100%	12	100%

Table 4.7: Negative Politeness Strategies Used by the EFLt and the EFLe

4.1.2.3.1 Verb of Uncertainty *(seem, tend)*

The EFLt did not use any verb of uncertainty (*seem, tend*) as a hedge to minimize the imposition of their disagreements in English. Differently, the EFLe used this linguistic feature to diminish the imposition of their disagreements the most. In the 12 tokens, the EFLe used verbs of uncertainty to soften their disagreements in four tokens or 33.34 percent. In Extract 25, a realization of negative politeness strategies using a verb of uncertainty (*tend*) by an EFLe student is illustrated.

Extract 25:

1. L: Ronaldo is qualified to be the best football player this year
2. S: (short pause) He tends to be disqualified
3. L: Really(/) (short pause) In what way=
4. S: =Well (short pause) he was a better player last year

Videotaped EFLe: August 15th, 2012

Extract 25 exemplifies how an EFLe student uses a verb of uncertainty (*tend*) as a hedge to minimize the imposition of his disagreement in English. The use of this linguistic feature can lessen the threat of disagreement, which is expressed with a lesser degree of certainty (Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). In this extract, the lecturer talks about Ronaldo−a prominent football figure. The lecturer contends that Ronaldo deserves to be rated the best football player this year. The student disagrees with the lecturer that Ronaldo is qualified to be the best football player this year. He then expresses his disagreement explicitly but uses *tend* to convey uncertainty in his contradiction, producing a less imposing disagreement. In addition, the student adopts a paralinguistic feature to delay his disagreement. The use of this short pause has potential to decrease the threat (cf. Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). The lecturer further questions the student why he thinks Ronaldo is not qualified this year. The

student does not immediately respond to the lecturer's elicitation. After another short pause, the lecturer continues to elicit the student's response with an open-ended question. The student finally gives a reason to support his disagreement that Ronaldo was a better player last year. The student does not rapidly give the reason to the lecturer. It is prefaced by a hesitation marker, *well* (cf. Locher, 2004, pp. 117-118) and another short pause.

4.1.2.3.2 Downtoner *(sort of, kind of)*

Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*) was never used by the EFLt to downgrade the threat of their disagreements in the target language. Oppositely, the EFLe used this linguistic feature as a hedge to minimize the imposition of their disagreements. Nonetheless, the EFLe irregularly used downtoners (*sort of, kind of*). It was used twice from the 12 tokens or 16.67 percent. A realization of negative politeness strategies using a downtoner (*kind of*) as a hedge to diminish the threat of disagreement by an EFLe student is exemplified in Extract 26.

Extract 26:

1. L: Learning to speak French after English is not difficult
2. S: (short pause) It's kind of difficult learning to speak two different languages

Videotaped EFLe: September 12th, 2012

Extract 26 shows how an EFLe student uses a downtoner (*kind of*) to soften the imposition of his disagreement in English. Using this linguistic feature, the student can make a minimal assumption (cf. Rees-Miller, 2000, p. 1095), which creates a small threat. In this extract, the lecturer contends that learning to speak French after English is not difficult. The student disagrees with the lecturer. Although the student expressed his communicative intention to disagree with the lecturer explicitly, his disagreement is hedged by *kind of*. The presence of this linguistic feature in the student's disagreement helps diminish the imposition of disagreement. As a consequence, the lecturer's negative face can be saved. In addition, the student does not straightforwardly reveal his mitigated disagreement to the lecturer after the lecturer's turn. His expression of disagreement is delayed by a short pause. The use of this paralinguistic feature can reduce the threat of disagreement to a certain degree because the student does not impose on the lecturer's face immediately (cf. Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Locher, 2004, pp. 114-142; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095).

4.1.2.3.3 Modal (*should, might*)

The EFLt used a modal (*should, might*) as a hedge to downgrade the threat of their disagreements in English, but the EFLe did not use this linguistic feature. The

EFLt used this linguistic feature in seven tokens from the 44 tokens or 15.91 percent. Extract 27 presents a realization of negative politeness strategies an EFLt student used a modal (*should*).

Extract 27:

1. L: Thailand is too hot in December
2. S: (short pause) (P)It shouldn't be too hot(P)
3. S: December is winter in Thailand */kʰʌ̂ ʔāːcjāːn/*

Videotaped EFLt: July 3rd, 2012

Extract 27 shows how an EFLt student uses a modal (*should*) to reduce the force of her disagreement in English. In this extract, the lecturer makes an explicit assumption that the weather in Thailand during December is too hot. From the student's perspective, she disagrees with the lecturer that the weather at that period of time in Thailand is too hot. Although the student performs her disagreement explicitly, the force of her disagreement is redressed by *should*. Following Locher (2004, pp. 129-130), this linguistic feature is a mitigating device that can be used to minimize the face-threat of disagreements. It conveys a hypothetical meaning (cf. Quirk et al., 1972, pp. 97-102). In addition to the use of this linguistic feature, the student also adopts two different paralinguistic features. The student does not disagree with the lecturer instantly after the lecturer's turn. Her disagreement is prefaced by a short pause. Moreover, the student expresses her disagreement in soft volume. According to Kakava (2002, pp. 1548-1562) and Rees-Miller (2000, pp. 1094-1095), the presence of these paralinguistic features helps minimize the threat of disagreement because it is performed in a less threatening manner. In this extract, the student gives a reason to support her disagreement without being elicited by the lecturer. The student says that December is the winter season in Thailand. For this reason, the temperature in December should not be too hot. At the end of her utterance, the student directly code-switches to her native language and adopts one polite particle and addresses the lecturer with a Thai professional term to make her disagreement sound pleasant to the lecturer (Kummer, 2005, pp. 325-331; Srisuruk, 2011, p. 12).

4.1.2.3.4 Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)

Both groups of the Thai EFL learners used adverbs (*perhaps, maybe*) as hedges to minimize the imposition of their disagreements in English. They both rarely used this linguistic feature. The EFLt used this linguistic feature twice from the 44 tokens or 4.54 percent, and the EFLe used an adverb (*perhaps, maybe*) once from the 12 tokens or 8.33 percent. In Extracts 28 and 29, realizations of negative politeness strategies using an adverb (*perhaps, maybe*) by an EFLt student and an EFLe student are demonstrated.

Extract 28:

1. L: Thai people do not speak English because they are too shy
2. S: (long pause) (P)Maybe not(P)
3. L: (short pause) Really(/) SO why they don't speak English
4. S: It is difficult for them (laughter) (@)and for me(@)

Videotaped EFLt: July 10th, 2012

Extract 28 describes how an EFLt student uses an adverb, (*maybe*) as a hedge to minimize the threat of his disagreement. In this extract, the lecturer gives a reason to support his opinion that Thai people are too shy to speak English. From the student's standpoint, he disagrees that the lecturer's reason is a cause to refrain Thai people from speaking English. The student uses a negative marker−*Not*−to express his disagreement unambiguously that it is not because they are too shy. The presence of *maybe* helps reduce the threat of disagreement (Locher, 2004). In addition, the student employs two different paralinguistic features, which are (i) a long pause, and (ii) a soft volume. The presence of these paralinguistic features can decrease the threat of disagreements because disagreement is hesitantly performed in a soft tone of voice (Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). The lecturer asks whether the student really thinks there are other reasons to prevent Thai people from speaking English. The student's response is elicited by an open-ended question. He explains to the lecturer that English is difficult for Thai people including himself. In his personal point of view, this is a reason why Thai people do not speak English. Toward the end of his justification, the student uses laughter to foster in-group solidarity (cf. Glenn, 2003; Wharton, 2009) and possibly to save his own face after admitting that English is difficult for him.

Extract 29:

1. L: I can say Julia Roberts is the most talented actress in Hollywood
2. S: (short pause) (P)Perhaps not(P)
3. L: Then (short pause) who do you think deserves
4. S: (short pause) Jessica Parker in Sex and the City

Videotaped EFLe: August 8th, 2012

Extract 29 demonstrates how an EFLe student uses an adverb, *perhaps* to minimize the threat of disagreement in English. In this extract, the lecturer contends that Julia Roberts is the most talented actress in Hollywood. The student disagrees with the lecturer who says that Julia Roberts is the most talented actress in Hollywood. She expresses her explicit disagreement through the use of *Not*. The student mitigates the threat of her disagreement by *perhaps*. The presence of this linguistic feature can downgrade the imposition of disagreement in that the

disagreement becomes more probable (cf. Locher, 2004, pp. 114-116). In addition, the threat of disagreement is lessened by other paralinguistic features. In this extract, the student does not instantly disagree with the lecturer. She pauses for a short while before beginning to disagree with the lecturer. The student also utters her mitigated disagreement in soft volume, producing a less threatening disagreement. The lecturer immediately asks the student who should deserve the title of the most talented actress in Hollywood. Her provision of an answer is delayed by a pause but it is not reluctantly encoded. The student proposes that Jessica Parker, who has been playing the famous series entitled *Sex and the City*, deserves to be named the most talented actress in Hollywood.

4.1.2.3.5 *I think*

The EFLt and the EFLe both used *I think* as a hedge to decrease the imposition of their disagreements in English. The EFLt used *I think* the most, but the EFLe seldom used this linguistic feature to redress the threat of their disagreements. In the 44 tokens, the EFLt used *I think* in 16 tokens or 36.37 percent, whereas the EFLe used it only once from the 12 tokens or 8.33 percent. In Extracts 30 and 31, realizations of negative politeness strategies using *I think* as a hedge by the EFLt and the EFLe are exemplified.

Extract 30:

1. L: Listening to English is easier than reading
2. S: (short pause) When you read, you can read=
3. S: =many times many times as you want
4. S: But in listening, you can listen just once
5. S: (short pause) I think reading in English is easier */kʰʌ̂ ʔāːcjāːn/*

Videotaped EFLt: July 10th, 2012

Extract 30 shows how an EFLt student uses *I think* as a hedge to weaken the threat of her disagreement. Based on the lecturer's point of view, he contends that listening to English is easier than reading in English. The student disagrees with him. From her standpoint, she argues that reading in English is easier than listening to English. The student softens the threat of her disagreement by *I think*, which has a hedge-like character (Locher, 2004, pp. 122-124) in that it can soften the level of certainty and thus can lessen the force of disagreement. In addition, the use of *I* as in *I think* suggests that the student's opinion is subjective, coming from a student who is a learner of English, not an expert in the field. In this regard, her disagreement becomes less imposing to the lecturer. At the end of her utterance, the student code-switches to her native language, using two polite devices to make her disagreement sound pleasant to the lecturer (Kummer, 2005, pp. 325-331; Srisuruk, 2011, p. 12). These devices are (i) the polite particle for females */kʰʌ̂/*, and (ii) a professional address term for university lecturers */ʔāːcjāːn/*. In this extract, the student initially gives some

justification to explain to the lecturer that listening to English may not be repeated when miscommunication occurs. By contrast, reading in English can be accomplished at the reader's own pace. Moreover, the reader may consult the reading materials repeatedly when he or she does not understand them. Providing such an explanation, the student's performance of disagreement becomes reasonable. In this extract, the student's provision of justification does not follow her disagreement but precedes it.

Extract 31:

1. L: It's good to have a lot of tourists in Thailand
2. S: I think it's not
3. L: (short pause) Why do you think like that(/)
4. S: Well (short pause) many of them are careless=
5. S: =They abuse the environment

Videotaped EFLe: September 5th, 2012

Extract 31 illustrates how an EFLe student uses *I think* as a hedge to decrease the threat of a disagreement in English. In this extract, the lecturer presumes that having a lot of tourists in Thailand is good. From the student's perspective, he disagrees with the lecturer that having a lot of tourists in Thailand is good. The student uses *I think* to reduce the imposition of his unambiguous disagreement (cf. Locher, 2004, pp. 122-124). The presence of this linguistic feature suggests that his contradictory opinion is subjective and can be rejected easily. Although the opinion is expressed by a native speaker of Thai, it is less imposing to the lecturer because it comes from one individual speaker. Other Thai people might have different opinions. In his disagreement, the student does not repeat the lecturer's entire utterance. His explicit disagreement is encoded in a negative statement *it's not*, meaning it is not good to have a lot of tourists in Thailand. In this extract, the student does not instantaneously give a reason to support his disagreement. After a short pause, the lecturer elicits the student's response through an open-ended question. The student initially prefaces his provision of justification with a hesitation marker, *well*. After the hesitation marker, the student provides a reason spontaneously, contending that many of the tourists coming to Thailand are uncaring and actual agents of environmental pollution.

4.1.2.3.6 *I think* + Modal (*should, might*)

Both the EFLt and the EFLe used *I think* + a modal (*should, might*) as a hedge when disagreeing with their lecturer in English. The EFLt frequently used this linguistic feature to minimize the imposition of their disagreements. They used it in 15 tokens from the 44 tokens or 34.09 percent. On the other hand, the EFLe infrequently used this linguistic feature. It was used by the EFLe only once from the 12 tokens or 8.33 percent. In Extracts 32 and 33, realizations of negative politeness

strategies using *I think* + a modal (*should, might*) as a hedge by an EFLt student and an EFLe student are illustrated.

Extract 32:

1. L: So (short pause) I think the girl is great
2. S: (long pause) I think the girl might be **ungreatful*

Videotaped EFLt: June 26th, 2012

Extract 32 exemplifies how an EFLt student uses *I think* and a modal (*might*) to downgrade the force of her disagreement in English. Using this linguistic feature, the student's disagreement is linguistically redressed through two linguistic mitigations: (i) *I think,* and (ii) *might*. This talk takes place immediately after the students have listened to a short dialog in English between a girl and her mother. Based on the content in this dialog, the lecturer assumes that the girl is great. From the student's point of view, she disagrees with the lecturer that the girl is great. Although the student's disagreement is explicitly performed, it is mitigated by *I think,* and *might*. Prefacing the disagreement with *I think* suggests that the contradictory opinion is subjective, as derived from an individual student. In this regard, the disagreement appears to be less imposing to the lecturer. In addition, the student employs a modal *might* to reduce the threat of her disagreement. Following Locher (2004, pp. 129-130), *might* conveys a meaning of possibility, making the expressing disagreement less probable. The co-presence of these hedges ensures that the face-threat of disagreement is mitigated. In the disagreement, the student does not use a negative statement to display her explicit contradiction. She over-generalizes a morphological rule to derive an antonym of '*great*' by adding affixes to the root word. This morphological rule, however, produces an ungrammatical word in English.

Extract 33:

1. L: Drinking coffee every day is good for your health
2. S: (short pause) I think (short pause) it should not be good
3. L: (short pause) Why do you think it is not good=
4. S: =Well (short pause) coffee has a lot of caffeine

Videotaped EFLe: August 29th, 2012

Extract 33 illustrates how an EFLe uses *I think* and a modal (*should*) to downgrade the threat of his disagreement in English. The use of this linguistic feature allows the student to soften the threat of his disagreement through two linguistic mitigations: (i) *I think,* and (ii) *should*. In this extract, the lecturer presumes that drinking coffee every day is good for the students' health. The use of the possessive adjective *your* indicates that the lecturer talks to all students in the class. From a student's standpoint, he disagrees with the lecturer by saying that I think it should not be good. The student begins his disagreement with *I think,* suggesting that the

following contradictory opinion is subjective. The use of *should* also conveys a probability meaning, producing a mitigated disagreement (cf. Locher, 2004, pp. 129-130). In this extract, the student adopts a paralinguistic feature, which is a short pause, to lessen the threat of his disagreement. The student does not immediately disagree with the lecturer. Instead, he prefaces his performance of disagreement with two short pauses. The presence of these pauses helps diminish the threat because disagreement is not uttered rapidly (Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). After another short pause, the lecturer asked the student to explain why he thinks drinking coffee every day is not healthy. The use of this open-ended question elicits the student's response successfully. The student initiates his justification with a hesitation marker, *well*, before answering to the lecturer that coffee contains a lot of caffeine.

4.1.2.3.7 *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)

Both groups of the Thai EFL learners used *I think* + an adverb (*perhaps, maybe*) as a hedge to lessen the threat of their disagreements in English. They both seldom used this linguistic feature. The EFLt used *I think* + an adverb (*perhaps, maybe*) in four tokens from the 44 tokens or 9.09 percent, while the EFLe used it only once from the 12 tokens or 8.33 percent. In Extracts 34 and 35, realizations of negative politeness strategies using *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*) by an EFLt student and an EFLe student are given.

Extract 34:

1. L: Learning to speak Thai is VERY difficult
2. S: I think maybe it's not that difficult
   (the student shakes her head)

Videotaped EFLt: August 14th, 2012

Extract 34 displays how an EFLt student uses *I think* + an adverb (*maybe*) to diminish the threat of her disagreement in English. The use of this linguistic feature allows the student to mitigate her disagreement twice through two linguistic mitigations, which are (i) *I think*, and (ii) *maybe*. From the lecturer's perspective as a native speaker of English, he mentions that learning to speak Thai is very difficult. From the student's standpoint, she disagrees with the lecturer. The student mitigates the threat of her disagreement with *I think.* The use of this softening device suggests that the following opinion is subjective, meaning the opinion comes from an individual speaker. In addition, *I think* gives a sense of uncertainty with regard to the content that follows. The presence of *maybe* also repeats the notion of probability. It helps reduce the threat of disagreement, making it less imposing on the lecturer. In this extract, the student does not apply any additional paralinguistic features to soften the threat of her disagreement. I assume this is the case because the presence of *I think* and *maybe* has already weakened the threat of disagreement. The student also adopts a gesture, which is the headshaking, to communicate her intention of disagreement.

This gesture appears when the student utters the content of disagreement in a negative statement. In this extract, the student does not give any reason to explain why she thinks learning to speak Thai is not difficult.

Extract 35:

1. L: In most workplace, wearing jeans is increasingly appropriate
2. S: (short pause) I think maybe it is still inappropriate=
3. S: =A banker or (short pause) a lawyer for example cannot wear jeans to work

Videotaped EFLe: August 8th, 2012

Extract 35 shows how an EFLe student uses *I think* and an adverb (*maybe*) to mitigate the threat of her disagreement in English. In this linguistic feature, there are two linguistic mitigations, which are (i) *I think*, and (ii) *maybe*. The presence of these mitigations helps lessen the threat of disagreement because they suggest that the student is not certain about her opinion. In this extract, the lecturer presumes that wearing jeans in most workplaces nowadays is increasingly appropriate. The student disagrees with the lecturer. The use of *I think* identifies the student's opinion as coming from an individual speaker and thus becomes less imposing to the lecturer. Furthermore, the presence of *maybe* suggests that the student's contradictory opinion is probable. Although these linguistic mitigations are used, the student also prefaces her disagreement with a short pause to delay her performance of disagreement. The presence of this paralinguistic feature, according to Rees-Miller (2000, pp. 1094-1095), and Kakava (2002, pp. 1548-1562), is able to reduce the threat of disagreement because it is not quickly performed. In the content of disagreement, the student does not use a negative statement to show her contradictory opinion. In fact, she applies a morphological rule to derive an antonym of appropriate. This morphological derivation produces *'inappropriate*', which is a grammatical word in English and is able to convey her intention to disagree with the lecturer. The student instantly provides some career examples−those of bankers and lawyers−to prove that wearing jeans is not increasingly appropriate in most workplace.

4.1.2.3.8 Question

The EFLt did not use a question to decrease the imposition of their disagreements in English. However, the EFLe occasionally used a question to disagree with their lecturer. The EFLe used this linguistic feature twice from the 12 tokens or 16.67 percent. In Extract 36, a realization of negative politeness strategies an EFLe student used a question to downgrade the threat of disagreement is shown.

Extract 36:

1. L: Thai soap operas are boring JUST because of the characters
2. S: (short pause) What about the plots(/)=
3. S: =Thai soap operas are boring because they have the same plot
4. L: Right you're right

Videotaped EFLe: September 5th, 2012

Extract 36 explains how an EFLe student disagrees with the lecturer in the linguistic feature of a question. In this extract, the lecturer assumes that Thai soap operas are boring just because of the characters. The stress in '*just*' underscores that there is only one factor to make the Thai soap operas boring. From the student's perspective, she disagrees with the lecturer that the characters are the only factor to make the Thai soap operas boring. The student redresses the threat of her disagreement by asking the lecturer a question. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 145-173), the use of a question is classified under negative politeness strategies functioning as a hedge. The student asks the lecturer whether the plots can make the Thai soap operas boring. Asking the lecturer this question clearly illustrates that the student does not agree with the lecturer. In addition, the use of this linguistic feature can minimize the threat because the disagreement is not directly targeted at the lecturer. Apart from asking the lecturer a question, the student's expression of disagreement is also delayed by a short pause. The presence of this paralinguistic feature helps weaken the force of disagreement because it is not immediately performed (Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). In the next turn, the student gives a reason instantaneously to support her disagreement that the Thai soap operas are boring because of their similar plots. In the final turn, the lecturer accepts that similar plots also make the Thai soap operas boring.

4.1.2.4 Off-Record Strategies

There were three linguistic features the Thai EFL learners used to express their disagreements ambiguously. They were (i) Ellipsis, (ii) Rhetorical Question, and (iii) Statement. Both groups of the learners did not use all of the above-mentioned linguistic features when disagreeing with the lecturer implicitly. The EFLt used two linguistic features, which were (i) Ellipsis, and (ii) Statement. The EFLe also used two linguistic features: (i) Rhetorical Question, and (ii) Statement. Realizations of off-record strategies using these linguistic features by the EFLt and the EFLe are summarized in Table 4.8. The Table also includes the frequencies showing how often each linguistic feature was used.

Disagreement Strategies		EFLt		EFLe	
Semantic Formulas	Linguistic Features	Frequency		Frequency	
Implied Contradiction	Ellipsis	1	25.00%	-	-
	Rhetorical Question	-	-	1	33.33%
Hint	Statement	3	75.00%	2	66.67%
Total		4	100%	3	100%

Table 4.8: Off-Record Strategies Used by the EFLt and the EFLe

4.1.2.4.1 Ellipsis

The EFLt used an elliptical statement to express implied contradictions to the lecturer in English. This linguistic feature was rarely used. In the four tokens, the EFLt used Ellipsis only once or 25.00 percent. The EFLe, on the other hand, never used this linguistic feature to perform their disagreements implicitly. In Extract 37, a realization of off-record strategies an EFLt student used an elliptical statement to disagree with the lecturer ambiguously is illustrated.

Extract 37:

1. L: I think Public libraries here should be open on Saturdays and Sundays
2. S: (long pause) Most people stay home on…

Videotaped EFLt: September 4th, 2012

Extract 37 demonstrates how an EFLt student uses Ellipsis to disagree with the lecturer vaguely in English. The use of an elliptical statement conveys an implied contradiction to the lecturer, producing a less threatening disagreement. In this extract, the lecturer contends that public libraries in Thailand should be open on every Saturday and Sunday. From the student's standpoint, he disagrees with the lecturer, arguing that most people stay home on weekends. The student, however, does not utter *Saturdays and Sundays*, producing an incomplete utterance. The use of Ellipsis can minimize the threat of disagreement because his disagreement is not explicitly performed. Moreover, his expression of disagreement is prefaced by a long pause, producing a less imposing disagreement on the lecturer. The presence of this paralinguistic feature has potential to lessen the face-threatening aspect of disagreement because a long pause can slow down the occurrence of a face-threatening act (Kakava, 2002, pp. 1548-1562; Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1094-1095). In this extract, the student does not further elaborate why public libraries should not be open on weekends.

4.1.2.4.2 Rhetorical Question

The EFLt did not use a rhetorical question to express their implied contractions to the lecturer in English. Although the EFLe used this linguistic feature to perform their disagreement ambiguously, they barely used it. The EFLe used a rhetorical question once from the three tokens or 33.33 percent. In Extract 38, a realization of off-record strategies an EFLe student used a rhetorical question to disagree with the lecturer implicitly is given.

Extract 38:

1. L: Corruption is a serious problem in Thailand
2. S: Who cares=
3. S: =Corruption in Thailand is so common

Videotaped EFLe: September 12th, 2012

Extract 38 exhibits how an EFLe student uses a rhetorical question to disagree with the lecturer in English ambiguously. The use of this linguistic feature is different from asking the lecturer with a question as a hedge in Extract 36 because asking a question normally requires an answer from the hearer. Differently, the use of a rhetorical question does not need an answer. However, a possible objective of asking the lecturer with a rhetorical question is to persuade him to think differently. In this extract, the lecturer firstly assumes that corruption is a serious problem in Thailand. This problem is viewed from an outsider's perspective as an American. From the student's perspective, corruption is not a serious problem in his country. The student uses a rhetorical question '*Who cares*' to generate a contradiction, implying that corruption is not a serious problem in Thailand. Using this linguistic feature to express an implicit disagreement, the student does not use any extra paralinguistic features to soften the threat of his disagreement. In the following turn, the student gives a justification to explain his argument quickly that corruption in Thailand is a common phenomenon. His provision of a justification makes it manifest that he finds corruption is not a serious problem in Thailand.

4.1.2.4.3 Statement

Both groups of the Thai EFL learners used a statement to give a hint to the lecturer when disagreeing in English. They both often used this linguistic feature to perform their disagreements ambiguously. The EFLt used a statement in three tokens from the four tokens or 75.00 percent, and the EFLe used it in two tokens from the three tokens or 66.67 percent. In Extracts 39 and 40, realizations of off-record strategies using a statement to show hints by an EFLt student and an EFLe student are offered.

Extract 39:

1. L: The most convenient way to get around Bangkok is by taxi
2. S: Traffic in Bangkok is always unpredictable */náˀ kʰráb āːcjāːn/*

Videotaped EFLt: August 28th, 2012

Extract 39 shows how an EFLt student uses a statement to give a hint to the lecturer when performing an implied disagreement in English. In this extract, the lecturer assumes that getting around Bangkok by taxi is the most convenient means of transportation. This opinion is viewed by an American. From the student's view, he is well aware of the congested traffic in Bangkok. The student does not show his disagreement explicitly that getting around Bangkok by taxi is not the most convenient means of transportation. However, giving the lecturer a hint that the traffic in Bangkok is always unpredictable can be seen as an implied disagreement. The student does not use any paralinguistic means to mitigate the threat of his disagreement. It can be assumed that this is because the disagreement has already been expressed implicitly, thus reducing the degree of severity by another paralinguistic feature can be unnecessary. At the end of the student's disagreement, he code-switches to his native language, using three words to finish his implied disagreement politely: (i) */náˀ/* a particle to complete a statement, (ii) */kʰráb/* the polite particle for males, and (iii) */ʔāːcjāːn/* a professional address term for university lecturers. In this extract, the student does not give any justification to explain why he thinks riding on a taxi is not the most convenient means of transportation.

Extract 40:

1. L: Shopping online is a good idea
2. S: Some websites are unreliable

Videotaped EFLe: September 12th, 2012

Extract 40 shows how an EFLe student uses a statement to give a hint to the lecturer when expressing an implicit disagreement in English. In this extract, the lecturer claims that shopping online is a good idea. From the student's point of view, she disagrees with the lecturer. Although the student does not express her disagreement explicitly, a hint given by the student shows an implied contradiction. She argues that some websites are unreliable as a hint to the lecturer that shopping online is not a good idea. This is because the use of unreliable websites affects people's shopping online inevitably. In this extract, the student does not use any extra paralinguistic features decrease her disagreement. I assume this is the case because her disagreement has already been expressed implicitly creating only small imposition on the lecturer. Using other paralinguistic features to soften the threat of implied disagreement can be unnecessary. In this extract, the lecturer does not elicit the student's justification to explain why shopping online is not a good idea.

4.2 Comparisons of Student-Lecturer Disagreements Performed by the EFLt and the EFLe

The second research question aims to compare two groups of Thai EFL learners in terms of their politeness strategies used when disagreeing with the lecturer in English. The EFLt and the EFLe have been found to use different sets of politeness strategies as norms. Apparently, there are some remarkable differences between them. However, their performance of disagreements shares some similarities.

4.2.1 Differences

There were two differences in politeness strategies between the EFLt and the EFLe. Firstly, their norms of politeness strategies used to perform student-lecturer disagreements in English were different. The EFLt normally used negative politeness strategies, while the EFLe normally used bald on-record strategies. The use of these politeness strategies as norms brings about differences because negative politeness strategies involve a redressive action, but bald on-record strategies do not (cf. Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 68-71). Consequently, the use of negative politeness strategies is more polite than the use of bald on-record strategies. Following Grice (1975, pp. 183-198), the EFLe, when using bald on-record strategies, appear to be more cooperative than the EFLt, when using negative politeness strategies, because the EFLe follow two maxims more strictly: (i) the Maxim of Quantity (be informative), and (ii) the Maxim of Manner (be brief). Secondly, both of them performed mitigated disagreements and non-mitigated disagreements in different frequencies. The EFLt performed mitigated disagreements in a greater number, while the EFLe performed non-mitigated disagreements in a higher number.

4.2.1.1 Norms

In the 67 tokens of disagreements, the EFLt used negative politeness strategies in 44 tokens or 65.67 percent. In the 61 tokens of disagreements, the EFLe used bald on-record strategies in 39 tokens or 63.93 percent. Evidently, their norms of politeness strategies were different. Table 4.9 re-illustrates the Thai EFL learners' norms of politeness strategies.

Sets of Politeness Strategies	EFLt		EFLe	
	Frequency		Frequency	
Bald On-Record Strategies	11	16.42%	**39**	**63.93%**
Positive Politeness Strategies	8	11.94%	7	11.47%
Negative Politeness Strategies	**44**	**65.67%**	12	19.68%
Off-Record Strategies	4	5.97%	3	4.92%
Total	67	100%	61	100%

Table 4.9: Norms of Politeness Strategies Used by the EFLt and the EFLe

4.2.1.1.1 The EFLt: Use More Polite Strategies

Considering the norms, the EFLt and the EFLe used these sets of politeness strategies to perform their disagreements unambiguously. The use of negative politeness strategies by the EFLt involves a redressive action, aiming to minimize the threat of disagreements, but the use of bald on-record strategies by the EFLe does not. According to this notable difference, the EFLt's norm is more polite than the EFLe's norm. In order to substantiate the claim, a realization of negative politeness strategies by an EFLt student (Extract 41) is compared with a realization of bald on-record strategies by an EFLe student (Extract 42).

Extract 41:

1. L: Listening to music every morning is relaxing
2. S: (short pause) I think it could be boring listening to music every morning
3. L: Really(/)
4. L: (long pause) SO what do you usually do in the morning(/)

Videotaped EFLt: August 28th, 2012

Extract 41 demonstrates how an EFLt student uses *I think* + a modal (*could*) as a hedge to soften his expression of disagreement in English. In this extract, the lecturer contends that listening to music every morning is relaxing. The student disagrees with the lecturer that doing this activity every morning is relaxing. The use of this linguistic feature allows the student to mitigate the threat of his disagreement twice: (i) through the use of *I think*, and (ii) through the use of *could*, producing a less imposing disagreement on the lecturer. The presence of *I think* suggests that the student's contradictory opinion derives from an individual speaker and thus becomes less challenging. The presence of *could* also conveys a probability meaning, causing a less definite disagreement. Clearly, the use of negative politeness strategies helps downgrade the threat of disagreement. By contrast, Extract 42 illustrates how an EFLe student disagrees with the lecturer without using any linguistic mitigation to lessen the threat of disagreement.

Extract 42:

1. L: An aisle seat is better than a window seat
2. S: (short pause) No (short pause) (P)the aisle seat is not better(P)
   (the student shakes her head)
3. L: (long pause) In what way you think the window seat is better
4. S: (short pause) Well they can look out the window

Videotaped EFLe: August 15th, 2012

Extract 42 shows how an EFLe student uses *No*, Negative Statement to disagree with the lecturer unambiguously in English. Using this linguistic feature, the student is able to communicate her intention of disagreement twice: (i) through *No*, and (ii) through a negative statement. In this extract, the lecturer presumes that an aisle seat on an airplane is better than a window seat. The student disagrees with the lecturer. Her explicit disagreement is expressed by *No*, which is a non-mitigated disagreement (cf. Locher, 2004, pp. 143-145). In addition, the student continues to disagree with the lecturer, using a negative statement to express her contradictory opinion that the aisle seat is not better. Although the student disagrees with the lecturer twice, she does not use any linguistic mitigation to diminish the threat of disagreement. These points of comparison make it clear that the norm of politeness strategies used by the EFLt in the classroom context is more polite than that of the EFLe in the same context.

4.2.1.1.2 The EFLe: More Cooperative

Considering the norms of politeness strategies again, the EFLe follow the Maxim of Quantity−do not say more or less than needed−and the Maxim of Manner−say in the clearest, briefest, and most orderly manner−more strictly than the EFLt because they give enough information−not too much nor too little−to perform their disagreements, and such a performance is brief. In order to back up the claim, a realization of bald on-record strategies by an EFLe student (Extract 43) is compared with a realization of negative politeness strategies by an EFLt student (Extract 44).

Extract 43:

1. L: Hardworking
2. L: (long pause) Is that(/) POSitive or NEGative
3. Ss: (silent)
4. L: Many /*kʰōn tʰāi*/ would say negative
5. S: (long pause) (P)No(P)
   (the student shakes his head)
6. L: No(/) (short pause) hardworking is positive(/)
7. S: I don't know

(the student shakes his head)

Videotaped EFLe: July 18th, 2012

Extract 43 illustrates how an EFLe student uses *No* to disagree with the lecturer explicitly in English. This linguistic feature does not have content of disagreement and was used the most by the EFLe (in 25 tokens from the 39 tokens or 64.10 percent). In this extract, the lecturer assumes that many Thai people would say an adjective '*hardworking*' is negative. From the student's standpoint, he disagrees with the lecturer that many Thai people would say this adjective is negative. The presence of *No* clearly conveys an intention to disagree with the lecturer explicitly with no linguistic mitigation. The student's expression of disagreement appears to be informative because it does not give too much information or too little information in order to achieve the disagreement. In addition, the use of this linguistic feature shows that the student's disagreement is briefly performed. As a consequence, the EFLe student follows Gricean Maxims strictly when using bald on-record strategies to disagree with the lecturer. In contrast, the EFLt, when using negative politeness strategies, tend to be less cooperative because their expressions of mitigated disagreements are more informative and more prolix.

Extract 44:

1. L: Listening to English is easier than reading
2. S: (short pause) When you read, you can read=
3. S: =many times many times as you want
4. S: But in listening, you can listen just once
5. S: (short pause) I think reading in English is easier /*kʰʌ̂ ʔāːcjāːn*/

Videotaped EFLt: July 10th, 2012

Extract 44 demonstrates how an EFLt student uses *I think* to hedge her performance of disagreement in English. This linguistic feature was used the most by the EFLt when minimizing the threat of disagreements in English (16 tokens from the 44 tokens or 36.37 percent). In this extract, the lecturer presumes that listening to English is easier than reading in English. From the student's viewpoint, she disagrees with the lecturer. The student contends that *I think reading in English is easier /kʰʌ̂ ʔā:cjā:n/*. Using *I think* as a preface of her disagreement appears to be more informative than needed because it does not convey any meaning of disagreement. In fact, it is a linguistic mitigation used to lessen the threat of disagreement. In addition, the presence of two Thai words, which are, (i) */kʰʌ̂/* and (ii) */ʔā:cjā:n/* at the end of the disagreement does not contribute to the meaning of disagreement. These words help foster solidarity between the lecturer and the student because they function as polite devices. Obviously, these unnecessary linguistic mitigations make the student's expression of disagreement more prolix. Thus, the EFLt student, when using negative politeness strategies, does not follow the Maxim of Quantity and the Maxim of Manner as closely as the EFLe when using on-record strategies.

4.2.1.2 Mitigated and Non-Mitigated Disagreements

The four possible sets of politeness strategies used in this study can be roughly divided into two separate categories: (i) non-mitigated strategies and (ii) mitigated strategies. Following Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 68-71), bald on-record strategies can be classified as non-mitigated strategies because this set of strategies does not involve any softening action, producing unambiguous and non-mitigated disagreements. In contrast, the other strategies: (i) positive politeness strategies, (ii) negative politeness strategies, and (iii) off-record strategies fall into mitigated strategies because positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies involve a softening action, producing unambiguous but mitigated disagreements. The use of off-record strategies can also be categorized with the mitigated strategies because this set of politeness strategies can be used to express disagreements ambiguously. According to these classifications, there is another noticeable difference between the EFLt and the EFLe. In the 67 tokens, the EFLt performed mitigated disagreements more frequently than non-mitigated disagreements. In the 61 tokens, on the other hand, the EFLe performed non-mitigated disagreements more often than mitigated disagreements. Table 4.10 demonstrates how frequently the EFLt and the EFLe perform mitigated and non-mitigated disagreements.

Types of Disagreement	EFLt		EFLe	
	Frequency		Frequency	
Mitigated Disagreements	**56**	**83.58%**	22	36.07%
Non-Mitigated Disagreements	11	16.42%	**39**	**63.93%**
Total	67	100%	61	100%

Table 4.10: Mitigated Disagreements *versus* Non-Mitigated Disagreements

Table 4.10 shows that the EFLt and the EFLe performed non-mitigated and mitigated disagreements in different numbers. In the 67 tokens, the EFLt performed mitigated disagreements in 56 tokens or 83.58 percent and non-mitigated disagreements in 11 tokens or 16.42 percent. In the 61 tokens, the EFLe performed non-mitigated disagreements in 39 tokens or 63.93 percent and mitigated disagreements in 22 tokens or 36.07 percent. In the following sections, frequencies of mitigated and non-mitigated disagreements performed by the EFLt and the EFLe are spelt out.

4.2.1.2.1 The EFLt: More Mitigated Disagreements

There were 14 linguistic features the Thai EFL learners used to perform mitigated disagreements in English. They were (i) *I agree, but…*, (ii) *Yes, but…*, (iii) *It's good, but…*, (iv) Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*), (v) Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*), (vi) Modal (*should, might*), (vii) Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), (viii) *I think*, (ix) *I think* + Modal *(should, might*), (x) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), (xi) Question, (xii) Ellipsis, (xiii) Rhetorical Question, and (xiv) Statement. The Thai EFL learners used these linguistic features in different frequencies, as demonstrated in Table 4.11.

Disagreement Strategies: Linguistic Features	EFLt		EFLe	
	Frequency		Frequency	
I agree but…	-	-	1	4.54%
Yes, but…	5	8.93%	4	18.18%
It's good but...	3	5.36%	2	9.10%
Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*)	-	-	4	18.18%
Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*)	-	-	2	9.10%
Modal (*should, might*)	7	12.50%	-	-
Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)	2	3.57%	1	4.54%
I think	16	28.57%	1	4.54%
I think + Modal (*should, might*)	15	26.79%	1	4.54%
I think + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*)	4	7.14%	1	4.54%
Question	-	-	2	9.10%
Ellipsis	1	1.78%	-	-
Rhetorical Question	-	-	1	4.54%
Statement	3	5.36%	2	9.10%
Total	56	100%	22	100%

Table 4.11: Mitigated Disagreements Performed by the EFLt and the EFLe

The EFLt performed mitigated disagreements in a higher frequency than the EFLe, i.e. 83.58 percent versus 36.07 percent. In the 56 tokens, the EFLt used nine linguistic features to minimize the threat of their disagreements in English. They used *I think* the most (16 tokens from the 56 tokens or 28. 57 percent). This linguistic feature has fallen into the set of negative politeness strategies, which has been found to be the EFLt's norm. On the other hand, the EFLe performed mitigated disagreements in a lower frequency than the EFLt. Although the EFLe performed

mitigated disagreements in the 22 tokens, they used a wide range of linguistic features to soften the threat of their disagreements in English. The EFLe used 12 linguistic features. They equally used *Yes, but…* and Verb of Uncertainty (*seem, tend*) the most (four tokens from the 22 tokens or 18.18 percent). The former linguistic feature has fallen into the set of positive politeness strategies, while the latter under the negative politeness strategies.

4.2.1.2.2 The EFLe: More Non-Mitigated Disagreements

There were six linguistic features the Thai EFL learners used to perform disagreements in English unambiguously without any linguistic mitigation. They were (i) *No*, (ii) *No*, Negative statement, (iii) Negative Statement, (iv) *I disagree*, (v) *I don't think so*, and (vi) *I don't think like that*. The Thai EFL learners used these linguistic features in different frequencies, as illustrated in Table 4.12.

Disagreement Strategies: Linguistic Features	EFLe		EFLt	
	Frequency		Frequency	
No	25	64.10%	9	81.82%
No, Negative Statement	5	12.82%	1	9.09%
Negative Statement	4	10.27%	1	9.09%
I disagree	1	2.56%	-	-
I don't think so	3	7.69%	-	-
I don't think like that	1	2.56%	-	-
Total	39	100%	11	100%

Table 4.12: Non-Mitigated Disagreements Performed by the EFLe and the EFLt

The EFLe performed non-mitigated disagreements in a greater frequency than the EFLt. i.e. 63.93 percent versus 16.42 percent. In the 39 tokens, the EFLe used six linguistic features to disagree with their lecturer baldly without using any linguistic mitigation. They used *No* the most (25 tokens from the 39 tokens or 64.10 percent) in order to perform non-mitigated disagreements. In the 11 tokens, the EFLe used a narrow range of linguistic features to perform their disagreements explicitly with no linguistic mitigation. The EFLt also used *No* to perform their non-mitigated disagreements the most (nine tokens from the 11 tokens or 81.82 percent). Although the learners used non-mitigated disagreements in different frequencies, their performance of unambiguous disagreements was normally short without any content of disagreements.

4.2.2 Similarities

There were three similarities between the EFLt and the EFLe when they disagreed with their lecturer in the target language. Firstly, the number of student-lecturer disagreements expressed by the EFLt in the 27 hours was proportional to

those produced by the EFLe. Secondly, both groups of the Thai EFL learners disagreed with the lecturer when topics of disagreements were general and did not require any specific knowledge. In other words, the range of topics for disagreements was wide. Thirdly, both of the Thai EFL learners rarely justified their disagreements.

4.2.2.1 Proportional Numbers of Disagreement

In the 27 hours, the EFLt disagreed with their lecturer 67 times, and the EFLe performed their student-lecturer disagreements 61 times. These figures imply that different times of exposure to English as the medium of instruction do not greatly influence the Thai EFL learners' interlanguage production of disagreements in a classroom context. Both groups of learners produced their disagreements in closely proportional quantities despite different frequencies of exposure time to English. In addition, the learners who were more frequently exposed to English in the classroom context did not necessarily produce a higher number of disagreements. It is obvious that the EFLe produced a slightly smaller number of student-lecturer disagreements than the EFLt (see Table 4.13).

Duration	EFLt	EFLe
In the 27 hours	67	61
In 1 hour	2.48	2.25

Table 4.13: Number of Disagreements Expressed by the EFLt and the EFLe

The number of student-lecturer disagreements produced by the Thai EFL learners in the 27 hours also implies that student-lecturer disagreements in the classroom context are not pervasive among the Thai EFL learners. On average, the EFLt expressed 2.48 tokens of disagreement in an hour, while the EFLe similarly performed 2.25 tokens of disagreement in one hour. The number of disagreements produced by the Thai EFL learners in the classroom context appears marginal if compared with those expressed by the NE (see Table 4.14).

Duration	NE
In the 12 hours	91
In 1 hour	7.58

Table 4.14: Number of Disagreements Expressed by the NE

In the 12 hours, the NE expressed 91 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements. On average, they produced 7.58 disagreement tokens in their native language per hour. The comparison with the NE reveals that the Thai EFL learners' interlanguage production of disagreement is relatively small. The learners' low production of disagreements in English can be explained by their native culture which is oriented towards collectivism (e.g. Gudykunst, 2001; Hofstede, 2001; Scollon & Scollon,

1995). Thai people whose cultural background is collectivistic tend to put more emphasis on in-group harmony during their social interactions, which generally involves face-saving and conflict avoidance (e.g. Noypayak & Speece, 1998; Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam & Jablin, 1999; Thanasankit & Corbitt, 2000). In this regard, Thai EFL learners tend to express their student-lecturer disagreements as infrequently as possible because the disagreement *per se* is face-threatening (cf. Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983). Avoiding disagreeing with the lecturer in the classroom context, the learners are able to maintain their lecturers' face, prevent potential conflicts and preserve social harmony. Not surprisingly, the number of student-lecturer disagreements produced by both groups of the Thai EFL learners is low. Results from the questionnaire were supportive because 75.00 percent of the EFLt who completed the questionnaire indicated that they did not often disagree with the lecturer in a classroom. One student said that she did not want to ruin a positive atmosphere because an expression of disagreement is usually offensive. Another student contended that an expression of disagreement easily generated negative feelings. If it caused the lecturer's negative feelings, he was afraid that his classroom evaluation would be affected at some points. In the same vein, 66.67 percent of the EFLe who responded to the questionnaire identified that they infrequently disagreed with the lecturer in a classroom. One student admitted that he did not want to express any contradictory opinion in front of other students. If he could not carry out his disagreement, he would lose his face in front of his friends. Another student viewed expressing student-lecturer disagreements as risky. She had to be very tactful because such disagreements easily jeopardized the lecturer's face.

In addition, the small number of student-lecturer disagreements produced by the Thai EFL learners can be due to, but not heavily restricted to, their available L2 pragmalinguistic resources, that is, linguistic resources in English the Thai EFL learners use to carry out pragmatic purposes (cf. Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p. 78). There are two convincing reasons to support this linguistic phenomenon. First, the learners' English proficiency level has been tested to be intermediate. At this level of English proficiency, EFL learners have been widely attested to have adequate L2 pragmalinguistic resources to perform their student-lecturer disagreements in English (e.g. Behnam & Niroomand, 2011; Chen, 2006; Choyimah & Latief, 2014; Hong, 2003; Xuehua, 2006). Second, if L2 pragmalinguistic resources are major causes to inhibit the Thai EFL learners from producing a small number of disagreements in English, the NT, when using their L1 pragmalinguistic resources, should produce a high number of student-lecturer disagreements in Thai. However, the NT produced a low number of student-lecturer disagreements in their native language within the 27 hours (see Table 4.15).

Duration	NT
In the 27 hours	72
In 1 hour	2.67

Table 4.15: Number of Disagreements Expressed by the NT

On average, the NT produced 2.67 tokens of student-lecturer disagreements in their native language. This proportional figure suggests that the available L2 pragmalinguistic resources should not be major causes to prevent the Thai EFL learners from producing their student-lecturer disagreements in English. If they are, the NT, when disagreeing with the lecturer in their native language, should be able to produce their disagreements in a greater number. This similar trend clearly indicates that the NT's, the EFLt's and the EFLe's production of disagreements is governed by some compatible sociopragmatic competence, that is, social perceptions that underlie their pragmatic production (cf. Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p. 78). Their sociopragmatic competence is likely to be influenced by the Thai cultural background that aims to deemphasize personal conflicts with superiors (Pornpitakpan, 2000, p. 65). As a result, these participants, regardless of what language−a target language or a native language−they use to achieve their intention to disagree with the lecturer, tend to produce a small number of student-lecturer disagreements in the classroom context.

Last but not least, in natural settings, where the lecturers are naïve to the research objectives, the learners' interlanguage production of student-lecturer disagreements may be infrequently elicited. This reflects one of the weaknesses when collecting the data from a natural setting (e.g. Cohen, 1996; Felix-Brasdefer, 2003; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Tseng, 1999; Yuan, 2001). However, the obtained data from both classes, although in a small quantity, are sufficient to draw a valid conclusion. Walkinshaw (2007, pp. 278-279) began his article on disagreements with a generalization about Japanese learners of English who were studying at language schools in Christchurch, New Zealand. He overheard his colleagues complain that the Japanese learners of English never disagreed with the lecturers in the classroom. Instead, they usually said *hai hai hai*. He finally found that this oversimplification was wrong. The Japanese learners of English were in fact capable of disagreeing with their lecturers in English. The same holds true for the research participants in this study. Thai EFL learners have been misperceived that they smiled a lot as if they never disagreed with anyone (Deephuengton, 1992, p. 15). The number of student-lecturer disagreements from the natural settings helps corroborate that the Thai EFL learners, regardless of how frequently they were exposed to English as the medium of instruction, are able to disagree with their lecturer in a classroom context in English.

4.2.2.2 General Topics for Disagreements

The EFLt and the EFLe similarly disagreed with their lecturer in English when topics of disagreement did not require any of the students' specific knowledge. Both groups of learners never disagreed with the lecturer when topics were in areas of the lecturer's expertise such as topics of the class. Instead, the topics of disagreements were general such as foods, weather conditions, holidays, tourist attractions, hobbies, famous people, living expenses, communication technology, personality of people, English language, and public transportations. These topics are usually found in non-institutionalized contexts (e.g. Edstrom, 2004; Guodong & Jing, 2005; Habib, 2008; Kakava, 2002; Locher, 2004). In addition, many of the topics are pertinent to Thai people and culture, allowing the learners to be engaged in the discussion more freely.

Briefly speaking, there are two types of topics that trigger the Thai EFL learners' production of student-lecturer disagreements in English: (i) general topics that are relevant to Thai people and culture, and (ii) general topics that are irrelevant to Thai people and culture, as elaborated in Table 4.16.

Topics		EFLt		EFLe	
		Frequency		Frequency	
General Topics	Related to Thai people or culture	49	73.13%	45	73.77%
	Not related to Thai people or culture	18	26.87%	16	26.23%
Total		67	100%	61	100%

Table 4.16: Topics of Disagreements in the EFLt's and the EFLe's Classrooms

Table 4.16 shows that the EFLt and the EFLe similarly disagreed with the lecturer only when the topics of disagreement were general. In the 67 tokens, the EFLt disagreed on general topics that are related to Thai people and culture in 49 tokens or 73.13 percent, and general topics that are not related to Thai people and culture in 18 tokens or 26.87 percent. In the 61 tokens, the EFLe disagreed on general topics that are related to Thai people and culture in 45 tokens or 73.77 percent and general topics that are not related to Thai people and culture in 16 tokens or 26.23 percent. In the following Tables, both types of general topics of disagreement that generate the EFLt's and the EFLe's uses of bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record strategies are presented.

Politeness Strategies	Topics	Realizations
Bald On-Record Strategies	Relevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Thai teachers think *easygoing* is negative 2. S: (short pause) (P)No(P) They don't think it's negative (the student shakes his head) 3. L: Are you sure(/) 4. S: (long pause) I am not sure (laughter)
	Irrelevant to Thai people and culture	1.L: Acoustic Blue is the best kind of music 2.S: (short pause) NO::: , (the student shakes his head)
Positive Politeness Strategies	Relevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: I think a lot of Thai teachers are very strict 2. S: (short pause) Yes, but not a lot 3. L: Really(/) 4. S: A lot of them (short pause) a lot of them are nice
	Irrelevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Foods are important for humans= 2. L: =Without foods, humans will die soon 3. S: (short pause) Yes, (short pause) (P)but water is more important(P) 4. S: (short pause) no water for a few days (short pause) humans will die
Negative Politeness Strategies	Relevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Thai people do not speak English because they are too shy 2. S: (long pause) (P)Maybe not(P) 3. L: (short pause) Really(/) SO why they don't speak English 4. S: It is difficult for them (laughter) (@)and for me(@)
	Irrelevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Listening to English is easier than reading 2. S: (short pause) When you read, you can read= 3. S: =many times many times as you want 4. S: But in listening, you can listen just once 5. S: (short pause) I think reading in English is easier */kʰʌ̂ ʔāːcjāːn/*
Off-Record Strategies	Relevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: The most convenient way to get around Bangkok is by taxi 2. S: Traffic in Bangkok is always unpredictable nʌ́ */kʰrʌ́b ʔāːcjāːn/*
	Irrelevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Riding a bike to work is a good idea 2. S: (P)There are many road accidents(P)

Table 4.17: EFLt's Realizations of Politeness Strategies Triggered by General Topics

Politeness Strategies	Topics	Realizations
Bald On-Record Strategies	Relevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: A lot of Thai people want to talk about their income 2. L: (short pause) Like how much they earn per month 3. S: (long pause) (P)They don't wanna talk about it(P)= 4. S: =It's a secret (laughter)
	Irrelevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: An aisle seat is better than a window seat 2. S: (short pause) No (short pause) (P)the aisle seat is not better(P) (the student shakes her head) 3. L: (long pause) In what way you think the window seat is better 4. S: (short pause) Well they can look out the window
Positive Politeness Strategies	Relevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Taxi drivers in Bangkok speak broken English 2. S: =Yes, (short pause) but some of them speak English so well 3. S: I heard (short pause) there are free English lessons for taxi drivers
	Irrelevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Learning to speak a third language is a huge advantage 2. S: It's good to speak another language but it is a waste of time and effort (laughter)
Negative Politeness Strategies	Relevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Thai soap operas are boring JUST because of the characters 2. S: (short pause) What about the plots(/)= 3. S: =Thai soap operas are boring because they have the same plot 4. L: Right you're right
	Irrelevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Ronaldo is qualified to be the best football player this year 2. S: (short pause) He tends to be disqualified 3. L: Really(/) (short pause) In what way= 4. S: =Well (short pause) he was a better player last year
Off-Record Strategies	Relevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Corruption is a serious problem in Thailand 2. S: Who cares= 3. S: =Corruption in Thailand is so common
	Irrelevant to Thai people and culture	1. L: Shopping online is a good idea 2. S: Some websites are unreliable

Table 4.18: EFLe's Realizations of Politeness Strategies Triggered by General Topics

The examples of realizations above are to confirm that the Thai EFL learners disagree with their lecturer in English when topics of disagreement are general. These general topics can be either relevant or irrelevant to Thai people and culture. As a result, the learners' interlanguage production of student-lecturer disagreements does not cause any threat to the lecturer's professional identity, producing less severe disagreements (cf. Rees-Miller, 2000, pp. 1098-1102). In addition, these topics of disagreements trigger the use of all politeness strategies. It is obvious that no matter what types of general topics, relevant or irrelevant to Thai people and culture, they are able to elicit the use of different politeness strategies in English. This empirical finding does not positively support Brown and Levinson's (1987, pp. 71-84) factors

that influence the choices of politeness strategies. The finding reveals that although the severity of disagreements is similarly low because topics of disagreements are general, the Thai EFL learners use every set of politeness strategies to perform their student-lecturer disagreements in English. In order to reach a more reliable conclusion, more studies are needed.

In addition, the act of disagreement *per se* is face-threatening (cf. Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983). Following Brown and Levinson (1987), student-lecturer disagreements can threaten the lecturer's positive face, that is, the need for harmony with other people. By contrast, student-lecturer disagreements can also threaten the student's own positive face, particularly when he or she cannot justify his or her disagreement (cf. Rees-Miller, 1995, p. 23). As a consequence, the EFLt and the EFLe did not disagree with their lecturer when topics of disagreement required specific knowledge. Presumably, the Thai EFL learners may be well aware that their positive face can be threatened if they fail to justify their disagreements. Boonsathorn (2003); Deephuengton (1992); Niratpattanasai (2002); Pornpitakpan (2000); Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam and Jablin (1999) corroborate the assumption that Thai people do not only preserve their interlocutor's face but also maintain their own face in social interactions. A loss of one's face in front of other people during social interactions can cause embarrassment and humiliation. For Thai people, losing one's face in public must be avoided at all cost. Consequently, the Thai EFL learners choose to disagree with the lecturer when topics of disagreement are general and do not require any specific knowledge. Results from the questionnaire were supportive because 83.33 percent of the EFLt who filled out the questionnaire totally agreed that a topic of disagreement was a key factor to perform disagreement. One student stated that she could not disagree with difficult topics that required specific knowledge. She would feel more comfortable disagreeing in the context of easy topics. Another student said that he had too limited background knowledge to perform a logical disagreement. If the topic was difficult, he would stay silent and would listen to the lecturer passively. In the same vein, 85.00 percent of the EFLe who answered the questionnaire totally agreed that a topic of disagreement was an important factor to generate their student-lecturer disagreements. Two students elaborated that they did not have authority to disagree within the topics of the class. The lecturer had higher authority, meaning that he had wider range of knowledge. As a result, if topics appeared to be relevant to the class content, they would not disagree with the lecturer. Another student contended that using English to defend himself was absolutely difficult and it could be even more difficult when topics of discussion were academic.

4.2.2.3 Inadequate Provisions of Justification

The EFLt and the EFLe dealt with justification in a similar manner. There were four approaches the Thai EFL learners used when handling justification: (i) a successful provision of justification elicited by the lecturer, (ii) an unsuccessful provision of justification elicited by the lecturer, (iii) a self-provision of justification, and (iv) no provision of justification. The Thai EFL learners used these approaches in comparable manners, as shown in Table 4.19.

Types of Justification			EFLt		EFLe	
			Frequency		Frequency	
Justification	Lecturer's Elicitation	Successful	14	20.89%	12	19.67%
		Unsuccessful	2	2.99%	3	4.92%
	Self-Provision		12	17.91%	11	18.03%
No Justification			39	58.21%	35	57.38%
Total			67	100%	61	100%

Table 4.19: Justification Provided by the EFLt and the EFLe

In the 67 tokens, the EFLt successfully provided some justification after the lecturer's elicitation in 14 tokens or 20.89 percent (see Extract 45), unsuccessfully gave any justification after the lecturer's elicitation in two tokens or 2.99 percent (see Extract 46), instantly provided some justification without the lecturer's elicitation in 12 tokens or 17.91 percent (see Extract 47), and did not give any justification in 39 tokens or 58.21 percent (see Extract 48). Evidently, the EFLt typically did not justify their student-lecturer disagreements. In the 61 tokens, the EFLe successfully gave some justification after the lecturer's elicitation to supplement their disagreements in 12 tokens or 19.67 percent (see Extract 49), unsuccessfully provided any justification after an elicitation from the lecturer in three tokens or 4.92 percent (see Extract 50), immediately gave some justification by themselves in 11 tokens or 18.03 percent (see Extract 51), and did not give any justification in 35 tokens or 57.38 percent (see Extract 52). Clearly, the EFLe normally did not provide any justification to explicate their student-lecturer disagreements either.

Extract 45:

1. L: I think Thai students like their uniform
2. S: <u>The uniform is good (short pause) but students do not like it</u>
3. L: (short pause) Why they don't like it(/)
4. S: Wearing the uniform every day is boring

Videotaped EFLt: September 4th, 2012

Extract 45 indicates that an EFLt student provides some justification to buttress his student-lecturer disagreement. In this extract, the student uses *It's good, but…* to maintain the lecturer's positive face before disagreeing with the lecturer that Thai students like their uniform. After the performance of disagreement in turn 2, the student does not immediately provide any justification to explicate why he thinks Thai students do not like their uniform. After a short pause, the lecturer asks the student why Thai students do not like their uniform. The use of this open-ended question successfully elicits the student's justification. The student does not hesitate to answer to the lecturer that wearing a uniform every day is boring. Clearly, the provision of this justification makes his disagreement more convincing.

Extract 46:

1. L: Thai teachers think *easygoing* is negative
2. S: (short pause) (P)No(P) They don't think it's negative
   (the student shakes his head)
3. L: Are you sure(/)
4. S: (long pause) I am not sure (laughter)

Videotaped EFLt: August 7th, 2012

Extract 46 reveals that an EFLt student unsuccessfully gives a justification to support his student-lecturer disagreement. In this extract, the student uses *No*, Negative Statement to convey his intention to disagree with the lecturer baldly that Thai teachers do not think the adjective '*easygoing*' is negative. After the student's performance of disagreement, the lecturer asks the student whether he is certain that Thai teachers do not think this adjective is negative. The student does not respond to the lecturer immediately. After a long pause, he admits to the lecturer that he is not sure whether Thai teachers do not think *easygoing* is negative. The use of *I am not sure* carries the core meaning of uncertainty (Locher, 2004, pp. 124-127). This is an example to display that the students may not be able to justify their disagreements in English even though the lecturer elicits a justification by supplying a question. However, this unsuccessful provision of justification can be due to the presence of a closed-ended question that primarily requires a Yes/No answer. If this type of question had been replaced by an open-ended question, the student might have put a greater deal of effort to justify his disagreement. However, further studies are needed to draw a valid conclusion.

Extract 47:

1. L: Thailand is too hot in December
2. S: (short pause) (P)It shouldn't be too hot(P)
3. S: December is winter in Thailand */kʰʌ̂ ʔāːcjāːn/*

Videotaped EFLt: July 3rd, 2012

Extract 47 shows that an EFLt student provides a reason to buttress her student-lecturer disagreement in English. In this extract, the student uses a modal (*should*) as a hedge to mitigate the threat of her disagreement. The student disagrees with the lecturer that Thailand is too hot in December. After her performance of disagreement, the student instantaneously provides some justification to support her disagreement. She explains to the lecturer that December is a winter month in Thailand. Her provision of justification is not elicited by the lecturer. The student's abrupt provision of justification in this extract may be encouraged by the fact that this general topic is relevant to the student's native culture. Having the shared knowledge,

the student appears to be actively engaged in the disagreement. As a result, the student does not wait for any elicitation from the lecturer. Her justification is instantaneously provided.

Extract 48:

1. L: Why English is difficult for Thai students(/)
2. Ss: (silent)
3. L: (long pause) I THINK Thai students don't like English
4. S: (P)No(P)

(the student shakes his head)

Videotaped EFLt: July 10th, 2012

Extract 48 demonstrates that an EFLt student does not give any justification to support his explicit disagreement. In this extract, the student uses *No* to disagree with the lecturer baldly. He disagrees with the lecturer that Thai students do not like English. The student does not continue to give any justification to buttress his point of disagreement. The frequencies presented in Table 19 indicate that this approach is used the most by the EFLt. In other words, the EFLt are able to disagree with the lecturer in English but normally do not give any justification to support their disagreements performed in the target language (39 tokens from the 67 tokens or 58.21 percent). Results from the questionnaire were supportive because 77.78 percent of the EFLt who filled in the questionnaire clearly indicated that they rarely justified their disagreements. One of the students declared that he was afraid that his justification was wrong because he was not confident to use English. Another student accepted that keeping silent was better than giving a stupid reason in front of the lecturer. It could produce a bad reputation.

Extract 49:

1. L: An aisle seat is better than a window seat
2. S: (short pause) No (short pause) (P)the aisle seat is not better(P)

(the student shakes her head)

3. L: (long pause) In what way you think the window seat is better
4. S: (short pause) Well they can look out the window

Videotaped EFLe: August 15th, 2012

Extract 49 illustrates that an EFLe student provides some justification after the lecturer's elicitation to buttress her performance of student-lecturer disagreement. In this extract, the student uses *No*, Negative Statement to disagree with the lecturer unambiguously. The student disagrees with the lecturer that an aisle seat on the

airplane is better than a window seat. After her expression of disagreement, the student does not give any justification to the lecturer to explain why she thinks an aisle seat is not better. After a long pause, the lecturer elicits the student's response by an open-ended question '*In what way you think the window seat is better*'. This elicitation is successful. The student gives some justification to clarify her disagreement that passengers sitting on a window seat can enjoy the view outside the window. The provision of justification makes her student-lecturer disagreement sound sensible.

Extract 50:

1. L: Hardworking
2. L: (long pause) Is that(/) POSitive or NEGative
3. Ss: (silent)
4. L: Many */kʰōn tʰāī/* would say negative
5. S: (long pause) (P)No(P)
   (the student shakes his head)
6. L: No(/) (short pause) hardworking is positive(/)
7. S: I don't know
(the student shakes his head)

Videotaped EFLe: July 18th, 2012

Extract 50 shows that an EFLe student unsuccessfully provides a justification to support his disagreement after being elicited by a question. In this extract, the student uses *No* to disagree with the lecturer explicitly that many Thai people would say *hardworking* is negative. After his performance of disagreement, the student does not justify his disagreement. The lecturer is not sure about his answer, raising the intonation of the negative marker *No* to question the student's certainty. After a short pause, the lecturer repeats the question whether hardworking is positive for many Thai people. The student finally admits to the lecturer that he does not know. The use of *I don't know* carries the core meaning that the speaker does have sufficient knowledge (Locher, 2004, pp. 124-127). In addition, the unsuccessful provision of justification may be caused by the elicitation by a closed-ended question that can primarily be answered by 'yes' or 'no.' If the lecturer's question had been an open-ended question, the student might have put a greater effort into justifying his disagreement. However, more studies are needed in order to arrive at a correct conclusion.

Extract 51:

1. L: A lot of Thai people want to talk about their income
2. L: (short pause) Like how much they earn per month
3. S: (long pause) (P)They don't wanna talk about it(P)=
4. S: =It's a secret (laughter)

Videotaped EFLe: July 11th, 2012

Extract 51 demonstrates that an EFLe student gives some justification to buttress his student-lecturer disagreement immediately after he has performed his disagreement. In this extract, the student uses a negative statement to show his explicit contradiction to the lecturer that a lot of Thai people do not want to talk about their incomes. The student further provides some justification that talking about one's income is a secret. This justification is not elicited by the lecturer. His rapid provision of justification may be encouraged by the fact that the student has shared knowledge in this topic. In addition, this general topic is pertinent to Thai people. Having an intimate knowledge, the student can give some justification to supplement his disagreement instantaneously without any elicitation from the lecturer.

Extract 52:

1. L: Learning to speak French after English is not difficult
2. S: (short pause) It's kind of difficult learning to speak two different languages

Videotaped EFLe: September 12th, 2012

Extract 52 reveals that an EFLe student does not give any justification to the lecturer after his performance of disagreement. In this extract, the student uses a downtoner (*kind of*) to mitigate the threat of his disagreement. He disagrees with the lecturer that learning to speak French after English is not difficult. After his disagreement has been expressed, the student does not continue to provide any justification to the lecturer. In this extract, the lecturer does not elicit the student's response either. The frequencies illustrated in Table 19 indicate that this approach is used the most by the EFLe. Obviously, the EFLe are capable of disagreeing with their lecturer in English but normally do not give any justification to buttress their disagreements (35 tokens from the 61 tokens or 57.38 percent). Results from the questionnaire were supportive because 65.00 percent of the EFLe who answered the questionnaire clearly stated they infrequently gave a reason to support their disagreements. One of the students said that it was very difficult to explain a contradictory opinion in English. Two other students admitted that giving a convincing reason required a higher level of English proficiency and they were certain that they could not do so.

4.3 Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, the research questions have been answered. At the beginning, the norms of politeness strategies used by both groups of the native speakers have been attested to be different. The NT normally used negative politeness strategies (58.33 percent), while the NE normally used bald on-record strategies (54.95 percent). After that, both groups of the learners have been found to use all sets of politeness strategies−bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record strategies−when disagreeing with the lecturer in a classroom context in English. These sets of politeness strategies, however, have been used in different frequencies. The EFLt normally used negative politeness strategies (65.67 percent), while the EFLe normally used bald on-record strategies (63.93 percent). Having analyzed the learners' production of disagreements in English, I have discovered two differences. First, their norms of politeness strategies were different with the EFLt's use of negative politeness strategies being more polite, and the EFLe's use of bald on-record strategies more cooperative. Secondly, the EFLt have been verified to perform mitigated disagreements (83.53 percent) more often than non-mitigated disagreements (16.42 percent). The EFLe, on the other hand, have been confirmed to perform non-mitigated disagreement (63.93 percent) more frequently than mitigated disagreements (36.07 percent). In addition, three similarities between the EFLt and the EFLe have been found. First, they both produced a proportional number of disagreements in the 27 hours (the 67 tokens and the 61 tokens). Secondly, the EFLt and the EFLe disagreed with the lecturer when topics of disagreement were general and did not require any specific knowledge. Thirdly, both of them typically did not give any justification to support their disagreement (the EFLt: 52.81 percent, and the EFLe: 57.38 percent). In Chapter 5, the results are discussed in the scope of the interlanguage pragmatics, aiming to investigate the learners' L1 pragmatic transfer, the learners' L2 pragmatic development, and the learners' pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence.

CHAPTER 5
CONTRIBUTIONS

This chapter is divided into four sections, aiming to offer major contributions to the fields of cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics. They are (i) Hofstede's model of culture, (ii) the speech act of disagreement, (iii) Brown and Levinson's (1987) linguistic politeness, and (iv) exposure time to English as the medium of instruction.

5.1 Hofstede's Model of Culture

Although Hofstede's model of culture has been commonly used in a number of cross-cultural studies, the model has received widespread criticism in terms of its absolute assumptions in predicting people's behaviors (Hanna, 2005, pp. 8-16; Jones, 2007, p. 370). In other words, relying on numbers of power distance index (PDI), collectivism and individualism (IDV), femininity and masculinity (MAS), and uncertainty avoidance (UAI) is questionable with regard to whether it truly reflects a complete understanding of people in each and every culture. The model holistically represents stereotypes about people, and thus is more likely to be mistaken because of the great variations among individuals even within one culture. This criticism has kept me alerted and I explicitly stated in Chapter 2 that Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture was used as a blueprint to a better understanding of Thai's and Canadians' linguistic behaviors since they were used as norm providers for my two groups of learner participants.

Figure 2.2 showed that numbers representing PDI, IDV, MAS, and UAI between Canadians and Thai were markedly different. Based on these differences, their linguistic behaviors were assumed to be different. In addition, the model of culture of Canadians has been compared to that of Americans because past studies on disagreements (Prykarpatska, 2008; Rees-Miller, 1995, 2000) exclusively inspected Americans as native speakers of English. Numbers representing PDI, IDV, MAS, and UAI of Americans were closely similar to those of Canadians. Following Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture, Americans' linguistic behaviors were expected to share some close similarities to those of Canadians, while linguistic behaviors of Thais were expected to be divergent from those of Americans and Canadians. Based on the numbers representing PDI, IDV, MAS, and UAI, American and Canadian societies were assumed to be egalitarian. Authorities were equally little recognized in these countries. In communication, American and Canadian people tended to be direct, with communicative means of explicit wordings and gestures (Prykarpatska, 2008; Walkinshaw, 2009). On the contrary, Thai society was regarded, based on Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture, as hierarchical. Authorities were highly recognized in Thailand. In communication, Thai people tended to be less direct, in order to avoid having potential conflicts, particularly with higher-power interlocutors with authority. These rather loose interpretations were extensively based on the numbers represented in Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture.

Results in Section 4.1.1 indicated that native speakers of Thai (the NT) and native speakers of English (the NE) were different in terms of their linguistic behaviors when disagreeing with the lecturer in the classroom context. The NT normally used negative politeness strategies (58.33 percent), while the NE normally used bald on-record strategies (54.94 percent). The use of negative politeness strategies is less direct than the use of bald on-record strategies because it involves a redressive action. These findings ensure that the use of Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture to broadly understand linguistic behaviors between native speakers of Thai and native speakers of Canadian English is in fact reliable despite a lot of criticism. In addition, Rees-Miller (2000, pp. 1096-1097) reported that native speakers of American English, when disagreeing with their professors in the university context, normally performed their disagreements directly, neither softening nor aggravating their expressions of disagreements (42.00 percent). Rees-Miller's finding additionally underscores the reliability of Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture that is sufficiently used as an initial outline to understand people's linguistic behaviors.

5.2 The Speech Act of Disagreement

In this section, there are two major contributions in relation to the speech act of disagreement. They are (i) felicity conditions for disagreement, and (ii) disagreement and indirectness.

5.2.1 Felicity Conditions for Disagreement

According to Searle (1969), there are four conditions that speech acts should meet in order to become felicitous. They are (i) propositional content conditions, (ii) preparatory conditions, (iii) sincerity conditions, and (iv) essential conditions. The speech act of a promise, for example, can be felicitous because it meets the four conditions. Unlike the speech act of a promise, expressing a disagreement does not necessarily meet all felicity conditions. In Section 2.1.4.2, I proposed that the speech act of disagreement may or may not have to meet the four felicity conditions to become felicitous. This proposed idea was based on Liu's (2004, pp. 27-28) discussion of felicity conditions for disagreement. The speech act of disagreement can be felicitous without meeting the propositional content conditions. In other words, successful performance of disagreements does not obligatorily require contents of disagreement.

Results in Section 4.1.2.1 show that the speech act of disagreement can possibly be felicitous without having any contents. Considering the results in Section 4.1.2.1, the Thai EFL learners performed their student-lecturer disagreements in English without meeting the propositional content conditions, i.e. their disagreements were expressed with no contents. There are four possible linguistic realizations that exclude contents of disagreement: (i) *No*, (ii) *I disagree*, (iii) *I don't think so*, and (iv) *I don't think like that*. These realizations are explicit and are not softened by any linguistic modification, thus producing unambiguous disagreements. Results based on the frequencies showed that these linguistic features were pervasive among the Thai

EFL learners. The EFLt used *No* to express their disagreements with no contents in English in 81.82 percent. In the same vein, the EFLe used *No* in 64.10 percent. Additionally, the EFLe also used other linguistic features, such as *I disagree*, *I don't think so*, and *I don't think like that*, to explicitly communicate their intention to disagree with the lecturer in English. It is clearly discernible that the speech act of disagreement can be felicitous without meeting the propositional content conditions. The learner participants in my study frequently expressed their explicit disagreements in English without having contents of disagreements, producing rather simple linguistic expressions.

5.2.2 Disagreement and Indirectness

Performing a disagreement ambiguously is one possible realization to reduce potential threats of disagreement that may jeopardize the addressee's positive face (cf. Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 211-227). According to Thomas (1995, pp. 120-121), there are several reasons to motivate the speakers to be indirect when performing a face-threatening act. In Section 2.1.4.3, I initially hypothesized that there were two major reasons to encourage the Thai EFL learners to express their student-lecturer disagreements ambiguously: (i) the learners would not wish to hurt their lecturer's feelings and (ii) the learners would not want to appear aggressive. However, Dascal (1983) admitted that performing any speech acts ambiguously is risky and costly. It is said to be risky because illocutionary act potentials may generate various perlocutionary effects on the addressee. Therefore, there are high possibilities that the speaker's intentional meaning is misinterpreted. It is said to be costly because it requires a great deal of effort and proficiency from the learners to realize a speech act implicitly and ambiguously. In other words, the literal meaning and the speaker's intended meaning are not mutually corresponding, that is, the speaker's intended meaning is not directly expressed.

Results in Section 4.1.2.4 reflect that some assumptions above are valid, while some are invalid. Firstly, expressing a disagreement ambiguously is indeed a possible linguistic realization to decrease the threat of disagreement. The Thai EFL learners performed their student-lecturer disagreements in English implicitly and ambiguously although in a small number. As put forward in Section 4.1.2, the Thai EFL learners used four possible sets of politeness strategies, which were (i) bald on-record strategies, (ii) positive politeness strategies, (iii) negative politeness strategies, and (iv) off-record strategies. The use of the second, third, and fourth sets of politeness strategies can of course diminish the threat of disagreements (cf. Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 94-227). Secondly, a small number of disagreements performed ambiguously possibly suggests that my initial assumptions based on Thomas (1995, pp. 120-121) are not necessarily plausible. The results showed that the EFLt used off-record strategies only in 5.97 percent, and the EFLe in 4.92 percent. If the Thai EFL learners had deliberately intended to avoid hurting the lecturer's feelings and to avoid appearing aggressive, they would have used off-record strategies in higher frequencies. In light of this, Dascal's (1983) assumption about indirectness that entails 'risk' and 'cost' becomes more convincing. Performing student-lecturer disagreements implicitly can bring about different perlocutionary effects on the

lecturers. They can be easily misinterpreted; therefore, the Thai EFL learners frequently chose to perform their student-lecturer disagreements rather explicitly and directly. Conveying their intentions of disagreements explicitly can be softened by linguistic modification as in the use of positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies. Besides, disagreeing with the lecturer in English ambiguously can be difficult for the Thai EFL learners with an intermediate level of English proficiency. Further analysis on their realizations of off-record strategies revealed that their indirect disagreements were mostly non-conventional (cf. Searle, 1969, 1975). Considering the correspondence between sentence types and illocutionary forces, the EFLe used an interrogative sentence to perform student-lecturer disagreement ambiguously. The use of conventional indirect disagreement appeared only once from the three tokens, or in 33.33 percent. In this case, the student used a rhetorical question to perform their indirect disagreement with the lecturer in English.

5.3 Brown and Levinson's (1987) Linguistic Politeness

Brown and Levinson's (1987) linguistic politeness has been predominantly used in previous studies on disagreements (Charoenroop, 2014, 2015; Edstrom, 2004; Habib, 2008; Kakava, 2002; Rees-Miller, 2000; Sifianou, 2012; Walkinshaw, 2007). Although there has been considerable criticism on the theory (cf. Beebe & Takahashi, 1989a, 1989b; Gu, 1990; Mao, 1994; Matsumoto, 1993), Brown and Levinson's theory has been widely used as a point of departure for many works on linguistic politeness. There are three topics needed to be further discussed because my research findings tend to be supportive of Brown and Levinson's linguistic politeness. The topics are (i) lecturer power, (ii) combinations of politeness strategies, and (iii) the universal concepts of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory.

5.3.1 Lecturer Power

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), there are three socio-cultural variables to be calculated in order to measure the degrees of seriousness. The variables comprise (i) power, (ii) social distance, and (iii) ranking of imposition. In this study, the first socio-cultural variable has been focused. This study explored what politeness strategies Thai EFL learners used to disagree with their lecturer. Obviously, the learners' power is inferior to the lecturer's in terms of their knowledge, expertise as well as age (Liu, 2004; Walkinshaw, 2007); however, the contributions of this variable to the Thai EFL learners' selections of politeness strategies were not consistent. Based on the results revealing that the Thai EFL learners used all of the politeness strategies, it appears correct to say that learners perceived or interpreted their lecturer's power differently. Liu (2004, pp. 107-110), for example, contended that there were at least five types of lecturer's power in Chinese higher education, (i) knowledge, (ii) information, (iii) responsibility, (iv) coercion, and (v) reward. Walkinshaw (2009, p. 52) further elaborated that the lecturer's power was multidimensional, and thus had an impact on the learners in various ways. Walkinshaw (2009) listed five types of lecturer's power that could be interpreted as (i) reward power, (ii) coercive power, (iii) legitimate power, (iv) referent power, and

(v) expert power. If the learners perceive the lecturers variously according to the five types of power, their selections of politeness strategies are likely to be affected.

Results in Section 4.1.2 indicated that the Thai EFL learners used bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies and off-record strategies when disagreeing with the lecturer in their classroom context. Their perceptions towards their lecturer's power could be multidimensional. In addition, each individual learner would have different interpretations of their lecturer's power, causing the use of different politeness strategies in the same context. Social distance and ranking of imposition can also contribute to the Thai EFL learners' selections of politeness strategies. However, the use of research methodologies in Chapter 3 disclosed that the Thai EFL learners had never studied with their professors before the implementation of this research project. Therefore presumably, the social distance between the lecturer and each student did not markedly differ. In addition, results in Chapter 4 showed that the learners disagreed with their lecturer only when topics of disagreement were general in that they did not require any specific knowledge from the learners. The Thai EFL learners had never disagreed with their lecturer when dealing with the topics of the class. Based on this evidence, it can be assumed that the ranking of imposition was relatively small for both groups of the Thai EFL learners.

5.3.2 Combinations of Politeness Strategies

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), combinations between sets of politeness strategies are possible, such as the use of positive politeness strategies together with negative politeness strategies in one linguistic realization. However, such combination may require higher linguistic sophistication from the learners on different developmental stages. The Thai EFL learners who had an intermediate level of English proficiency might not have been able to use such complicated strategies in the target language. Previous studies admitted that EFL learners whose English levels were intermediate were able to disagree with their lecturer in English (Behnam & Niroomand, 2011; Charoenroop, 2015; Chen, 2006; Choyimah & Latief, 2014; Xuehua, 2006). However, those studies did not precisely identify what types of politeness strategies the EFL learners used. In this study, the term 'hybrid strategies' has been used to refer to as a combination of politeness strategies. Results in Chapter 4 showed that only native speakers of Thai (the NT) and native speakers of English (the NE) used hybrid strategies when they disagreed with their lecturer in their native languages. The NT used hybrid strategies in 6.94 percent, while the NE used them in 9.89 percent. Further examination revealed that the Thai EFL learners did not use hybrid strategies when they disagreed with their lecturer in English. This finding suggested that their level of English proficiency may not be sufficient for them to combine more than one set of politeness strategies in their realizations. In brief, it could be tentatively said that the Thai EFL learners, whose English proficiency level is intermediate, were able to vary their politeness strategies. However, they were less likely to combine politeness strategies.

5.3.3 Universal Concepts of Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory

A lot of criticisms on Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory came from scholars mainly from the East (Gu, 1990; Intachakra, 2011; Mao, 1994; Matsumoto, 1988). The criticisms deal with the fact that many Asian cultures are less egalitarian than many Western cultures. Asian people tend to put strong emphasis on status ranking and social hierarchy. In addition, Hofstede's (1991, 2001) model of culture has distinguished different types of social structures between the East and the West. However, Brown and Levinson's (1987) concept of politeness theory is not totally meaningless to Asian people. Like with many Westerners, the use of politeness strategies by Asian people aims to foster solidarity and to strengthen harmony. Results from Chapter 4 indicated that the Thai EFL learners also used politeness strategies variously, using bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies and off-record strategies. The Thai EFL learners never aggravated their expressions of disagreements in my study. Their politeness strategies reflected Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies, showing similar patterns regardless of culture or location. This is to say that the Thai EFL learners did not want to appear aggressive by using any reinforced strategies to increase the threat of their student-lecturer disagreements. In brief, the Thai EFL learners, when disagreeing with their lecturer in English, did not want to jeopardize their lecturer's positive face. Thus, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory remains plausible when explaining the Thai EFL learners' linguistic behaviors in their different backgrounds.

5.4 Exposure Time to English as the Medium of Instruction

A large body of related studies on disagreements (Behnam & Niroomand, 2011; Chen, 2006; Choyimah & Latief, 2014; Guodong & Jing, 2005; Walkinshaw, 2007; Xuehua, 2006) explored EFL learners with different levels of English proficiency. These studies yielded consistent findings in that the EFL learners who had a high level of English proficiency performed their disagreements indirectly with more sophisticated linguistic and pragmatic structures. On the other hand, those with a low level of English proficiency performed their disagreements directly with less complicated linguistic and pragmatic structures. My study did not aim to replicate other studies but used another variable, that is, the amounts of exposure time to English as the medium of instruction, to differentiate the two groups of Thai EFL learners because this variable seems to be more concretely measurable. Results in Chapter 4 made it manifest that the two groups of Thai EFL learners normally used different sets of politeness strategies. In order to make some contributions to the field of the interlanguage pragmatic studies, L1 pragmatic transfer (cf. Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993), and L2 pragmatic development (cf. Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993) are discussed, and the learners' pragmatic competence (cf. Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983) are compared.

5.4.1 L1 Pragmatic Transfer

It has been shown in Sections 4.1.1.1 and 4.1.2 that the NT and the EFLt, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction shared the same norms, negative politeness strategies, when disagreeing with their lecturer in a classroom context. Considering this similarity, it has been claimed that the EFLt have transferred their native pragmatic competence to their production of student-lecturer disagreements in English. In order to support the claim, realizations of negative politeness strategies by the NT are investigated (5.5.1.1). Then, the EFLt's and the EFLe's realizations of the same politeness strategies are examined and compared with the NT's realizations of negative politeness strategies (5.5.1.2).

5.4.1.1 NT's Norm: Realizations of Negative Politeness Strategies

There were three pieces of evidence the NT usually did when realizing negative politeness strategies: (i) the NT typically used modals */nâ:cjʌ̀/* (*should*) or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*) as hedges to minimize the threat of their disagreements in Thai, (ii) the NT usually began their mitigated disagreements with */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/* (*I think*), and (iii) they frequently addressed their Thai lecturer by the professional address term−*/ʔā:cjā:n/*. Table 5.1 shows how frequently the NT use a modal, *I think,* and the professional address term when realizing negative politeness strategies in the 42 tokens.

Evidence	Frequency	
Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should)* or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)*	22/42	52.38%
/nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/ or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)*	28/42	66.67%
Address Term */ʔā:cjā:n/* (*lecturer*)	35/42	83.33%

Table 5.1: Evidence of the NT's Realizations of Negative Politeness Strategies

5.4.1.1.1 Modal /nâ:cjʌ̀/ (should) or /ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/ (might)

In Section 4.1.1.1, the NT used modals */nâ:cjʌ̀/* (*should*) or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*) to downgrade the imposition of their disagreements in two linguistic features, which were (i) Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/* (*should*) or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*), and (ii) */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/* (*I think*) + Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/* (*should*) or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*) (see Table 4.2). Basically, the NT used */nâ:cjʌ̀/* (*should*) or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*) in 22 tokens from the 42 tokens or 52.38 percent. They did not use adverbs, verbs of certainty, or downtoners to decrease the imposition of their disagreements. Further analysis showed that the presence of */nâ:cjʌ̀/* (*should*) or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*) appeared in the content of disagreement. If the lecturer's preceding utterance is expressed in a statement, the NT will perform their disagreement in a negative statement. In order to produce a

negative statement, a negative marker /*mâi*/ is added (see Extracts 1 and 3 in Chapter 4). According to the data, the position of this negative marker in relation to the two modals: */nâ:cjʌ̀/* (*should*) and */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*) are different. In order to form a negative statement when */nâ:cjʌ̀/* is the modal in a statement, /*mâi*/ will immediately precede the modal, as in /*mâi nâ:cjʌ̀*/. Diversely, forming a negative statement when */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* is the modal in a statement, /*mâi*/ will follow the modal immediately as in */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀ mâi*/ (see Extract 1).

Extract 1:

1.L:	ʔā:cjā:n	wâ:	sɔ̄mă̄i	ní:		
	อาจารย์	ว่า	สมัย	นี้		
	lecturer	think	period	this		
	I think nowadays					
1.L:	kʰɔ̄nrā̄w	tɔ̂:ŋ	pʰû̱ŋpʰā:	tʰɛ́knō:lō:jî:		
	คนเรา	ต้อง	พึ่งพา	เทคโนโลยี		
	people	must	rely	technology		
	people must rely on technology.					
2.S:	(s.pause) sɔ̄mă̄i		ní:	bā:ŋ	tʰî:	klāi	klāi
	(s.pause) สมัย		นี้	บาง	ที่	ไกล	ไกล
	(s.pause) period		this	some	place	far	far
	Nowadays, in some remote areas,						
2.S:	kʰɔ̄n	ʔà:dcjʌ̀	mâi	tɔ̂:ŋ	tʰɛ́knō:lō:jî:		
	คน	อาจจะ	ไม่	ต้องการ	เทคโนโลยี		
	people	might	not	want	technology		
	people might not need the technology.						

Videotaped NT: January 29th, 2012

Extract 1 demonstrates how an NT student uses a modal */ʔà:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*) as a hedge to decrease the threat of her disagreement in Thai. This modal can be translated into English as *might*. The presence of this modal is in the content of disagreement. In this extract, the lecturer's preceding opinion is expressed in a statement. In order to show a contradictory opinion, the student forms a negative statement by adding the negative marker−/*mâi*/−to disagree with the lecturer. The negative marker follows the modal as in */ʔà:dcjʌ̀ mâi/*, enabling the student to disagree with the lecturer.

5.4.1.1.2 /nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/ or /pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/ (I think)

In Section 4.1.1.1, the NT used */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/* (*I think*) to downgrade the threat of their disagreements in two linguistic features: (i) */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/* (*I think*), and (ii) */nŭ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰŏm (kʰíd) wâ:/* (*I think*) + Modal */nâ:cjʌ̀/* (*should*) or */ʔʌ̀:dcjʌ̀/* (*might*). In the 42 tokens, the NT used

/nǔ: (kʰíd) wâ:/ or */pʰǒm (kʰíd) wâ:/* in 28 tokens or 66.67 percent. They initiated their performance of disagreement with */nǔ: (kʰíd) wâ:/* or */pʰǒm (kʰíd) wâ:/* (*I think*) (see Extracts 2 and 3 in Chapter 4). The use of first-person pronouns */nǔ:/* and */pʰǒm/* as self-reference terms in Thai agrees with the speaker's biological gender as a male and a female, respectively. In my data, female students used */nǔ:/* as their self-reference term when disagreeing with their lecturer, while male students used */pʰǒm/* as a self-reference term. In addition, the presence of these self-reference terms reflects a social hierarchy between the student and the lecturer, accepting that their power standings in an institutional context are asymmetrical (Khanittanan, 1988, pp. 357-358).

5.4.1.1.3 Professional Address Term: /ʔāːcjāːn/

The NT usually addressed their lecturer by a Thai professional term for university lecturers, /*ʔā:cjā:n*/. The NT used this professional term to address their lecturer right after their disagreements. In the 42 tokens, */ʔā:cjā:n/* appeared in 35 tokens or 83.33 percent. In addition, this professional address term coincided with polite particles in Thai /*kʰrʌ́b*/−the polite particle for males, or /*kʰʌ́*/−the polite particle for females. The term follows the polite particles, as in /*kʰrʌ́b ʔā:cjā:n*/ and /*kʰʌ́ ʔā:cjā:n*/. The presence of the polite particles */kʰrʌ́b/* and */kʰʌ́/*, and the use of the professional term */ʔā:cjā:n/* helps make the NT's mitigated disagreements sound more polite to the lecturer (cf. Khanittanan, 1988; Kummer, 2005; Srisuruk, 2011). This research finding is similar to what Guodong and Jing (2005) have presented in their article on disagreements, pointing out that their Chinese participants, whose culture was collectivist, employed a wide range of professional address terms, such as "lao-shi" (teacher), "jiao-shou" (professor), and "dao-shi" (supervisor), to diminish the threat of their disagreements when disagreeing with lecturers in Mandarin Chinese. Contrary to the Chinese participants, the NT did not use a variety of professional address term to address their lecturer in Thai. They extensively used /*ʔā:cjā:n*/ (*lecturer*) to address their lecturer in Thai.

5.4.1.2 EFLt's and EFLe's Realizations of Negative Politeness Strategies

In order to examine the learners' L1 pragmatic transfer, the three pieces of evidence, which are (i) modals (*should*, *might*), (ii) *I think*, and (iii) the professional address term */ʔā:cjā:n/*, used by the EFLt and the EFLe are investigated. It has been discovered that the EFLt usually used *should* and *might* as a hedge to downgrade their disagreements, prefaced their disagreements with *I think*, and addressed their lecturer by */ʔā:cjā:n/* (see Table 5.2). On the other hand, it has been found that the EFLe hardly used modals (*should*) and (*might*) as hedges to decrease the threat of their disagreements, rarely used *I think* to begin their disagreements, and never addressed their lecturer by the professional address term */ʔā:cjā:n/* (see also Table 5.2).

Evidence	EFLt		EFLe	
	Frequency		Frequency	
Modal (*should*, *might*)	22/44	50.00%	1/12	8.33%
I think	35/44	79.54%	3/12	25.00%
Address Term */ʔāːcjāːn/*	28/44	63.63%	-/12	-

Table 5.2: Examining the EFLt's and the EFLe's Realizations of Negative Politeness Strategies

5.4.1.2.1 Modal (should, might)

In Section 4.1.2.3, the EFLt used modals (*should*, *might*) as hedges to downgrade the force of their disagreements in two linguistic features, which were (i) Modal (*should*, *might*), and (ii) *I think* + Modal (*should*, *might*). In the 44 tokens, the EFLt used *should* and *might* to lessen the imposition of their disagreements in 22 tokens or 50.00 percent. The EFLt encoded these modals within the content of disagreements. In order to perform disagreements, a negative marker, *not*, was added. This negative marker follows the modals as in *should not* or *might not*. In brief, it has been found that the learners, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, typically realized negative politeness strategies as similarly as the NT. On the other hand, the EFLe, who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, hardly used modals to decrease the threat of their disagreements. They used *should* only once from the 12 tokens or 8.33 percent. It has been found that the EFLe used other types of hedges to decrease the threat of their disagreements in English. They were (i) verbs of uncertainty (*seem*, *tend*), (ii) downtoners (*sort of, kind of*), and (iii) adverbs (*should*, *might*). The EFLe used verbs of uncertainty the most (33.34 percent). It has been discovered that the learners, who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, usually realized negative politeness strategies differently from the NT.

5.4.1.2.2 I think

In Section 4.1.2.3, the EFLt used *I think* to soften the threat of their disagreements in three linguistic features, which were (i) *I think*, (ii) *I think* + Modal (*should*, *might*), and (iii) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*). In the 44 tokens, the EFLt used *I think* to mitigate their performance of disagreements in 35 tokens or 79.54 percent. The EFLt almost always prefaced their disagreements with *I think*. Only one female student uttered *I think* after her disagreement (see Extract 2).

Extract 2:

1. L: Strict can be negative RIGHT(/) right(/)=
2. L:=For example when (short pause) you didn't do your homework
(the lecturer demonstrates to slap on a student's face)
3. Ss: (laughter)
4. L: Maybe maybe a little too strict (short pause) right(/)
5. S: (short pause) @Too much I think@=
6. L: =Oh too much too much strict right(/)

Videotaped EFLt: August 14th, 2012

Extract 2 exemplifies how an EFLt student uses *I think* as a hedge to minimize the imposition of her disagreement. This extract is different from other realizations of negative politeness strategies, where the EFLt initiated their disagreements with *I think*. Although the position of *I think* is after the content of disagreement, it can still downgrade the threat of the foregoing disagreement (cf. Locher, 2004, pp. 122-124). The frequent use of *I think* to begin a token of disagreement by the EFLt shows that the learners with *less frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction realize negative politeness strategies as similarly as the NT. On the other hand, the EFLe infrequently used *I think* to lessen the threat of disagreements. In the 12 tokens, the EFLe used *I think* in three tokens or 25.00 percent. The infrequent use of I think shows that the learners, who *were more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, realized negative politeness strategies as similarly as the NT.

5.4.1.2.3 Professional Address Term: /ʔāːcjāːn/

The EFLt usually addressed their American lecturer by a Thai professional term /*ʔāːcjāːn*/. In the 44 tokens, the EFLt used this professional address term in 28 tokens or 63.63 percent. The position of this term was at the end of the students' disagreements. The term was directly borrowed from Thai and was not translated into English. In addition, the professional address term /*ʔāːcjāːn*/ concurred with the polite particles in Thai for males and females: /*kʰrʌ́b*/ and /*kʰʌ́*/. These particles preceded the professional address term, as in /*kʰrʌ́b ʔāːcjāːn*/ and /*kʰʌ́ ʔāːcjāːn*/ (see Extract 3).

Extract 3:

1. L: Listening to English is easier than reading
2. S: (short pause) When you read, you can read=
3. S: =many times many times as you want
4. S: But in listening, you can listen just once
5. S: (short pause) I think reading in English is easier */kʰɤ̂ ʔā:cjā:n/*

Videotaped EFLt: July 10th, 2012

Extract 3 demonstrates that an EFLt student addresses her American lecturer by the professional address term */ʔā:cjā:n/*. The term is not translated into English. It appears after the student has performed her disagreement in English. Besides, the student adopts the polite particle for females */kʰɤ̂/* to make her disagreement sound more pleasant to the lecturer. This polite particle precedes the professional term. The frequent use of this professional address term shows that the learners with *less frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction realized negative politeness strategies as similarly as the NT. On the other hand, the EFLe never adopted */ʔā:cjā:n/* to address their American lecturer when performing mitigated disagreements. This shows that learners with *more frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction realized negative politeness strategies differently from the NT.

5.4.2 L2 Pragmatic Development

It has been illustrated in Sections 4.1.1.2 and 4.1.2 that the NE and the EFLe, who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction shared the same norms, bald on-record strategies, when they disagreed with the lecturer in a classroom context. Considering this similarity, it has been claimed that the EFLe have fully developed their pragmatic competence when performing their disagreements in the target language. In order to substantiate the claim, realizations of bald on-record strategies by the NE are investigated (5.5.2.1). Then, the EFLt's and the EFLe's realizations of the same politeness strategies are examined and compared with the NE's realizations of bald on-record strategies (5.5.2.2).

5.4.2.1 NE's Norm: Bald On-Record Strategies

There were two pieces of evidence the NE usually did when they realized bald on-record strategies: (i) the NE usually provided content of disagreements, and (ii) the NE usually provided a justification to support their disagreements. Table 5.3 shows how often the NE provided content of disagreements, and justified their contradictory opinions when realizing bald on-record strategies.

Evidence	Frequency	
Content	37/50	74.00%
Justification	45/50	90.00%

Table 5.3: Evidence of the NE's Realizations of Bald On-Record Strategies

5.4.2.1.1 Content

In Section 4.1.1.2, the NE used (i) *No*, (ii) *No*, Negative Statement, (iii) Negative Statement, (iv) *I don't think so*, and (v) *I don't think like that* to disagree with their lecturer explicitly without any linguistic mitigation. The NE typically used *No*, Negative Statement (52.00 percent) and Negative Statement (22.00 percent) to express their contradictory opinions to their lecturer. The presence of a negative statement enables the NE to express the content of disagreement. In the 50 tokens, the NE expressed the content of disagreements in 37 tokens or 74.00 percent. The NE infrequently disagreed with their lecturer without expressing the content of disagreements. They used *No, I don't think so*, and *I don't think like that* in 13 tokens from the 50 tokens or 26.00 percent. Even without the content, *No, I don't think so*, or *I don't think like that* can be used to successfully convey a communicative intention to disagree with the lecturer.

5.4.2.1.2 Justification

In realizations of bald on-record strategies, the NE regularly justified their disagreements. In the 50 tokens, the NE provided some justification to support their disagreements in 45 tokens or 90.00 percent. Their justifications generally aimed to clarify their points of disagreements to the lecturer, and to persuade the lecturer to agree with them. Put forward in Section 4.2.2.3, there were three types of justification provided by the Thai EFL learners: (i) a justification that was elicited by the lecturer and successfully provided by the learner, (ii) a justification that was elicited by the lecturer and not successfully provided by the learner, and (iii) a justification that came out immediately without the lecturer's elicitation. Table 5.4 shows how often each type of justification is used by the NE.

Types of Justification		Frequency	
Lecturer's Elicitation	Successful	6	13.33%
	Unsuccessful	-	-
Self-Provision		39	86.67%
Total		45	100%

Table 5.4: The NE's Types of Justification

The NE frequently provided a justification to buttress their disagreements by themselves. Their justification usually came out spontaneously without the lecturer's elicitation. In the 45 tokens, the NE gave a justification with no elicitation from the

lecturer in 39 tokens or 86.67 percent. There were six tokens from the 45 tokens or 13.33 percent where the NE did not initially provide any justification, and the lecturer elicited their response of justifications. Results revealed that the NE were able to justify their disagreements every time after being asked to do so by the lecturer, with no unsuccessful attempts.

5.4.2.2 EFLe's and EFLt's Realizations of Bald On-Record Strategies

In order to inspect the learners' L2 pragmatic development, the two pieces of evidence, which are (i) a provision of the content and (ii) a provision of justification, by the EFLe and the EFLt are examined. It has been found that both the EFLe and the EFLt hardly provided content of disagreements and seldom justified their disagreements (see Table 5.5).

Evidence	EFLe		EFLt	
	Frequency		Frequency	
Content	9/39	23.07%	2/11	18.18%
Justification	6/39	10.25%	1/11	9.09%

Table 5.5: Examining the EFLt's and the EFLe's Realizations of Bald On-Record Strategies

5.4.2.2.1 Content

In Section 4.1.2.1, the EFLe rarely expressed their disagreements in English with the content of disagreements. Although the EFLe used (i) *No*, Negative Statement, and (ii) Negative Statement to express some content of disagreements through a negative statement, these linguistic features were infrequently used. In the 39 tokens, the EFLe used (i) *No*, Negative Statement, and (ii) Negative Statement in nine tokens or 23.07 percent. Diversely, they typically expressed their student-lecturer disagreements with no content, using (i) *No*, (ii) *I disagree*, (iii) *I don't think so*, and (iv) *I don't think like that*. The EFLe most frequently used *No* to express their explicit disagreements to the lecturer, making their realizations of bald on-record strategies short. In the 39 tokens, *No* was used by the EFLe in 25 tokens or 64.10 percent. It has been discovered that the learners, who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, realized bald on-record strategies differently from the NE. In a similar vein, the EFLt, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, hardly provided the content of disagreement. They used *No*, Negative Statement, and Negative Statement twice from the 11 tokens or 18.18 percent. In the 11 tokens, the EFLt used *No* to express their unambiguous disagreements in nine tokens or 81.82 percent. Therefore, their explicit disagreements were relatively short. It has been found that the learners with *less frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction realized bald on-record strategies differently from the NE.

5.4.2.2.2 Justification

The Thai EFL learners barely justified their disagreements when using bald on-record strategies. In the 39 tokens, the EFLe justified their disagreements in six tokens or 10.25 percent. It has been found that the learners with *more frequent* exposure to English as the medium of instruction did not realize bald on-record strategies similarly to the NE. In the same vein, the EFLt, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, hardly buttressed their student-lecturer disagreements when using bald on-record strategies. In the 11 tokens, the EFLt provided a justification only once or 9.09 percent. It has been discovered that the learners, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, realized bald on-record strategies differently from the NE. Further analysis on types of justifications presents another evidence to arrive at a conclusion that the Thai EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence is different from that of the NE even though the EFLe and the NE share the same norms. In Section 5.2.1.2, the NE usually justified their disagreements in English instantly without the lecturer's elicitation. Unlike the NE, the Thai EFL learners rarely justified their disagreements by themselves without the lecturer's elicitation. The Thai EFL learners' types of justification are detailed in Table 5.6.

Types of Justification		EFLe		EFLt	
		Frequency		Frequency	
Lecturer's Elicitation	Successful	4	66.66%	-	-
	Unsuccessful	1	16.67%	1	100%
Self-Provision		1	16.67%	-	-
Total		6	100%	1	100%

Table 5.6: The EFLe's and the EFLt's Types of Justification

The EFLe very rarely initiated their justification to buttress their disagreements in English. In the six tokens, the EFLe immediately provided a justification only once or 16.67 percent. This is further evidence that leads to a conclusion that the learners with *more frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction provided a justification in a different manner from the NE. In a similar fashion, the EFLt never initiated a justification. Results showed that the EFLt gave a justification to explain a disagreement to the lecturer only once after the lecturer's elicitation. However, an EFLt student unsuccessfully provided a justification to support his disagreement in English. This is another piece of evidence that leads to a conclusion that the learners, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, did not provide a justification in a similar manner as the NE.

5.4.3 The Learners' Pragmatic Competence

Following Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983), pragmatic competence consists of two competences: (i) sociopragmatic competence and (ii) pragmalinguistic competence. Within the scope of this study, the Thai EFL leaners' sociopragmatic competence refers to the learners' social perceptions that underlie their interlanguage production of student-lecturer disagreements, and their pragmalinguistic competence refers to their linguistic knowledge in English the Thai EFL learners use to perform their student-lecturer disagreements in the target language (cf. Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p. 78). In the following sections, the researcher compares the learners' sociopragmatic competence (5.5.3.1) and pragmalinguistic competence (5.5.3.2).

5.4.3.1 The Learners' Sociopragmatic Competence

As put forward in Section 4.1.2, the EFLt and the EFLe have been found to use different politeness strategies as their norms. According to the norms, the learners, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, were different from the learners, who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, in terms of their sociopragmatic competence. Table 5.7 re-illustrates the EFLt's and the EFLe's norms of politeness strategies in order to encapsulate that the learners, who were exposed to English as the medium of instruction in different frequencies, had different social perceptions and such perceptions affected their selections of politeness strategies.

Sets of Politeness Strategies	EFLt		EFLe	
	Frequency		Frequency	
Bald On-Record Strategies	11	16.42%	**39**	**63.93%**
Positive Politeness Strategies	8	11.94%	7	11.47%
Negative Politeness Strategies	**44**	**65.67%**	12	19.68%
Off-Record Strategies	4	5.97%	3	4.92%
Total	67	100%	61	100%

Table 5.7: The EFLt's and the EFLe's Norms of Politeness Strategies

Table 5.7 shows that the EFLt normally used negative politeness strategies. In the 67 tokens, they used negative politeness strategies in 44 tokens or 65.67 percent. Differently, the EFLe normally used bald on-record strategies. In the 61 tokens, they used bald on-record strategies in 39 tokens or 63.93 percent. The use of the two different sets of politeness strategies as norms in the same classroom context by the two groups of Thai EFL learners, whose English proficiency levels were comparable, has underscored that their social perceptions were different. The learners, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, normally perceived that student-lecturer disagreements performed in the classroom context were face-threatening. The threat of disagreements should be hedged. Therefore, using negative politeness strategies as the norm was socially acceptable for them. On the other hand,

the learners, who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, normally perceived that disagreements addressed to the lecturer by the students in the classroom context were not face-threatening. They could be performed explicitly without any linguistic mitigation. Thus, using bald on-record strategies as the norm was socially acceptable for them.

5.4.3.2 The Learners' Pragmalingiustic Competence

As put forward in Sections 4.1.2.1, 4.1.2.2, 4.1.2.3, and 4.1.2.4, it has been found that the EFLt realized each set of politeness strategies in a lower variety of linguistic features than the EFLe. Considering their realizations, the learners with *less frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction were different from the learners with *more frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction in terms of their pragmlinguistic competence. The EFLt and the EFLe realized each set of politeness strategies in a different variety of linguistic features. In the following sections, the EFLt's and the EFLe's uses of linguistic features in their realizations of bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record strategies are compared.

5.4.3.2.1 Realizations of Bald On-Record Strategies

As mentioned in Section 4.1.2.1, the Thai EFL learners used six linguistic features: (i) *No,* (ii) *No,* Negative Statement, (iii) Negative Statement, (iv) *I disagree*, (v) *I don't think so*, and (vi) *I don't think like that*, to disagree with their lecturer in English unambiguously without any linguistic mitigation. The EFLt used a smaller number of linguistic features to realize bald on-record strategies, while the EFLe used a greater number of linguistic features, as compared in Table 5.8.

Disagreement Strategies		EFLt	EFLe
Semantic Formula	Linguistic Features	Usage	Usage
Explicit Contradiction	*No*	●	●
	No, Negative Statement	●	●
	Negative Statement	●	●
	I disagree	x	●
	I don't think so	x	●
	I don't think like that	x	●

Table 5.8: The EFLt's and the EFLe's Uses of Linguistic Features to Realize Bald On-Record Strategies

According to Table 5.8, the EFLt used three linguistic features to disagree with their lecturer explicitly without any linguistic mitigation: (i) *No,* (ii) *No,* Negative Statement, and (iii) Negative Statement; while the EFLe used all six linguistic features mentioned above to perform their explicit disagreements without

any linguistic softening devices. It is evident that the learners with *less frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction possessed fewer L2 linguistic resources to perform their disagreements in the target language. Unlike the EFLt, the EFLe used fixed expressions, i.e. *I disagree, I don't think so,* and *I don't think like that*, to disagree with their lecturer explicitly without any linguistic mitigation. Considering that the EFLe used bald on-record strategies as their norm, there is no surprise to see a greater variety of linguistic features used by them.

5.4.3.2.2 Realizations of Positive Politeness Strategies

As reported in Section 4.1.2.2, the Thai EFL learners used three linguistic features: (i) *I agree, but…*, (ii) *Yes, but…*, and (iii) *It's good, but…* to maintain the lecturer's positive face when disagreeing with the lecturer unambiguously. The EFLt used a lower number of linguistic features when realizing positive politeness strategies than the EFLe, as illustrated in Table 5.9.

Disagreement Strategies		EFLt	EFLe
Semantic Formulas	Linguistic Features	Usage	Usage
Partial Agreement	*I agree but…*	x	●
	Yes, but…	●	●
Positive Initiation	*It's good, but...*	●	●

Table 5.9: The EFLt's and the EFLe's Uses of Linguistic Features to Realize Positive Politeness Strategies

According to Table 5.9, the EFLt used two linguistic features to soften the threat of their disagreements, aiming to save the lecturer's positive face. They were (i) *Yes, but….*, and (ii) *It's good, but….* Contrary to the EFLt, the EFLe used all types of linguistic features, which are (i) *I agree, but…*, (ii) *Yes, but…*, and (iii) *It's good, but…* to mitigate the threat of their disagreements, aiming to maintain the lecturer's positive face. It is evident that the learners, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, were equipped with fewer L2 linguistic resources to disagree with their lecturer in English.

5.4.3.2.3 Realizations of Negative Politeness Strategies

As written in Section 4.1.2.3, the Thai EFL learners used eight linguistic features: (i) Verb of Uncertainty *(seem, tend)*, (ii) Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*), (iii) Modal (*should, might*), (iv) Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), (v) *I think*, (vi) *I think* + Modal *(should, might*), (vii) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), and (viii) Question, to maintain the lecturer's negative face when they disagreed with the lecturer unambiguously. The EFLt used a smaller number of linguistic features to realize

negative politeness strategies, while the EFLe used a larger number of linguistic features to realize the same politeness strategies, as illustrated in Table 5.10.

Disagreement Strategies		EFLt	EFLe
Semantic Formula	Linguistic Features	Usage	Usage
Hedge	Verb of Uncertainty (*seem*, *tend*)	x	●
	Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*)	x	●
	Modal (*should*, *might*)	●	x
	Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*)	●	●
	I think	●	●
	I think + Modal (*should*, *might*)	●	●
	I think + Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*)	●	●
	Question	x	●

Table 5.10: The EFLt's and the EFLe's Uses of Linguistic Features to Realize Negative Politeness Strategies

According to Table 5.10, the EFLt used five linguistic features to decrease the imposition of their disagreements, aiming to save the lecturer's negative face. They were (i) Modal (*should*, *might*), (ii) Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*), (iii) *I think*, (iv) *I think* + Modal (*should*, *might*), and (v) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*). The EFLe used seven linguistic features, which were (i) Verb of Uncertainty (*seem*, *tend*), (ii) Downtoner (*sort of, kind of*), (iii) Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*), (iv) *I think*, (v) *I think* + Modal (*should*, *might*), (vi) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps*, *maybe*), and (vii) Question. It is evident that the learners with *less frequent* exposure to English as the medium of instruction had fewer L2 linguistic resources to perform their student-lecturer disagreements in English. In addition, the EFLe were able to perform their mitigated disagreements in the forms of a statement and a question, while the EFLt were able to disagree with their lecturer in the form of a statement only. Considering that the EFLt used negative politeness strategies as their norm, there is a surprise to see a lower variety of linguistic features they used.

5.4.3.2.4 Realizations of Off-Record Strategies

As stated in Section 4.1.2.4, the Thai EFL learners used three linguistic features: (i) Ellipsis, (ii) Rhetorical Question and (iii) Statement, to disagree with their lecturer ambiguously. The EFLt and the EFLe equally used two linguistic features to disagree with their lecturer implicitly. However, their linguistic features were different, as compared in Table 5.11.

Disagreement Strategies		EFLt	EFLe
Semantic Formulas	Linguistic Features	Usage	Usage
Implied Contradiction	Ellipsis	●	x
	Rhetorical Question	x	●
Hint	Statement	●	●

Table 5.11: The EFLt's and the EFLe's Uses of Linguistic Features to Realize Off-Record Strategies

According to Table 5.11, the EFLt used two linguistic features to perform their student-lecturer disagreements in English ambiguously. They were (i) Ellipsis, and (ii) Statement. The EFLe also used two linguistic features: (i) Rhetorical Question, and (ii) Statement, to express their implicit disagreements. Although it is not evident that the learners, who were *less frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, had fewer L2 linguistic resources to disagree with their lecturer in English, they did not disagree with the lecturer in the forms of a question. Here is evidence to see that the learners with *less frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction acquired less pragmalinguistic competence than the learners with *more frequent* exposure time to English as the medium of instruction.

5.5 Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, I have listed four major contributions to the fields of cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics. Firstly, I have claimed that Hosftede's model of culture could be used as a blueprint to understand linguistic behaviors of people from various cultural backgrounds. Next, it has been discovered that the Thai EFL learners' expressions of disagreement in English were short particularly when they performed their disagreements baldly. Their disagreements did not meet the propositional content conditions. Yet, their performance of disagreement was felicitous. Furthermore, an indirect disagreement has been proven to be a possible mitigation that could be used to minimize the threat of disagreements for the Thai EFL learners. However, they infrequently expressed their student-lecturer disagreements indirectly. I have explained that a small number of implied disagreements performed by them were encouraged by the fact that indirect disagreements were difficult to realize. Thirdly, although Brown and Levinson's linguistic politeness has been criticized in that it is more appropriate for Westerners; their linguistic politeness could be used to explain the Thai EFL learners' performance of disagreement in the classroom context. Lastly, it has been found that different amounts of exposure to English as the medium of instruction influenced the learners' performance of disagreements. The EFLt transferred L1 pragmatic competence to their interlanguage production of student-lecturer disagreements. However, there was a minimal presence of the EFLe's L2 pragmatic development. The learners' pragmatic competence has been found to be different. In the next chapter, the conclusions of the study are offered.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents the conclusions of the study. First, the findings in relation to the two research hypotheses are presented. Second, recommendations for further studies are given.

6.1 Hypotheses under Consideration

As put forward in Section 1.4 (H1), the Thai EFL learners in this study were hypothesized not to use bald on-record strategies when disagreeing with their lecturer in the classroom context in English. The first hypothesis has been proved false. The Thai EFL learners used bald on-record strategies to disagree with the lecturer in their classrooms. In addition, the learners, who were *more frequently* exposed to English as the medium of instruction, used bald on-record strategies as their norm. In Section 6.1.1, the use of bald on-record strategies by the Thai EFL learners is summarized. As put forward in Section 1.4 (H2), the two different groups of the Thai EFL learners in this study were hypothesized to use different politeness strategies when disagreeing with their lecturer in the classroom context. The second hypothesis has been proved correct. The EFLt and the EFLe used different sets of politeness strategies as their norms. In Section 6.1.2, the different norms of politeness strategies are summarized.

6.1.1 Thai EFL Learners: Bald On-Record Strategies Used in Student-Lecturer Disagreements

The results from both qualitative and quantitative analyses in Chapter 4 showed that the Thai EFL learners used bald on-record strategies to disagree with their lecturers in classroom context. In the 67 tokens, the EFLt used bald on-record strategies in 11 tokens or 16.42 percent. The EFLt used three linguistic features: (i) *No,* (ii) *No,* Negative Statement, and (iii) Negative Statement, to disagree with their lecturer unambiguously without any linguistic mitigation. The EFLt used *No* to express their non-mitigated disagreements the most. In the 61 tokens, the EFLe utilized bald on-record strategies in 39 tokens or 63.93 percent. Obviously, the EFLe used bald on-record strategies as their norm. They used six linguistic features: (i) *No,* (ii) *No,* Negative Statement, (iii) Negative Statement, (iv) *I disagree,* (v) *I don't think so,* and (vi) *I don't think like that*, to disagree with their lecturer explicitly with no linguistic mitigation. The EFLe used *No* to express their non-mitigated disagreements the most. Based on these research findings, the first research hypothesis has been proved false.

6.1.2 The EFLt and the EFLe: Norms of Politeness Strategies

The results from both qualitative and quantitative analyses in Chapter 4 showed that the EFLt and the EFLe normally used different sets of politeness strategies when disagreeing with the lecturer in the classroom context. In the 67 tokens, the EFLt used negative politeness strategies in 44 tokens or 65.67 percent. The EFLt used five linguistic features: (i) Modal (*should, might*), (ii) Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), (iii) *I think*, (iv) *I think* + Modal (*should, might*), and (v) *I think* + Adverb (*perhaps, maybe*), to downgrade the threat of their disagreements and to save their lecturer's negative face. They used *I think* to express their mitigated disagreements the most. In the 67 tokens, the EFLe used bald on-record strategies in 39 tokens or 63.93 percent. The EFLe used six linguistic features: (i) *No*, (ii) *No*, Negative Statement, (iii) Negative Statement, (iv) *I disagree*, (v) *I don't think so*, and (vi) *I don't think like that*, to disagree with their lecturer unambiguously without any linguistic mitigation. The EFLe used *No* to express their non-mitigated disagreements the most. Based on these research findings, the second research hypothesis has been proved correct.

6.2 Recommendations for Further Studies

Researchers who are interested in investigating student-lecturer disagreements performed by Thai EFL learners in a classroom context may consider the following recommendations.

Firstly, studies on the interlanguage pragmatics can explore learners' production of disagreements as well as comprehension of disagreements. This present study explicitly focused on the learners' interlanguage production of student-lecturer disagreements. It might be interesting to examine learners' comprehension of student-lecturer disagreements. Researchers may divide learners into two groups according to their frequencies of exposure time to English as the medium of instruction. Research participants are allowed to read or listen to different extracts of student-lecturer disagreements, and they have to rate their comprehension on a five-point scale questionnaire. Results will disclose whether learners with different amounts of exposure time to English as the medium of instruction comprehend student-lecturer disagreements similarly or differently.

Secondly, examining what politeness strategies a lecturer uses to disagree with his or her students can be interesting. This study extensively explored what politeness strategies Thai EFL learners used to disagree with their lecturer. It has been claimed that there is an asymmetrical power relationship between the students and the lecturer. Obviously, the speakers, i.e. Thai EFL learners, are inferior to the lecturer in terms of their power on the social stratum (cf. Liu, 2004; Rees-Miller, 2000; Walkinshaw, 2009). The results showed that the Thai EFL learners used all sets of politeness strategies−bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record strategies−to disagree with their lecturers in English. Investigating how the lecturer disagrees with the students may help explain roles of an

asymmetrical power relationship between the lecturer and the students from the opposite standpoint.

Thirdly, researchers may explore roles of genders in interlanguage production of student-lecturer disagreements. This study did not examine how the genders contribute to the Thai EFL learners' performance of student-lecturer disagreements. The lecturers in both classes were male. In addition, the analysis did not point out how similar or different male and female students disagreed with their male lecturers. Researchers might investigate a group of Thai EFL learners in two courses when one course is taught by a male lecturer and the other by a female lecturer. The courses should be similar, and there should not be any remarkable differences between the lecturers such as their age, nationality, background knowledge, teaching experience, and personality. This might be to detect how much the lecturers' genders play roles in determining Thai EFL learners' performance of student-lecturer disagreements. It could be more interesting if researchers analyzed what politeness strategies male students use to disagree with their male lecturer; what politeness strategies female students use to disagree with their male lecturer, what politeness strategies male students use to disagree with their female lecturer, and what politeness strategies female students use to disagree with their female lecturer.

Lastly, researchers should explore other types of topics that trigger student-lecturer disagreements. In this study, the naturally-occurring data revealed that the Thai EFL learners disagreed with topics that did not require any specific knowledge. There were two types of topics: (i) general topics that were relevant to the learners' native culture, and (ii) general topics that were irrelevant to the learners' native culture. Based on the findings, I assume that disagreeing with topics that do not require any specific knowledge is not necessarily justified. As a result, both groups of the Thai EFL learners seldom justified their disagreements. It could be more interesting to examine whether Thai EFL learners justify their student-lecturer disagreements when topics of student-lecturer disagreements are more sophisticated, i.e., they require specific knowledge. These topics can be either relevant or irrelevant to the learners' native culture.

REFERENCES

Angouri, J. (2012). Managing disagreement in problem solving meeting talk. *Journal of Pragmatics, 44*, 1565−1579.

Austin, J. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L., & Palmer, A. (1996). *Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2009). Conventional expressions as a pragmalinguistic resource: Recognition and production of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics *Language Learning, 59*, 755-795.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2013). Developing L2 pragmatics. *Language Learning, 63*, 68−86.

Beebe, L., & Takahashi, T. (1989a). Do you have a bag? Social status and patterned variation in second language acquisition. In S. M. Gass, C. Madden, D. Preston, & L. Selinker (Eds.), *Variation in second language acquisition: Discourse and pragmatics* (pp. 103–128). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Beebe, L., & Takahashi, T. (1989b). Sociolinguistic variation in face-threatening speech acts: Chastisement and disagreement. In M. Eisenstein (Ed.), *The dynamic interlanguage* (pp. 199−218). New York: Plenum.

Beebe, L., Takahashi, T., & Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals *Developing communicative competence in second language* (pp. 55-73). New York: Newbury House.

Behnam, B., & Niroomand, M. (2011). An investigation of Iranian EFL learners' use of politeness strategies and power relations in disagreement across different proficiency levels. *English Language Teaching, 4*(4), 204−220.

Bjorge, A. K. (2012). Expressing disagreement in ELF business negotiations: theory and practice. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(4), 406−427.

Boonsathorn, W. (2003). *Competence is in the eye of the beholder: Conflict management styles and perceived competence of conflict management styles by Thais and Americans in multinational corporations in Thailand.* (Doctoral Degree), Penn State University.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and Communication* (pp. 2-27). London: Longman.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*, 1−47.

Charoenroop, P. (2014). A cross-cultural pragmatic study: Politeness strategies and realizations of the strategies used to perform student-lecturer multiple disagreements by native speakers of Thai and English. *Journal of Educational and Social Research, 4*(1), 146–157.

Charoenroop, P. (2015). Interlanguage productions of student-lecturer disagreements in classroom: Camparing Thai EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge. *International Journal of Linguistics, 7*(6), 94-107.

Chen, M. (2006). *An interlanguage study of the speech act of disagreement made by Chinese EFL speakers in Taiwan*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. National Sun Yat-Sen University.

Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic structures*. The Hague: Mouton and Co.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge: Mass: MIT Press.

Choyimah, N., & Latief, A. (2014). Disagreeing strategies in university classroom discussions among Indonesian EFL learners. *International Journal of Linguistics, 6*(2), 132−152.

Cohen, A. D. (1996). Developing the ability to perform speech acts. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*(2), 253–267.

Dascal, M. (1983). Pragmatics and the philosophy of mind *Thought in Language* (Vol. 1, pp. xii-207). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Deephuengton, P. (1992). *A study of quantifier phrases in Thai*. Retrieved from

Doi, T. (1973). The Japanese patterns of communication and the concept of amae. *Quarterly Journal of Speech, 59*(2), 180-185.

Edstrom, A. (2004). Expressions of disagreement by Venezuelans in conversation: Reconsidering the influence of culture. *Journal of Pragmatics, 36*, 1499−1518.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Felix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2003). Validity in data collection methods in pragmatics research. In P. Kempchinsky & C. E. Pineros (Eds.), *Theory, practice, and acquisition* (pp. 239−257). Somerville MA: Cascadilla Press.

Georgakopoulou, A. (2001). Arguing about the future: On indirect disagreements in conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics, 33*, 1881−1900.

Glenn, P. (2003). *Laughter in interaction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Goffman, E. (1967). *Interactional ritual*. New York: Anchor Books.

Grice, P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics* (pp. 41–58). New York: Academic Press.

Gu, Y. (1990). Politeness phenomena in modern Chinese. *Journal of Pragmatics, 14*, 237–257.

Gudykunst, W. B. (2001). *Asian American ethnicity and communication*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Guodong, L., & Jing, H. (2005). A contrastive study on disagreement strategies for politeness between American English and Mandarin Chinese. *ASLAN EFL Journal, 7*(1), 1–12.

Habib, R. (2008). Humor and disagreement: Identity construction and cross-cultural enrichment. *Journal of Pragmatics, 40*, 1117−1145.

Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. New York: Anchor Press.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning how to mean*. London: Edward Arnold.

Hanna, M. E. (2005). Hofstede's cultural dimensions: The basics and the criticisms. *HOFSTEDE'S DIMENSIONS: THE BASICS AND THE CRITICISMS, 1*(1), 8-16.

Hartford, B., & Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1992). Closing the conversation: Evidence from the academic advising session. *Discourse Processes, 15*, 93−116.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* Maidenhead, UK: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.
Hong, Y. J. (2003). *Interactional sociolinguistic analysis of argumentative strategies between Japanese and Korean students.* Paper presented at the PAAL, Japan.
Huang, Y. (2007). *Pragmatics* Oxford Oxford University Press.
Hymes, D. (1962). *The ethnography in speaking* (T. Gladwin Ed.). Washington.
Hymes, D. (1967). Models of the interaction of language and social setting *Journal of Social Issues, 23*(2), 8-38.
Hymes, D. (1971). *On communicative competence*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
Ide, S. (1982). Japanese sociolinguistics: Politeness and women's language *Lingua, 57*, 357-385.
Ide, S. (1989). Formal forms and discernment: Two neglected aspects of linguistic politeness. *Multilingua, 8*, 223–248.
Intachakra, S. (2011). Politeness motivated by the 'heart' and 'binary rationality' in Thai culture. *Journal of Pragmatics, 44*, 619−635.
Jones, M. L. (2007). *Hofstede-Culturally questionnable?* Paper presented at the Oxford Business and Economics Conference, Oxford United Kingdom.
Kakava, C. (1993). *Negotiation of disagreement by Greeks in conversations and classroom discourse*. Georgetown University Washington D.C.
Kakava, C. (2002). Opposition in modern Greek discourse: cultural and contextual constraints. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*, 1537–1568.
Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic transfer. *Second Language Research, 8*, 203-231.
Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development *Applied Linguistics, 22*, 502-530.
Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1993). *Interlanguage Pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*, 215–247.
Kasper, G., & Roever, C. (2005). Pragmatics in second language learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 317-334). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
Kasper, G., & Rose, K. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Oxford: Blackwell.
Katriel, T. (1986). *Talking straight: "Dugri" speech in Israeil Sabra culture*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
Khanittanan, W. (1988). *Thai written discourse: A change to a more autonomous style?* Paper presented at the The International Symposium on Language and Linguistics, Bangkok, Thailand.
Kieu, T. T. H. (2006). *Disagreeing in English and Vietnamese: A pragmatic and conversational analysis perspective.* (Ph.D. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation), Vietnam National University.
Kummer, M. (2005). Politeness in Thai. In R. J. Watts, S. Ide, & K. Ehlich (Eds.), *Politeness in language: studies in its history, theory, and practice* (pp. 325−336). Berlin, New York: De Gruyter.
Larson, D. N., & Smalley, W. A. (1972). *Becoming bilingual: A guide to language learning*. Pasadena, CA: William Carey Library.

Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. London: Longman.
Leech, G. (2005). Politeness: Is there an East-West divide? . *Journal of Foreign Languages, 6*, 3-30.
Levinson, S. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University.
Liu, S. (2004). *Pragmatic strategies and power relations in disagreement: Chinese culture in higher education*. New York: Universal Publishers.
Locher, M. (2004). *Power and politeness in action: Disagreements in oral communication*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
Mao, L. (1994). Beyond politeness theory: "face" revisited and renewed. *Journal of Pragmatics, 21*, 451-486.
Marra, M. (2012). Disagreeing without being disagreeable: negotiating workplace communities as an outsider. *Journal of Pragmatics, 44*, 1580−1590.
Matsumoto, Y. (1988). Reexamination of the universality of face: politeness phenomena in Japanese. *Journal of Pragmatics, 12*, 403-426.
Matsumoto, Y. (1993). Linguistic politeness and cultural style: observations. In P. M. Clancy (Ed.), *Japanese and Korean Linguistics* (Vol. 2, pp. 55-67). Stanford: Stanford University.
McClave, E. (2000). Linguistic functions of head movements in the context of speech. *Journal of Pragmatics, 32*, 855-878.
Nakane, C. (1965). Towards a theory of Japanese social structure: A unilateral society. *The Economic Weekly, 17*(5-7), 197-216.
Nakane, C. (1972). Social background of Japanese in Southeast Asia. *The Developing Economics, 10*(2), 115-125.
Niratpattanasai, K. (2002, March 1st, 2002). Exploring the many dimensions of Kreng Jai. *Bangkok Post*.
Noypayak, W., & Speece, M. (1998). Tactics to influence subordinates among Thai managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 13*(5/6), 343-358
Ochs, K. (1976). The universality of conversational postulates. *Language in Society, 5*, 67-80.
Pease, B., & Pease, A. (2008). *The definitive book of body language: The hidden meaning behind people's gestures and explanations*. London: Hachette UK.
Phukanchana, T. (2004). *Politeness in Thai culture: strategies of disagreeing*. Paper presented at the International Communication Association, New Orleans Sheraton New Orleans LA
Pornpitakpan, C. (2000). Trade in Thailand: A threeway cultural comparison. *Business Horizon, 42*(3), 61-70.
Prykarpatska, I. (2008). Why are you late? Cross-cultural pragmatic study of complaints in American English and Ukrainian. *Revista Alicantina de Estudios Ingleses, 21*, 87-102.
Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1972). *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman.
Rees-Miller, J. (1995). *Linguistic features of disagreement in face-to-face encounters in university settings.* (Doctoral Degree), State University of New York at Stony Brook, New York.
Rees-Miller, J. (2000). Power, severity, and context in disagreement. *Journal of Pragmatics, 32*, 1087−1111.

Richards, J. C. (1992). *Error analysis. Perspectives on second language acquisition*. London: Longman.
Schiffrin, D. (1984). Jewish argument as sociability. *Language in Society, 13*, 311–335.
Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (1995). *Intercultural communication: A discourse approach*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
Searle, J. (1969). *Speech acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Searle, J. (1975). *Indirect speech acts* (A. Martinich Ed. 1 ed.). Oxford Oxford University Press.
Searle, J. (1979). *Expression and meaning: Studies in the theory of speech acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 10*(1-4), 209-232.
Sifianou, M. (2012). Disagreements, face and politeness. *Journal of Pragmatics, 44*, 1554−1564.
Sornig, K. (1977). Disagreement and contradiction as communicative acts. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 347−374.
Srisuruk, P. (2011). *Politeness and pragmatic competence in Thai speakers of English.* (Doctoral Dissertation), Newcastle University
Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam, N., & Jablin, F. M. (1999). An exploratory study of communication competence in Thai organizations. *The Journal of Business Communication, 36*(4), 382-418.
Takahashi, T., & Beebe, L. M. (1993). Cross-linguistic influence in the speech act of correction. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 138−157). New York: Oxford University Press.
Tannen, D. (1981). Indirectness in discourse: Ethnicity as conversational style. *Discourse Processes, 4*(3), 221-238.
Tannen, D., & Kakava, C. (1992). Power and solidarity in modern Greek conversation: Disagreeing to agree. *Journal of Modern Greek Studies, 10*(1), 11-34.
Thanasankit, T., & Corbitt, B. (2000). *Thai culture and communication of decision-making processes in requirements engineering*. Paper presented at the Second International Conference on Culture Attitudes Towards Technology and Communication Murdoch University, Australia.
Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics, 4*(2), 91-112.
Thomas, J. (1995). *Meaning in interaction: An introduction to pragmatics*. New York: Longman.
Tseng, S. (1999). *Grammar, prosody and speech disfluencies in spoken dialogues.* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation), University of Bielefeld.
Waldron, V. R., & Applegate, J. A. (1994). Interpersonal construct differentiation and conversational planning: An examination of two cognitive accounts for the production of competent verbal disagreement tactics *Human Communication Research, 21*, 3-35.
Walkinshaw, I. (2007). Power and disagreement: Insights into Japanese learners of English. *RELC, 38*(3), 278−301.
Walkinshaw, I. (2009). *Learning politeness: Disagreement in a second language*. Oxford: Peter Lang.

Watts, R. (2003). *Politeness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Wharton, T. (2009). *Pragmatics and non-verbal communication*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Wierzbicka, A. (1985). Different cultures, different languages, different speech acts: English vs. Polish. *Journal of Pragmatics, 9*, 145-178.
Wierzbicka, A. (1991). *Cross-cultural pragmatics: the semantics of human interaction*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
Xuehua, W. (2006). A study of strategy use in showing agreement and disagreement to others opinions. *CELEA journal*, *29*(5), 55−65.
Yuan, Y. (2001). An inquiry into empirical pragmatics data-gathering methods: written DCTs, oral DCTs, field notes, and natural conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *33*, 271–292.
Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX I

แบบสอบถาม

ส่วนที่ 1: ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

1. เพศ □ ชาย □ หญิง
2. อายุ _____ ปี
3. สาขาวิชาเอก _____ สาขาวิชาโท _____
4. ชั้นปี □ 3 □ 4
5. ระยะเวลาและช่วงเวลาเรียน □ 3 ชั่วโมง 9:00-12:00 □ 3 ชั่วโมง 13:00-16:00
6. ท่านเคยไปต่างประเทศหรือไม่

   □ ไม่เคย

   □ เคย

   ประเทศ _____ ระยะเวลา _____ วัตถุประสงค์ _____

   ประเทศ _____ ระยะเวลา _____ วัตถุประสงค์ _____

   ประเทศ _____ ระยะเวลา _____ วัตถุประสงค์ _____

7. ปัจจุบันท่านใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ในชีวิตประจำวันหรือไม่

   □ ไม่ใช้

   □ ใช้น้อยกว่า 5 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์

   □ ใช้มากกว่า 5 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์

8. ท่านเคยสอบวัดระดับความรู้ภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่

   □ ไม่เคย

   □ เคย

□ สอบ TOEIC จำนวนทั้งสิ้น _____ ครั้ง คะแนนล่าสุด_____

□ สอบ TOEFL จำนวนทั้งสิ้น _____ ครั้ง คะแนนล่าสุด_____

□ สอบ IELTS จำนวนทั้งสิ้น _____ ครั้ง คะแนนล่าสุด_____

□ สอบ _____ จำนวนทั้งสิ้น _____ ครั้ง คะแนนล่าสุด_____

9. ท่านเคยศึกษาภาษาอื่นนอกจากภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่

□ ไม่เคย

□ เคย

□ ภาษา (1) _____

□ ภาษา (2) _____

□ ภาษา (3) _____

10. หากท่านใช้ภาษาอื่นเพิ่มเติม ท่านได้ใช้ภาษาดังกล่าว ในชีวิตประจำวันหรือไม่

ภาษาที่ 1 □ ไม่ใช้ □ ใช้น้อยกว่า 5 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์ □ ใช้มากกว่า 5 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์

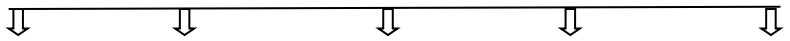
ภาษาที่ 2 □ ไม่ใช้ □ ใช้น้อยกว่า 5 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์ □ ใช้มากกว่า 5 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์

ภาษาที่ 3 □ ไม่ใช้ □ ใช้น้อยกว่า 5 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์ □ ใช้มากกว่า 5 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์

ส่วนที่ 2: แสดงความคิดเห็น

คำสั่ง: วงกลมตัวเลือกที่สามารถอธิบายการกระทำของท่านมากที่สุด พร้อมทั้งให้เหตุผลประกอบ

1. ในห้องเรียนที่มีผู้เรียนจำนวน 20-35 คน หากท่านมีความเห็นที่เกี่ยวข้องกับบทเรียนแตกต่างไปจากอาจารย์ ท่านจะโต้แย้งกับอาจารย์



ไม่เลย ไม่บ่อย บางครั้ง บ่อยครั้ง ทุกครั้ง

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

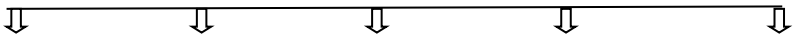
2. ในห้องเรียนที่มีผู้เรียนจำนวน 20-35 คน หากท่านมีความคิดเห็นไม่ตรงกับอาจารย์และจำเป็นต้องโต้แย้ง ท่านจะให้เหตุผลประกอบการโต้แย้ง

ไม่เลย ไม่บ่อย บางครั้ง บ่อยครั้ง ทุกครั้ง

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

3. ในห้องเรียนที่มีผู้เรียนจำนวน 20-35 คน หากผู้สอนวิจารณ์ว่าความคิดเห็นของท่านผิด ต่อหน้าเพื่อนร่วมชั้นเรียน แต่ความจริงแล้วความคิดเห็นของท่านนั้นถูกต้องทุกประการ ท่านจะโต้แย้งกับอาจารย์

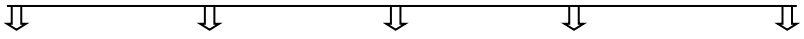


ไม่เลย ไม่บ่อย บางครั้ง บ่อยครั้ง ทุกครั้ง

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

4. ในห้องเรียนที่มีผู้เรียนจำนวน 20-35 คน ท่านคิดว่าการโต้แย้งกับอาจารย์ในชั้นเรียนระหว่างดำเนินการเรียนการสอนเป็นเรื่องที่เหมาะสม

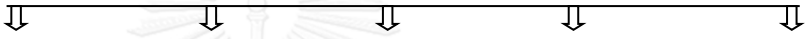


ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก ไม่เห็นด้วย เป็นกลาง เห็นด้วย เห็นด้วยมาก

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

5. หากท่านมีความคิดเห็นแตกต่างไปจากอาจารย์ซึ่งเป็นคนเข้มงวด ท่านจะไม่พูดแสดงความคิดเห็น

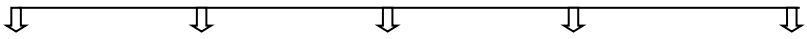


ไม่เลย ไม่บ่อย บางครั้ง บ่อยครั้ง ทุกครั้ง

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

6. ในห้องเรียนที่มีผู้เรียนจำนวน 20-35 คน หากท่านต้องโต้แย้งกับอาจารย์ ท่านจะโต้แย้งกับอาจารย์ช่วงเลิกการเรียนการสอน

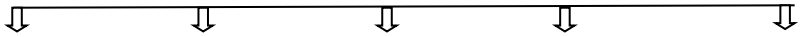


ไม่เลย ไม่บ่อย บางครั้ง บ่อยครั้ง ทุกครั้ง

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

7. ในห้องเรียนที่มีผู้เรียนจำนวน 20-35 คน ท่านคำนึงถึงบรรยากาศในห้องเรียน ก่อนโต้แย้งกับอาจารย์

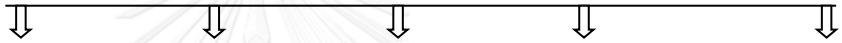


ไม่เลย ไม่บ่อย บางครั้ง บ่อยครั้ง ทุกครั้ง

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

8. การแสดงความคิดเห็นต่างจากอาจารย์ที่มีระดับวัยวุฒิที่แตกต่างกัน (อาจารย์อายุน้อย อาจารย์อายุมาก) มีผลต่อลักษณะการพูดโต้แย้งของท่าน

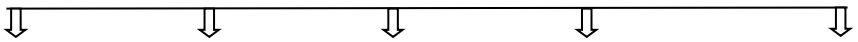


ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก ไม่เห็นด้วย เป็นกลาง เห็นด้วย เห็นด้วยมาก

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

9. การแสดงความคิดเห็นต่างจากอาจารย์ที่มีเชื้อชาติที่แตกต่างกัน (เช่นอาจารย์ชาวไทย/อาจารย์ชาวต่างชาติ) มีผลต่อลักษณะการพูดโต้แย้งของท่าน

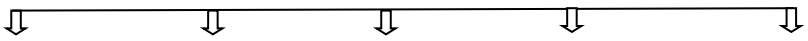


ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก ไม่เห็นด้วย เป็นกลาง เห็นด้วย เห็นด้วยมาก

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

10. การแสดงความคิดเห็นต่างจากอาจารย์ในหัวข้อสนทนาที่ยาก (เช่น เนื้อหาการสอน, ทฤษฎี) มีผลต่อลักษณะการพูดโต้แย้งของท่าน



ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก ไม่เห็นด้วย เป็นกลาง เห็นด้วย เห็นด้วยมาก

เนื่องจากว่า_____

_____

APPENDIX I

Questionnaire

Part 1: Personal Information

1. Gender □ Male □ Female
2. Age _____ years
3. Major _____ Minor _____
4. Level □ 3rd year □ 4th year
5. Study Period □ 3 hours 9:00-12:00 □ 3 hours 13:00-16:00
6. Have you ever been aboard before?

   □ No, I have never.

   □ Yes, I have ever.

   Country _____ Duration _____ Objective _____
   Country _____ Duration _____ Objective _____
   Country _____ Duration _____ Objective _____

7. Do you use English in your daily life?

   □ No, I don't.

   □ Yes, but less than 5 hours per week.

   □ Yes, but more than 5 hours per week.

8. Have you ever taken any English proficiency test?

   □ No, I have not.

   □ Yes, I have.

   □ TOEIC, I took it _____ time(s), the best score achieved was_____

   □ TOEFL, I took it _____ time(s), the best score achieved was_____

   □ IELTS, I took it _____time(s), the best score achieved was_____

   □ Others, I took it _____time(s), the best score achieved was_____

9. Have you ever studied other languages apart from English?

   □ No, I have not.

   □ Yes, I have.

   □ Language (1) _____

   □ Language (2) _____

   □ Language (3) _____

10. If you use other language(s), do you use it in your daily life?

    Language (1) □ less than 5 hours per week □ more than 5 hours per week

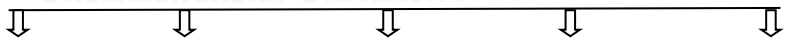
    Language (2) □ less than 5 hours per week □ more than 5 hours per week

    Language (3) □ less than 5 hours per week □ more than 5 hours per week

Part 2: Opinions

Instructions: Circle the best answer and justify your answer.

1. In a classroom of 20-35 students, will you disagree with your lecturer when you have a different opinion from the lecturer regarding the class content?

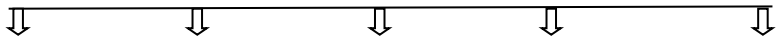
   

   Never Not Often Sometimes Often Always

   because_____

   _____

2. In a classroom of 20-35 students, if your opinion is contradictory to the lecturer's opinion, you will justify your disagreement.



Never Not Often Sometimes Often Always

because _____

_____

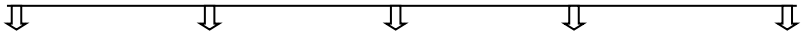
3. In a classroom of 20-35 students, if the lecturer assumes that your opinion is inappropriate in front of other students but in fact your opinion is appropriate, will you disagree with your lecturer?

Never Not Often Sometimes Often Always

because_____

_____

4. In a classroom of 20-35 students, disagreeing with the lecturer during the class is appropriate.

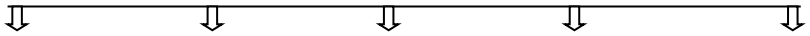


Totally Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Totally Agree

because_____

_____

5. If you have a contradictory opinion to a strict lecturer, you will not express your disagreement.

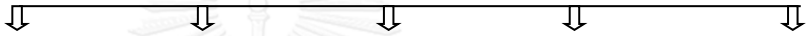


Totally Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Totally Agree

because_____

_____

6. In a classroom of 20-35 students, you prefer to disagree with the lecturer after the class.

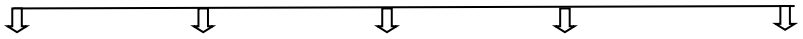


Totally Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Totally Agree

because_____

_____

7. In a classroom of 20-35 students, you think about the overall atmosphere in the classroom before deciding to disagree with the lecturer.

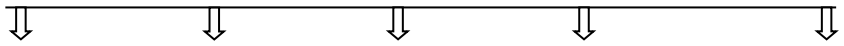


Totally Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Totally Agree

because_____

_____

8. Expressing disagreements to lecturers with different ages affects your performance of disagreements.

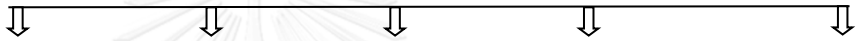


Totally Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Totally Agree

because_____

_____

9. Expressing disagreements to lecturers with different national backgrounds affects your performance of disagreements.

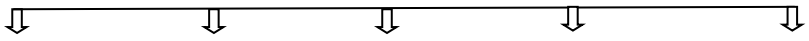


Totally Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Totally Agree

because_____

_____

10. Expressing disagreements to complicated topics (i.e. topics that require specific knowledge) affects your performance of disagreements.



Totally Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Totally Agree

because_____

_____

APPENDIX II

Information Sheet

English as an International Language Program, Chulalongkorn University

Linguistics Track
INFORMATION SHEET FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

This study aims to observe your classroom participations. This is a part of a cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatic study of a speech act performed by native speakers of American English and addressed to the lecturer in the classroom context. The finding could benefit not only the EFL learner but also relevant faculties in order to strengthen their learning and teaching environments.

I expect to videotape your class for 10 hours, starting January 2013. Accordingly, you are invited to participate in this session of videotape-recording.

Apart from the recording, all participants are asked to fill out a small survey questionnaire. It will take about 5-10 minutes for each participant.

The information in the video-camera recorder will be kept confidential to Pattrawut Charoenroop, the researcher of the English as an International Language Program, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

If you have any question, please contact Pattrawut Charoenroop at pattrawut.ch@gmail.com.

Thank you for your contribution.

APPENDIX III

Consent Form

English as an International Language Program, Chulalongkorn University

Linguistics Track
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

This is a part of a cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatic study of a speech act performed by native speakers of American English and addressed to the lecturer in the classroom context

I have been given and have understood an explanation of this research project. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction by Pattrawut Chaoroenroop, the researcher.

I understand that any information I provide will be kept confidential to the researchers who are going to transcribe the videotape recording of our class. The published results will not use my name, and that no opinions will be attributed to me in any way that will identify me. I understand that not the videotape recording of my classroom participation will be electronically wiped at the end of the project.

I understand that the data I provide will not be used for any other purpose or released to others without my written consent.

I agree to take part in this research project.

Signed:

Name of the participant (please print):

Date:

APPENDIX IV

Data Collection Template

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Topic of the Class:</td></tr>
<tr><td>Class Begins:</td><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">Total Number of Hours:</td></tr>
<tr><td>Class Dismisses:</td></tr>
<tr><td>Date:</td><td colspan="2">Week:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Numbers of Students:</td><td>On time:
Late arrival:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Disagreement Tokens</td><td>Time</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">1: L
2: S
3: L
4. S:</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">1: L
2: S
3: L
4. S:</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">1: L
2: S
3: L
4. S:</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">1: L
2: S
3: L
4. S:</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

APPENDIX V

Realizations of Hybrid Strategies

● Native Speakers of Thai (the NT): *I agree, but…* + Modal (*might*)

Extract 1:

1.L:	ʔāːcjāːn	wâː	kʰɔ̄n	tʰîː	pʰûd	kèŋ
	อาจารย์	ว่า	คน	ที่	พูด	เก่ง
	lecturer	think	people	at	speak	smart
	I think those who speak well					
1.L:	mʌ́k	cjʌ̀	prʌ̀sòb	kwāːmsʌ̌mrɛ̀d	dâi	ŋâːj
	มัก	จะ	ประสบ	ความสำเร็จ	ได้	ง่าย
	Ø	will	meet	success	possible	easy
	become successful easily.					
2.S:	pʰɔ̌m	hěndŭaj	kʌ̀b	ʔāːcjāːn	nʌ́	kʰrʌ́b
	ผม	เห็นด้วย	กับ	อาจารย์	นะ	ครับ
	I	agree	with	lecturer	Ø	Ø
	I agree with you, professor.					
2.S:	tæ̀ː	kʰɔ̄n	pʰûd	kèŋ	jàːŋ	dēaːw
	แต่	คน	พูด	เก่ง	อย่าง	เดียว
	but	people	speak	smart	only	one
	but those who only speak well					
2.S:	ʔàːdcjʌ̀	prʌ̀sòb	kwāːmsʌ̌mrɛ̀d	jâːk		
	อาจจะ	ประสบ	ความสำเร็จ	ยาก		
	might	meet	success	difficult		
	might encounter some difficulties to be successful.					
3.S:	sɔ̄mǎi	níː (s.pause)	tɔ̂ːŋ	kèŋ	dŭaj	kʰrʌ́b
	สมัย	นี้ (s.pause)	ต้อง	เก่ง	ด้วย	ครับ
	period	this (s.pause)	must	smart	together	Ø
	Now, being smart plays a role too.					

Videotaped NT: February 21st, 2012

● Native Speakers of English (the NE): *I agree, but*… + Adverb (*perhaps*)

Extract 2:

1. L: In the future (short pause) English speaking countries are increasing
2. L: And (short pause) non-English speaking countries are decreasing=
3. S: Well, I agree=
4. S: =English speaking countries are growing (short pause) but perhaps numbers of non-English speaking countries are not decreasing
5. S: (short pause) People can speak two, three, or even four languages

Videotaped NE: January 29th, 2013

VITA

Pattrawut Charoenroop received his bachelor's degree in English from Burapha University in Chonburi, Thailand in 2001. In 2003, he obtained a graduate degree in Applied Linguistics from the Australian National University in Canberra, Australia. In 2005, Pattrawut Charoenroop completed his master's degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) from the University of New South Wales in Sydney, Australia. Pattrawut Charoenroop has studied for a Ph.D. in English as an International Language, offered by Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok, Thailand, since 2010. In 2015, he gained a Fulbright scholarship, a junior research scholarship, to conduct part of his doctoral research at the Department of Linguistics, the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign in the United States of America for seven months. His research interests lie in the fields of pragmatic studies, the speech act theory, and the politeness theory. Pattrawut Charoenroop's papers related to the interlanguage pragmatics of disagreements were published in peer-reviewed journals in 2014, 2015 and 2016.