PRAGMATIC STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA INTERACTIONS IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS SERVICES IN A THAI UNIVERSITY CONTEXT

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กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลางในงานบริการวิเทศสัมพันธ์ในบริบทมหาวิทยาลัยไทย

นางพิภาวิน ศุภวัฒน์ ศรีใคร

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต
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Suranaree University of Technology has approved this thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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พิภาวิน ศุภวัฒน์ ศรีใคร : กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลางในงานบริการวิเทศสัมพันธ์ในบริบทมหาวิทยาลัยไทย (PRAGMATIC STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA INTERACTIONS IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS SERVICES IN A THAI UNIVERSITY CONTEXT) อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.อัญชลี วรรณรักษ์, 213 หน้า.

คำสำคัญ: กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์/ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง/สำนักงานวิเทศสัมพันธ์/ทัศนคติ

วัตถุประสงค์ของงานวิจัยนี้ คือเพื่อศึกษากลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ (pragmatic strategies) ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษากลาง (English as a lingua franca)ในสำนักงานวิเทศสัมพันธ์ในบริบทมหาวิทยาลัยไทย ปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างเจ้าหน้าที่วิเทศสัมพันธ์ชาวไทยและผู้รับบริการชาวต่างชาติเพื่อการต่อรองความหมายได้ถูกนำมาศึกษา นอกจากนั้นทัศนคติของผู้ใช้ภาษาและความต้องการในการสื่อสารเกี่ยวกับการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษากลางในบริบทสำนักงานวิเทศสัมพันธ์ของมหาวิทยาลัยไทยถูกนำมาศึกษา ผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัย ถูกเลือกแบบเจาะจงจาก 4 มหาวิทยาลัยในภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือของประเทศไทย ที่มีคนสามารถพูดได้หลายภาษาในปีการศึกษา 2562 ประกอบด้วยนักวิเทศสัมพันธ์ชาวไทยและผู้รับบริการชาวต่างชาติ ให้อัดเสียงสนทนาจริง 35 คน ให้สัมภาษณ์ 45 คน และตอบแบบสอบถาม 115 คน เครื่องมือและข้อมูลที่ได้มีการตรวจความถูกต้อง ความน่าเชื่อถือและความเที่ยงตรงโดยวิธีให้ผู้ร่วมวิจัยตรวจสอบ ตรวจความเชื่อมั่นระหว่างผู้ประเมิน และใช้ค่าดัชนีความสอดคล้อง

ผลการศึกษาแสดงให้เห็นว่า นักวิเทศสัมพันธ์ชาวไทยและผู้รับบริการชาวต่างชาติ ที่พูดภาษาแม่แตกต่างไปถึง 23 ภาษาและมีร้อยละ 28 สามารถใช้ภาษาไทยได้ ใช้กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์หลายอย่าง เพื่อต่อรองความหมายที่ประสบความสำเร็จ ทั้งในการพูดคุย เพื่อแลกเปลี่ยนข้อมูล (transactional) และเพื่อปฏิสัมพันธ์ทางสังคม (interactional) ในสำนักงานวิเทศสัมพันธ์ กลวิธีที่ใช้มากที่สุดคือ กลวิธีการส่งสัญญานกลับ (backchannel) เพื่อแสดงความตั้งใจฟังและเข้าใจ และกลวิธีการกล่าวซ้ำ (repetition) เพื่อให้มั่นใจว่ามีความเข้าใจตรงกันและให้มั่นใจว่าเข้าใจข้อมูลที่สำคัญอย่างถูกต้อง สำหรับกลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ที่ถูกใช้ไม่บ่อย แต่ยังปรากฏว่ามีการใช้อยู่ คือ การออกเสียงให้เป็นคำถามด้วยเสียงสูง (rising question intonation) การควบคุมระหว่างบุคคล (interpersonal control) การหัวเราะ (laughter) การนำหัวข้อมาไว้ข้างหน้า (topic fronting) การเปลี่ยนหัวข้อ (changing topic) และการปล่อยผ่าน (let it pass) เมื่อนักวิเทศสัมพันธ์ชาวไทย

มีปฏิสัมพันธ์กับผู้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ (NESs) มีการใช้กลวิธีสลับภาษา (code switching) มากที่สุด ทั้งแบบคำ ในประโยค และระหว่างประโยค เพื่อช่วยให้มีความมั่นใจ และแสดงความเป็นมิตรหรือความสุภาพ ผลการศึกษาจากแบบสอบถามชี้ให้เห็นว่า ผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยรู้ว่ามีการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษไม่เพียงแต่กับผู้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ และมีความเข้าใจทั่วไปเรื่องการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษากลาง แม้ว่าเกือบครึ่งหนึ่งของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามประสบปัญหาเรื่องสำเนียงที่แตกต่าง แต่ก็ยังยอมรับผู้ที่พูดสำเนียงที่แตกต่างและพูดภาษาอังกฤษแบบหลากหลาย นอกจากนี้ แม้ว่าผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยรายงานว่า การเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษไม่ควรมีเพียงต้นแบบจากผู้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่เท่านั้น ผู้ร่วมวิจัยยืนยันว่า ต้องมีต้นแบบการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษจากผู้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ ในส่วนของความต้องการในการสื่อสารในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษากลางในสำนักงานวิเทศสัมพันธ์นั้น ผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยยกประเด็นปัญหาหลายอย่าง และได้เสนอแนะขอบเขตที่ควรครอบคลุมสำหรับการฝึกอบรมนักวิเทศสัมพันธ์ การนำไปใช้ประโยชน์จริง เพื่อการออกแบบและพัฒนาสื่อได้ถูกแนะนำไว้ เพื่อการจัดอบรมให้ตระหนักรู้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง โดยเฉพาะสำหรับนักวิเทศสัมพันธ์

สาขาวิชาภาษาต่างประเทศ ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา _____

ปีการศึกษา 2563 ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา_____

PHIPHAWIN SUPHAWAT SRIKRAI : PRAGMATIC STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA INTERACTIONS IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS SERVICES IN A THAI UNIVERSITY CONTEXT. THESIS ADVISOR : ASSOC. PROF. ANCHALEE WANNARUK, Ph.D., 213 PP.

Keyword: Pragmatic Strategies/English As A Lingua Franca/International Relations Office/Attitudes

The objective of this research is to investigate pragmatic strategies in English as a lingua franca (ELF) interactions in an international relations (IR) office in a Thai higher education context. These interactions between Thai international relations staff (TSs) and international visitors (IVs) for meaning negotiation are studied and different users' attitudes and communicative needs in relation to the use of ELF in the Thai university IR office setting are discovered. The purposively selected research participants from four multilingual Northeast Thailand universities in academic year 2019 included TSs and IVs: 35 involving actual conversation recordings, 45 taking part with the interviews, and 115 responding to the questionnaire. The tools and collected data were trustworthiness, reliability and validity checked by adopting participant check, inter-rater reliability, and the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) methods.

The findings revealed that TSs and IVs who resided in various countries other than Thailand and spoke around 23 different first languages with 28% of them could use Thai language employed various pragmatic strategies for successful meaning negotiations in transactional and interactional talk in IR offices. They most frequently used backchannel strategy to show attention and understanding and repetition strategy to ensure understanding and make sure important information was understood correctly. For the infrequently used but still found pragmatic strategies were rising question intonation, interpersonal control, laughter, topic fronting, changing topic, and let it pass. When TSs interacted with native English speakers (NESs), they most often adopted code switching strategy –tag, intra-sentential, and inter-sentential switching, to help increase confidence and express friendliness or politeness. The findings from the questionnaire indicated that the respondents knew that English was

not only used among NESs and they had a general knowledge of ELF. Even though almost half of them noted that they had difficulty with different accents, they accepted people speaking with different accents and different varieties of English. In addition, although they noted that the English native speaker model should not be the only model for learning, they insisted on the native speaker model for English learning. In terms of communicative needs in ELF interactions in IR offices, the participants raised several communication barriers and provided suggestions on the areas that should be included for TSs training sessions. The practical application for material design and development was suggested for an ELF-awareness training specifically for IR staff.

School of Foreign Languages Student's Signature _____

Academic Year 2020 Advisor's Signature A. Wannarut

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Phiphawin Suphawat Srikrai

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This research is presented in six chapters. Chapter I details the introduction to this research study, including the background and rationale of the study, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, the definitions of terms, the limitations and scope, and the organisation of the study. Chapter II presents a review of the literature, covering English as an International Language (EIL), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), the use of ELF in globalization, research into ELF, Englishes in Asia and especially in Thailand, pragmatic strategies in intercultural communication and ELF, related previous studies, and methodological approaches. Chapter III describes the methodology used for this study, covering the research design, research sites and the research participants, the data collection process, the data analysis, and the research plan. Chapter IV presents the results and discussion of relevant pragmatic strategies used in international relations offices in a Thai university context, while Chapter V presents the results and discussion of attitudes and communicative needs in ELF. Chapter VI concludes this research project by summarising the purposes and main findings of the study. Proposals for future research and practical application are provided.

Chapter I introduces the background and rationale of the research on the use of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) between international relations (IR) staff and their international visitors. Then, it presents the purpose of this research project, which is to investigate the use of ELF in international relations offices in a Thai university setting. Following this, the three main research questions of the study, the significance of the research, and the definition of terms are presented. The final section explains the project limitations and scope of the study.

1.1 Background and Rationale of the Study

As a result of the extraordinary globalization of the past century, many countries have been endeavoring to promote international collaboration in order to seek ways to further advance their own countries' socioeconomic and political development. Thailand is similar to other countries that are aware of this unprecedented global change. For decades, the country has been allocating substantial amounts of money, time and human effort in order to make advancements. One crucial aspect of this development is the country's educational system. It is believed that one way to advance the educational environment is to internationalize the educational system. As such, since 1957 the Ministry of Education (MOE) has allowed international schools to open. In 1995, the English as a foreign language (EFL) curriculum was launched. In the same year, English programme (EP) schools were set up. Consequently, during the last two decades, both public and private higher education institutions have been allowed to run international study programmes (Punthumasen, 2007).

The Thai higher education system has also adopted internationalized university policies, which have resulted in increasing numbers of foreign academics both from neighbouring countries and some from other continents, including the Americas, Europe, Australia, and Africa (Punthumasen, 2007). As a matter of fact, the Thai higher education system has progressively been internationalized for decades. There exist complex reasons for this tendency, apart from geographical and cultural elements. As explained by Young and Snodin's (2018) study, two main difficulties for international students coming to Thailand were found, namely a localized Thai language or its varieties and an inconvenient bureaucratic system. Moreover, two further problems include the unsuitability of some international candidates for university enrollment and a lack of western-style licensing exams (The Dark Underworld, 2018). However, various positive factors are increasingly drawing international students to Thailand. Young and Snodin (2018) explain that the positive factors that can attract international students can include available employment and scholarships, reputation, opportunities to improve English proficiency, strong research support, and positive interpersonal relationships with international staff and other students.

In addition to establishing international study programmes, many new collaborations between higher education institutions and international agencies in the region are being formed, and existing ones are continually strengthened (Sinhaneti, 2011). As a result of faculty and student exchanges, together with the signing of Memoranda of Understanding (MOU) between Thai higher institutions and those outside the country, more international programmes are taught in English in many disciplines, becoming ubiquitous in Thai universities (Sinhaneti, 2011). The number of foreign partner institutions offering collaborative degree programmes with Thai higher education institutions classified by areas presented by the Office of the Higher Education Commission was: ASEAN (6%), Asia (non-ASEAN) (45%), America (18%), Europe (24%), and Oceania (7%). By degree, they were: bachelor's degree 54%, master's degree 32%, and doctoral degree 14% (Bureau of International Cooperation Strategy, 2017). According to a report by the Ministry of Higher Education, Science, Research and Innovation (2018), the total number of the top 10 nationalities, namely Chinese, Burmese, Cambodian, Vietnamese, Laotian, Nepalese, Indonesian, Indian, Korea, and Bhutanese, respectively, was 18,804 students.

If we take three Northeast Thailand higher education institutions as examples, from 2020 to 2021 there were more than 100 active MOUs, and the universities recruited around 300 international students from more than 20 countries to their campuses. For a more recent situation, let us take another institution from the same region as example. This institution offers a number of international programmes, including 13 bachelor's degrees, 17 master's degrees, and 19 doctoral programmes, globally cooperating according to the terms of 700 active MOUs. According to this institution's human resources (HR) database, as of January, 22, 2020, there were 72 foreign staff. In total, foreign students from various countries numbered 300, 357, and 421 in the academic years of 2016, 2017, and 2018. Moreover, from recent statistics presented on the website of this institution's international relations division, on average, almost a thousand foreign guests visit this university per year.

As can be seen, although this example institution is not situated in the capital or in the better known central region of Thailand, there is an increasing tendency for

foreigners to visit or study on campus. This results in a cosmopolitan climate and a multilingual community.

To internationalize higher education institutions successfully, some crucial factors to be considered are, firstly, excellent infrastructure, which includes well-equipped classrooms and other cutting-edge facilities such as libraries, dormitories, transportation, healthcare, and canteens. The second factor to be considered is human resources, which covers not only professional lecturers but efficient administrators and skillful supporting staff. Especially in non-native English speaking (NNES) contexts, which as mentioned earlier can be described as multilingual contexts, international universities require particularly highly respected professors and competent supporting staff. It is self evident that famous teachers can attract more students, while the reason for having effective support staff for international programmes is that they help run the back office or do housekeeping jobs in order to facilitate both international students and staff who might be coming to Thailand from their home countries. As a result, one crucial skill to run an international study programme successfully is intercultural communication skills on the part of the people running the institution. It is believed that their having good command of these people skills can assure satisfaction on the part of the visitors or the people who come to use specific services.

On these grounds, the English language has become vital as the language is now used as a means of communication within such institutions. That is to say, English is used as a lingua franca by almost all the personnel who are actively involved in running an internationalized university. This has been the case for institutions in all Southeast Asian countries for many years. In particular, regarding its status as an international language, English is codified in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Charter, in Article 34 (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2008), English has been designated the working language among the ten member countries since each of the members has its own unique official language. For example, the official language of Thailand is Thai, while the official language of Myanmar is Burmese, and the official language of Vietnam is Vietnamese (Deerajviset, 2014). According to Kirkpatrick (2008), English has always been the only official and working language of the region, while in many parts of ASEAN, English plays a prominent role in both intranational and

international communication (Low & Hashim, 2012). Therefore, although the Thai language is used as the national and official language for all settings, Thai people's use of English as a lingua franca is gradually increasing. For example, English is widely employed as a medium of communication for business purposes, for entertainment, and for academic purposes. In particular, as mentioned earlier, as many higher education institutions have launched international study programmes, the English language has inevitably become a vital part of Thailand's education system. In line with the increase of foreign academics, Thailand higher education institutions have become multilingual. As a matter of fact, apart from English language education being a critical priority for the education system (Punthumasen, 2007), being an effective English-language speaker who can communicate intelligibly is also necessary, as emphasised by Kirkpatrick (2012), who notes that the English language has become increasingly influential in ASEAN countries.

As regards the spread of English, Braj Kachru's well-known concept describing the spread is the Three Circles of language use, namely the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle, as norm-providing, norm-developing and norm-dependent, respectively. Clearly, a growing segment of the global population is now in the Outer Circle, where English is used as the lingua franca, and in the Expanding Circle, where English is used widely for international communication. However, there is a much smaller population in the Inner Circle, where English is the native language or mother tongue. At present, while there are over 350 million native English speakers (NES), it has been estimated that two billion or more speak English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL). In addition, the number of people who speak English as an international language (EIL) is growing constantly.

The term EIL is used to characterize the status of English as the world's major second language and so as the most common language used for international business, trade, travel, and communication, etc. Like the term World Englishes (WE), the notion of international language recognizes that different norms exist for the use of English around the world. British, American, Australian or other mother-tongue varieties of English are not necessarily considered appropriate targets either for learning or for

communication in countries where English is used for intercultural or cross-linguistic communication (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

Additionally, it can be said that English as a lingua franca (ELF) paradigm is expanding because more people from various cultures with different first languages (L1s) now use English for communication to a greater extent. Many research studies suggest that people perceive that English is spoken by speakers from various socio-cultural backgrounds. Many studies are positive towards and accept ELF users, who most of the time need English to express their message understandably to another interlocutor. That is to say, many English speakers tend to accept the variety of English and the use of ELF. Clearly, under these internationalized university circumstances, most people in these contexts are ELF users who speak different mother languages.

To clarify the notion of ELF, Seidlhofer (2011) explains that ELF is the use of English among speakers of different L1s whereby English is used as the communicative medium of choice and is often the only option. ELF is thus the status of English when it is used as a language of communication between two or more people who do not have English as a first language. As such, it often reflects some characteristics of the speakers' first language or languages (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Consequently, people from different cultural backgrounds communicating in multilingual contexts attempt to negotiate disparate meanings and find a form of communication which is intelligible to others. Furthermore, while ELF speakers need to sensitize themselves to the diversity of English and its speakers from different cultures, at the same time internationalization inevitably involves the learning of English to bridge the gap between cultures and to recognize differences (Wang & Ho, 2013).

As previously mentioned, ELF users with different L1s negotiate meaning and find a form of communication intelligible to others. This is essential for intercultural communication and raises the issue of pragmatic competence, which Bachman's (1990) model can illustrate via the notion of pragmatic strategies. Pragmatic competence deals with the relationship between utterances and the acts executed through these utterances, and with contextual features that promote appropriate language use. To communicate in an ELF context, it is essential to negotiate meaning by using various strategies to make another interlocutor understand your message

correctly. One important aspect of ELF communication is pragmatic strategies. Examples found frequently in pragmatic research in ELF include let-it-pass and make-it-normal (Firth, 1996; Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Deterding, 2013; Mauranen, 2006), asking for clarification, correcting, silence, providing a backchannel, selecting part of the utterance, changing the topic, laughter, non-awareness (Deterding, 2013), signaling problems, clarification, self-repair, repetition (Mauranen, 2006), partial repetition, self-repetition, spelling out ambiguous terms (Cogo & Pitzl, 2016), repetition, rephrasing (Kaur, 2009), topic fronting, lexical repetition, echoing, collaborative completions (Deterding, 2013), and rising question intonation (BjÖrkman, 2012).

Specifically, to utter intelligibly as ELF speakers, certain qualities are required, such as being able to employ appropriate communicative and pragmatic strategies and possessing positive attitudes toward non-native English use. This is exemplified in work undertaken by Wang and Ho (2013). They found out that their participants accepted ELF phenomena and held positive attitudes toward ELF. While the participants recognized the fact that English users are not limited to native speakers, they also accepted the diverse use of English as ELF speakers. Even though they favored the native English speaker model, they only had a moderate level of difficulty in understanding NNESs (Wang & Ho, 2013).

To elaborate on ELF research, studies have been conducted on ELF in response to the increasing tendency in today's world for the use of English to be a crucial factor in the considerations of educational policy makers, educators, and teachers when they plan and develop English courses for their learners. It is also clear that a variety of studies on internationalization, ELF pragmatic strategies, and perceptions of and attitudes towards ELF in different settings have also been conducted. That is to say, previous studies have reported extensive findings relating to many aspects of ELF, for example ELF use relating to classrooms (e.g. Lim, 2016; Suwannasom, 2017; Vasileios, 2016; Wilang & Singhasiri, 2017), business and tourism (e.g. Du Babcock, 2009; Jaroensak & Saracenti, 2019; Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010), and communicative strategies and pragmatic strategies in specific ELF contexts (e.g. Bjørge, 2010; De Bartolo, 2014; Matsumoto, 2011).

There is, however, a lack of studies on internationalized universities in the Thailand context, in particular in international relations (IR) offices, where staff as ELF speakers operate as frontline support staff who deal directly with foreigners, who are mostly ELF speakers as well. Questions may be raised regarding whether or not the routine work in IR offices is conducted effectively and whether or not the frontline staff and international visitors are able to negotiate meaning successfully by employing pragmatic strategies. As described in Kimura's (2017) study, despite its educational potential for cultivating learners' skills in ELF, including linguistic and cultural norms negotiation, adaptability, and relevant multilingualism, study abroad in non-English-speaking countries has received limited attention.

Numerous studies on interaction in different circumstances have been conducted. As Schegloff et al. (2002) explain, values in conversational exchanges from special contexts, such as a suicide hotline, a group of teenagers in counseling sessions, legal negotiations, broadcast media, business organisations, medical scenes, and airport operations centers, mean that one cannot fully comprehend how the parties come to talk as they do and comprehend one another as they do without referring to special features by which they are oriented. Not only do these conversations contain the particular contextual features of the special populations, but in an ELF context where speakers are basically from different L1s, they need to make more effort to make their conversation mutually intelligible and meaningful. For example, when speakers aim at a special purpose usage, they have to bear in mind how conversations in such settings are organized (Schegloff et al., 2002). Recently, although there have been studies in a similar context, the analyzed data was all composed of written texts. Examples include a research project on transcultural communication in international students through ELF in the highly multilingual and multicultural setting of a social network site (SNS) by Baker and Sangiamchit (2019), a study on pragmatic strategies and politeness in the email exchanges of international relations staff in a Thai university setting by Kotarputh (2020), a research study on ELF for online intercultural communication among Thai international students in the UK by Sangiamchit (2017), and research on the English of Thai multilingual Facebook users by Sonkaew (2018).

Yet, even though extensive research studies have been conducted on conversations in academic settings, examinations of interactions in higher education institution IR departments, specifically in an ELF context, have been overlooked. This is somewhat surprising given the importance of IR departments in attracting and supporting students, and in serving as a bridge for connecting different ELF users with each other. However, a report on international visitors' satisfactory evaluation from one of the northeastern Thailand universities in 2020 suggests that although most visitors are satisfied with the IR department services, some staff were not eloquent in English, and respondents also mentioned that they had difficulty understanding email messages sent by IR staff which contained the Thai language. Therefore, in order to obtain insightful data relevant to this particular setting, the present study was conducted.

Therefore, this research project investigates the adoption of ELF in academic settings, but specifically in a university, and its use among Thai IR staff and international visitors. This research setting was found from an initial survey to be a multilingual climate in which academic and supporting staff and students speak at least 25 first languages. In this study, international or foreign visitors refers to those whose countries of origin is not Thailand and who are working as academics or are studying at either undergraduate or postgraduate level in a Thai higher education institution. This is of particular interest due to increasing moves towards conducting research on the internationalization of universities and specifically regarding the use of ELF in classrooms, including in teacher-student interactions. As a result, even though English is required outside the classroom in a variety of environments, the use of ELF at an internationalized university has received uneven attention, especially interactions among Thai IR staff and their international visitors. Consequently, the details remain hazy as to how, what, and why ELF is present in given Thai higher education IR office contexts, and as to what pragmatic strategies are being used in this special environment, what attitudes and communicative needs for ELF exist within them, and probably whether or not some qualities of Business English as a lingua franca (BELF) (Kankaanranta & Louhiala-Salminen, 2018) are exhibited.

Considering these factors, the findings of this research project provide a fruitful and useful exploration into the field of ELF as operative in the Thai IR university milieu.

1.2 Purpose and Research Questions of the Study

The purpose of this research is to investigate the use of English as a lingua franca in an international relations (IR) office in a multilingual Thai higher education context. It proposes to explore the interactions between Thai IR staff and international visitors, which includes foreign students and foreign student and staff, and to reveal how pragmatic strategies can help with understanding negotiations in this setting. Therefore, it aims to study a particular setting—the time and place of a speech event. More specifically, this research project seeks to provide answers to the following research questions:

1. What pragmatic strategies do Thai international relations staff and international visitors use for meaning negotiation in a Thai university ELF context?
2. Do these pragmatic strategies vary according to whether or not the visitors are native English speakers?
3. What are different users' attitudes and communicative needs regarding the use of English as a lingua franca in the Thai university international relations office setting?

1.3 Significance of the Study

The significance of this research study is buttressed by two pillars: firstly, the benefits for IR staff professional development and probably for international visitors' awareness raising, and secondly, the contribution towards the ELF research domain.

To begin, this research is significant in terms of its benefits for IR staff professional development and for international visitors' preparation. In an internationalized university, IR offices are expected to recruit frontline staff with crucial ELF skills in order to make their work more effective. In reality, however, there are gaps between expected standards and the reality of existing practices. It is, therefore, necessary to explore actual routines to see how these staff use the language as ELF speakers when

they work, and especially how the frontline staff at IR office help desks work when they deal directly with foreign visitors. Unavoidably, when they interact using ELF, some might adopt good strategies in specific situations, but some might not. Therefore, it is important to investigate what pragmatic strategies have been practiced, both successfully and unsuccessfully, in order to draw out hidden phenomena. The findings will result in fruitful preparation guidelines for both current and future university IR staff and visitors as ELF speakers when they need to interact in this particular environment, as well as in more general ELF academic and BELF contexts. Above all, this study does not aim to study a phenomenon reminiscent of that found in other research projects. To be specific, it derives from the actual routines of Thai staff members. Hence, it aims to uncover empirical evidence from specific routines in order to draw out hidden phenomenon which could be explored further.

Secondly, the project is significant for its contribution toward the ELF research domain. This type of research project has already been carried out in different environments, for example in an academic context like classrooms, and in a business context, such as tourism sites. Although this project is undertaken in the commonly researched academic context, the central milieu is where staff and visitors work and spend time together, not where students and teachers interact. It has also been conducted in the similar context in internationalized universities and specifically in international relations offices. Very few studies have analyzed spoken language in this particular context. Accordingly, this research study investigates a relative newcomer to the field of ELF, especially in the Thailand context. Therefore, to a certain extent the research is expected to contribute to the understanding of the domain(s) of ELF and probably ELF awareness pedagogy.

1.4 Definitions of Terms

English as a lingua franca (ELF)

In this research, ELF is defined as the use of English to communicate between interlocutors who speak different L1s and who are from different cultural backgrounds.

Pragmatic strategies

In this project, pragmatic strategies can be defined as the various meaning negotiation strategies employed by ELF speakers in order to help produce intelligible utterances for listeners in an ELF context.

Attitudes

The main concern of this study is attitudes toward ELF, referring to emotions, beliefs **and behaviors** toward a particular ELF domain. They are in fact the result of personal experiences, which exert a powerful influence over behavior.

Communicative needs

In this **study**, communicative needs are communication skills which are required in international relations offices to make communication effective.

International relations or international affairs services

Although the terms international relations (IR) and international affairs (IA) services are used interchangeably, in this thesis, the term international relations (IR) services will be used solely to refer to university offices and to staff who provide services within these offices, i.e., those who are responsible for the strategic internationalization plans of the university. Moreover, IR staff work as liaison officers, helping inbound foreign students and staff, as well as local students and outbound staff, specifically with issues concerning their studies, their research and their social lives.

1.5 Limitations

In general, services at an IR office cover routine, occasional and seasonal duties. For research purposes, the data were gathered directly at IR staff desks, where services are provided for both walk-in and pre-arranged international visitors. While these face-to-face services are provided during office hours, a foreign visitor's schedule is likely unpredictable. In a natural setting where there are no interventions and no interruptions during the interactions between a Thai IR staff member and an international visitor, it is possible that only a few visitors consult the staff desk in any given month.

Furthermore, it was unlikely that recordings of authentic conversation recordings could be readily obtained, especially after the start of the semester. Foreign students need assistance at the beginning or the end of each semester more frequently than in the middle of a semester. A further issue was that drop-by visitors may feel unwilling or uncomfortable to have their interactions at the office recorded. In this situation, recordings could not be made or were deleted.

Consequently, to collect sufficient data and to address this issue of irregular contact, an extended period of time for data gathering had to be taken into consideration. Moreover, other means of data collection were considered. For example, apart from recording interactions in a natural setting, semi-structured interviews could be adopted to obtain in-depth details covering different angles.

Considering the points mentioned before, interactions were audio recorded because this better conceals interlocutors' identities in a natural setting. Accordingly, non-verbal communication was excluded from this study's analysis.

Moreover, the recent COVID 19 pandemic has been seriously affecting the data gathering process. IR staff members mentioned the social distancing for health practices that they must adopt at work. Consequently, IR offices unavoidably experienced less face-to-face contact than before the pandemic. Instead, they tended to use online communication channels and avoid office visits. Although the scope of this research was expected to cover four research sites (universities), eventually it was limited to only one university in terms of conversation data collected in IR offices.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter investigates the literature related to the present study. The first section presents the spread of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) worldwide. It explains the emergence of Englishes in Asia and then the emergence of English in this research project's context, Thailand. In the next section, pragmatic strategies are delineated and discussed, particularly intercultural communication (IC) and ELF. For the third section, methodological approaches relevant to the study are drawn on to support the discussion. Then, the fourth section presents related previous research studies. The last section of the chapter present the summary.

2.1 English as an International Language (EIL)

2.1.1 The spread of English

English has spread globally and become an international language because of many factors. During the 7th to the 18th centuries, it was clearly because of colonization by the English nation and then Great Britain. British territories expanded worldwide, and in the 18th to 19th centuries, English spread because of the Industrial Revolution and the British Empire (19th century). Melchers and Shaw (2003) state that the language spread subsequently because of the global military might, economic superiority and cultural power which emerged in the United States, especially as a consequence of technological domination. Presently, English continues to spread through other means, for example, globalization and social media, where the language is used to develop and maintain social relationships and cultural exchanges among an increasing number of people from all over the world (Vasileios, 2016).

The importance of the spread of English has been acknowledged as both a linguistic and sociolinguistic phenomenon, but the implications of this spread are also important (Crystal, 2008). Not only have historical reviews and explanations of the

spread of English caught people's interest, but the implications of the spread of the English language themselves have been at the core of English language learning and teaching. For example, language teaching and testing occurs worldwide. Hence, English has spread in a wide variety of domains, which includes broadcasting, show business, medicine, music, workplaces, and everyday life. Moreover, the language is also globally spoken in politics and education. For education, English plays a vital role in the curriculum in many countries. For instance, approximately 90 percent of students in Europe study English during their school years (Pilos, 2005). Moreover, English contributes greatly in the world of scientific research, as a communication tool. Consequently, the ongoing spread of the English language has also attracted attention from linguists, researchers, and educators, who study various aspects of the language. In general, it can be said that English has become a global language as people adopt English and then adapt it, making the English language become Englishes because people want to use the language to talk about their local interests, which consequently expand into a wide variety of English everywhere (Crystal, 2013). Consequently, English has been constantly growing, and the coinage of English vocabulary so that it becomes localized is taking place even today. The next section will explain two prominent models of English expansion.

2.1.2 Models of the Expansion of English

2.1.2.1 Kachru's circle model of World Englishes

Kachru's three-circle model of World Englishes has been developed since 1985. Widely cited, the circle model remains one of the most influential models for grouping the varieties of English in the world (Mollin, 2006). The spread of English in concentric circles comprises the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle. These circles constitute the type of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages (Kachru, 1985). Furthermore, Kachru describes the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles as norm-providing, norm-developing and norm-dependent, respectively. To further explain the three circles, the Inner (norm-providing) has English as a primary language, which is acquired as a native language (ENL), and in this Circle English is used as dominant language. The Outer (norm-developing) Circle has a colonial history in which people

acquire English as a second language (ESL) and where it is primarily used in major institutions and in multilingual contexts. The Expanding (norm-dependent) Circle has no colonial history and is where English is learned as a foreign language (EFL) and is used for international communication with no distinct status or function in institutional domains (Selvi & Yazan, 2013). The following diagram presents the circles together with the estimated number of speakers of each circle and example countries.

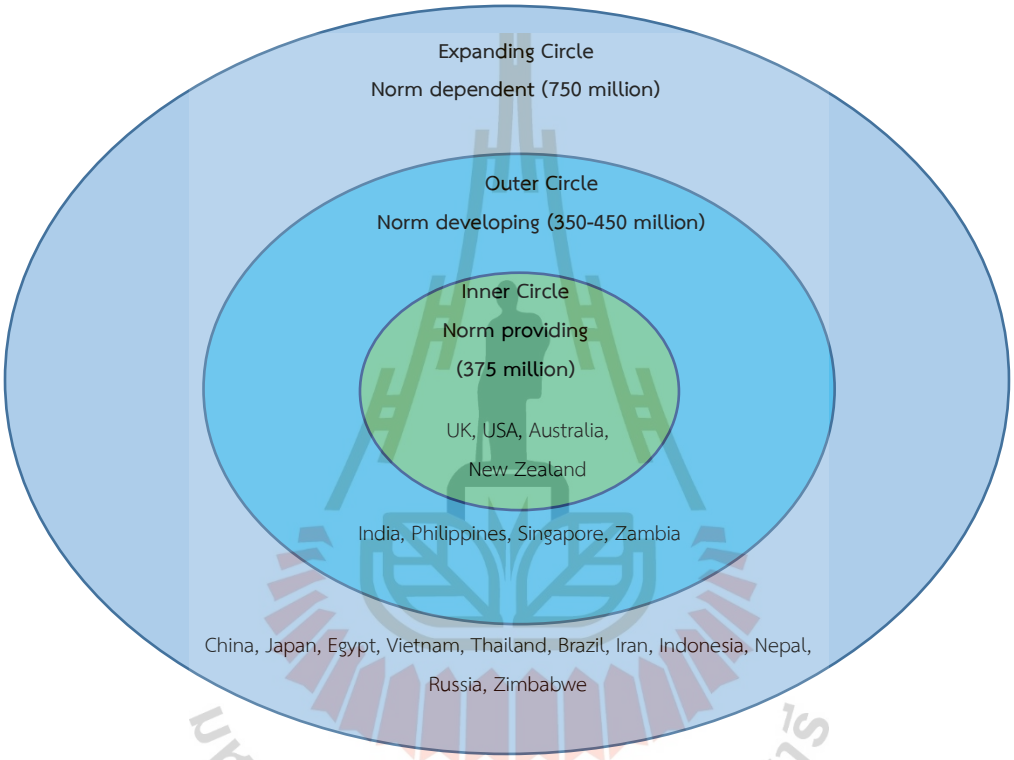


Figure 2.1 Kachru's three-circle model of World Englishes

However, Crystal (1995) argued that this model cannot clearly represent the reality of international English use because the reality is often ambiguous. Crystal stated that it is difficult to distinguish whether the Outer Circle looks to Inner Circle norms or creates its own norms. Additionally, norm development is possible in the Expanding Circle. Although it is helpful to picture the spread of English, Kachru's model never explains why English has successfully spread and taken up the role of an international language, nor does it illustrate concerns regarding the dominance of English, such as maintaining the status quo and preserving existing power

structures (Caine, 2008). Erling (2005) emphasised the importance underlying functional uses of the language instead of geographical varieties and recognizes that English can be used as a language of communication without necessarily being a language of identification. Although the limitations of this model are clear, it is suggested that the model serve as a shorthand for English worldwide, although it must be adapted by moving away from a focus on nation-states given to a sociolinguistic focus on English-speaking communities and recognizing that common differences over contexts for English worldwide cannot be disregarded when discussing specific varieties (Bruthiaux, 2003). In the next subsection, Widdowson's model will be explained.

2.1.2.2 Widdowson's notion of distribution and spread

Another model for the spread of English is described by Widdowson (2003) and emphasises how it is authorized by native speakers through the distribution of the language. English is adopted as an international language (EIL), which conforms to a native English speaking (NES) model. Earlier, Widdowson (1997) explained EIL as the specific use of English for international, professional, and academic purposes, mostly in the form of written language. He stated that EIL should be considered to be a register of English, as most of the people learning it only need access to certain occupational or functional domains, and they do not use it as a community or national language. However, local forms of English (or intranational Englishes) have a close connection with community and identity, and the standard for international transactions (international English) is associated with communication and information (Widdowson, 1997). In the same manner, Widdowson argued that international English has its communities, too, for example the worldwide communities of doctors, of lawyers, or of managers. Widdowson (1998) further argued that EIL is a composite lingua franca which is free of any specific adherence to any primary variety of the language. However, in contrast to local communities, such communities are not localized; that is, they are not tied to a geographical location. It is concluded that EIL is basically English for specific purposes (ESP) (Widdowson, 1997), for example, because the in-group adopts a normative influence. After all, the French doctor wants his colleagues to understand what he is saying; that is why he uses English in the first place despite

the fact that there is little danger of mutual unintelligibility within the specialized subgroup.

Another contradictory concept suggested that even though it has been argued that local varieties of English will expand into separate languages, just as Latin did, because the present global situation is different to that of the Middle Ages, it is uncertain that the present situation of English can be compared with past events (Spichtinger, 2003). On the contrary, the position of the USA, the dominant English speaking power, does not seem greatly imperiled. Modern means of transport, the global media and the internet may be counteracting forces against dissolution. Another factor accelerating the spread can be global youth and pop culture, in which English plays an essential role (Spichtinger, 2003).

Additionally, because international English(es) cut across national and local boundaries, the distinction between EFL and ESL and between Outer and Inner Circles cannot be maintained (Widdowson 1997, 1998). Moreover, the worldwide trend today is that non-native English speakers (NNESs) certainly outnumber native English speakers (NESs) (Smith, 1992). In other words, a wider variety of Englishes is spoken widely among NNESs, making it an unparalleled phenomenon.

To conclude this section, Kachru's three-circle model emphasises the geo-historical spread of English, whereas Widdowson's distribution model relies on functional language in contexts (Sangiamchit, 2017). This study applies the ideas of both the three-circle model and the distribution model.

2.2 Englishes in Asia and Thailand

English is increasingly regarded as the language of intercultural communication in Asia (Murata & Jenkins 2009; Kachru 2005; Kirkpatrick 2003; McArthur 2003). Asia is both broad in terms of geography and varied in terms of political history. The continent includes East, South, and Southeast Asia, where many countries are in the Expanding Circle; however, some belong to the Outer Circle. Because of the diversity of users, English usage in Asian countries is distinctive. For instance, former colonized countries generally use English as a second language (ESL) while those non-colonized countries

make use of the language as a foreign language (EFL). Consequently, in general, an Indian or a Filipino can speak English more fluently than a Thai.

English has always been the only official and working language of the region (Kirkpatrick, 2008), while in many parts of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), English plays a prominent role in both intranational and international communication (Low & Hashim, 2012). In ASEAN countries, the English language has become increasingly influential (Kirkpatrick, 2012). Therefore, based on its status as an international language, English is codified in the ASEAN Charter, under Article 34 (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2008). English was set as the working language among the ten member countries because each of the member states has its own unique official language; for example, the *de facto* official language of Thailand is Thai; the official language of Myanmar is Burmese; and the official language of Vietnam is Vietnamese (Deerajviset, 2014). Kagnarith, Klein and Middlecamp (2012) also observed that the increasing use of English as an inter-regional language of communication probably results from two factors. First, the use of English as ASEAN's working lingua franca has been in effect for decades. Second, the promotion of English as an international business language is one objective of the plan for the regional integration of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC).

2.2.1 English in the Thailand context

In Thailand, foreign language skills were perceived as beneficial as far back as the mid-1850s. It is said that one of the earliest appearances of English language learning was by an American missionary. According to Durongphan et al. (1982), King Rama IV (1851-1868) foresaw the threat of Western colonization; this prescience led him to start learning English in order to communicate with foreigners. He hired a native English tutor to teach his children, and soon after that he also sent his children to study abroad. Some commoners also had opportunities to learn English. Durongphan et al. (1982) also described a situation where, during the reign of King Rama V, more foreigners than ever were entering Thailand, and the king moved to modernize the country by sending greater numbers of citizens to study abroad.

Subsequently, English became a required foreign language subject in schools. Nowadays, many educational institutions, from primary schools to universities, offer

language programmes as core courses. In fact, Thailand's educational institutions have added English as a compulsory foreign language. According to Thai education policy, English is taught since primary school, resulting in most Thai pupils having a chance to study English for an hour or two a week for approximately nine years, from Primary 4 to Secondary 6 (Grades 4-12).

In addition, because of globalization and other related factors, including economic growth, technological advancement, medical research, and pop culture and the entertainment business, most international firms in Thailand use English for documentation, reports and communication. For business purposes, a number of features of English business discourse exist in a Thai workplace, for example in e-mail memos, which are integral to modern business operations (Hiranburana, 2017). It has been estimated that the majority of business communication now occurs electronically. Topics mentioned in emails in Hiranburana's study (2017) concerned management systems, training, and sports days, while some mentioned documents used in sales, such as price lists and inquiries, and quite a number also dealt with sports, such as golf and polo, together with problems with their work and working conditions.

The English language is obviously used for educational purposes. In particular, when the Ministry of Education (MOE) encouraged both public and private universities to launch undergraduate and postgraduate international study programmes decades ago, this resulted in the emergence of a thousand international study programmes in which English is used as a medium of instruction (EMI), operated all over the country. These programmes attract not only native Thai students but also non-Thai students from both neighbouring countries and from other continents, including the United States, Europe, Australia, and Africa. Because these international programmes involve EMI, including preparation in both content and in the methodology for teaching in English effectively, demand has increased for teachers capable of working in international study programmes (Punthumasen, 2007).

Although other languages are given some, relatively minor, status, English forms the 'de facto' second language of Thailand (Baker, 2012). All in all, it can be said that Thai people's use of English is constantly increasing, in different communities.

2.3 English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

2.3.1 The use of ELF in globalization

The term English as a lingua franca and its acronym ELF were first introduced to refer to the phenomenon that was research on variation in ELF users' pronunciation and was not initially publicly used to refer to communication among English users from different first language backgrounds. Instead, the term English as an international language (EIL) had been used (Jenkins, 2017). English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) became used to describe the status of English when it is used as a language of communication between two or more people who do not have English as a first language. ELF is also described as any use of English among speakers of different L1s as a communicative medium of choice and is frequently the only option (Seidlhofer, 2011). By definition, it often reflects some characteristics of the speakers' first language or languages (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

ELF is used as a dominant language and has been accelerating as a phenomenon because speakers of English now reside mainly in the Expanding Circle countries. It is now possible to state that the majority of ELF speakers are in the Expanding Circle. However, ELF is not limited to members of the Expanding Circle, and those who speak English internationally, whether they are from Inner or Outer Circle countries, are not excluded from ELF communication (Sangiamchit, 2017). Although several other languages including English have served as lingua francas at various times over previous centuries and continue to do so, no other lingua franca has experienced anything like the global spread or number of speakers as ELF (Jenkins, 2017). In fact, English has become a shared language among those native (NESs) and non-native English speakers (NNESs) from all the Circles. Furthermore, Seidlhofer (2011) notes that ELF speakers include NESs who, while minority users, also adopt ELF as an additional language for intercultural communication (IC).

Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011) note that certain characteristics occur in lingua franca interactions. They explain that ELF speakers, mostly being bi/multilingual, are influenced by their first language (L1). Therefore, the most common ELF features are code switching, cross-linguistic interactions, and simplification. A number of research studies have found that ELF users are likely to adopt a flexible way to use

idiomatic expressions by creating and negotiating phrasal expressions or by avoiding idiomatic phrases when participating in intercultural communication (Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2009).

When ELF plays an important role as the communicative tool in globalization, the need to study the use of ELF has been elevated in order to acquire a better understanding of ELF (Seidlhofer, 2001). She points out that the conceptual gap between the real use of ELF communication and applied linguistics research is due to the focus on native-speaker varieties of English. Moreover, although WE and ELF share the similar paradigm of being pluralistic and de-centralized, WE focuses on distinct varieties of localized English when it is used for intra- and inter-national contexts, specifically in the Outer Circle countries.

To compare World Englishes (WE) with ELF, WE represents certain national or regional parts where people's dialects express social group identities. ELF tends to focus more on accommodation to fulfill actual communicative purposes, and to target real-world English communication across boundaries, without seeking distinct linguistic norms (Ishikawa, 2016). Hence, the geographical terms of nations are employed to express identity and reflect local cultures, such as Indian English and Singaporean English (Jaroensak, 2018).

ELF research, on the other hand, focuses on the use of EIL across all three of Kachru's Circles, where geographical locations are unimportant in ELF research. Although previous studies have been conducted and to a greater extent have succeeded in exploring ELF, there are several controversies about the use of ELF, covering, for instance, pedagogical implications. ELF research findings have revealed the need to develop ELT to suit lingua franca contexts; however, a number of reports indicate non-conformity to English as a native language (ENL) norms in ELF forms (Jaroensak, 2018). To date, a number of studies have actually found that the ENL model is not applicable in ELF learners (Cogo & Jenkins, 2010). Therefore, it is difficult to specify a particular set of linguistic norms and to standardize the formal characteristics of ELF norms (Ferguson, 2009). As a result, developing an optional model of ELF teaching is as yet unpractical.

ELF began in the late 1980s where a number of World Englishes varieties had a strong influence on the earliest empirical ELF research (Jenkins, 2015, p. 53). At this stage, the main focus of ELF Phase 1 was to look for forms of individual variety within the boundaries. Later two corpus were initiated to analyze ELF patterns but because of a highly complex and diverse phenomenon of ELF, new data were obtained. In line with ELF embrace people from different sociocultural backgrounds to get involved with the use of English as a medium in intercultural communication resulting a more diversity, fluidity of variability. Therefore, conceptualizations were in need of a revision. In the late 2000s, Seidlhofer identified the problem with the focus on ELF features aiming to observe regularities found in ELF data which in fact there was existing fluidity (Jenkins, 2015, p. 55). Therefore, the concept of Communities of Practice (CoP) by Wenger (1998) was a more appropriate way of approaching ELF than that of the traditional variety-oriented speech community. Furthermore, World Englishes (WE), which held onto linguistically identifiable and geographically definable limits, was no longer applicable in ELF communication. As a matter of fact, ELF, with its fluidity and negotiation of meaning among interlocutors with multilingual repertoires, could not be scrutinized as consisting of bounded varieties (Jenkins, 2015). Its reconceptualisation as 'ELF 2' made ELF a more fluid, flexible, hybrid of English. ELF is used as a contact language among speakers with different first languages (Jenkins, 2009) and for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option (Seidlhofer 2011). However, because of various concerns regarding orientations to demographic trend, multilingualism, and ELF communities framed as CoPs, ELF researchers have moved towards ELF 3. According to Jenkins (2015), ELF now is a multilingual form of communication in which English is available as a contact language of choice but is not necessarily chosen.

On those grounds, ELF has been employed in remarkable linguistic situations in several domains across regions and continents for international communication, mostly by NNESs (Seidlhofer, 2011). While formulaic correctness is irrelevant in ELF communication, appropriateness is an important indicator in successful ELF performance (Wang, 2014). Moreover, a definition from Faber (2010, p. 21) can also help elaborate on the meaning of ELF. Faber defines ELF as new language variety

which overlaps with, but does not entirely coincide with, English as a national language and cultural vehicle. This English for reference and communication purposes has become a variety in its own right, and ELF speakers are not regarded as language learners, which implies deficiencies, but rather as language users who are in the process of creating their own standards of acceptability, comprehensibility and correction. In most cases, English is not the mother tongue of ELF speakers.

Recently, two prominent domains have mainly been researched in ELF: Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF) and English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA). These two aspects will be discussed in the next subsections.

2.3.1.1 Business English as a lingua franca (BELF)

ELF is the kind of English used to communicate between users from different L1 communities, while BELF specifically focuses on business situations. According to Louhiala-Salminen et al. (2005), BELF is where English is used as a neutral and shared communication code for running business within a global business discourse community, in the sense that sometimes none of the speakers using it can claim it as their mother tongue. It is shared in the sense that it is used for conducting business within the global business discourse community, whose members are BELF users and communicators in their own right, not as non-native speakers or learners (Louhiala-Salminen et al., 2005). The notion of BELF basically grew out of the combination of three main qualities under the umbrellas of ELF: its domain of use (international business), the role of its users (professionals), and the overall goal of the interactions (getting the job done and creating rapport) (Kankaanranta & Louhiala-Salminen, 2018). Consequently, not only do BELF speakers carrying out business encounter their own culture-bound perspectives of how interactions should be conducted, but also discourse practices arising from their individual mother tongues (Louhiala-Salminen et al, 2005). Moreover, the notion of BELF has been accepted in sociolinguistic and international management studies (Kankaanranta & Louhiala-Salminen, 2018). Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2018) also pointed out that BELF has three key characteristics: the domain of use, which is international business; the role of users, which is professional; and the overall goal of the interactions, which is to get the job done and create rapport. In addition to the three main qualities,

business knowledge is closely connected to the matter and makes BELF distinct from ELF (Kankaanranta & Louhiala-Salminen, 2018).

To be successful in international business communities, both interlocutors must be able to use the chosen lingua franca well enough for the interaction to take place. Although research has suggested that organisations may be more likely to complete transactions, such as sales transactions, successfully by following a strategy of accommodation (discussed later) rather than by using a lingua franca, the latter remains the norm in much international business communication, more specifically in situations where the chosen lingua franca is English (Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2016).

In global business contexts, important components for effective speakers include business knowledge, competence in BELF, and multicultural competence, as illustrated in the model of global communicative competence shown in the following figure.

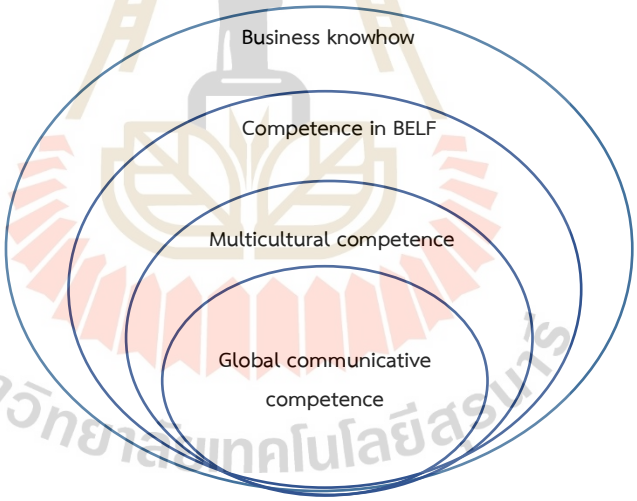


Figure 2.2 Model of Global Communicative Competence (GCC)

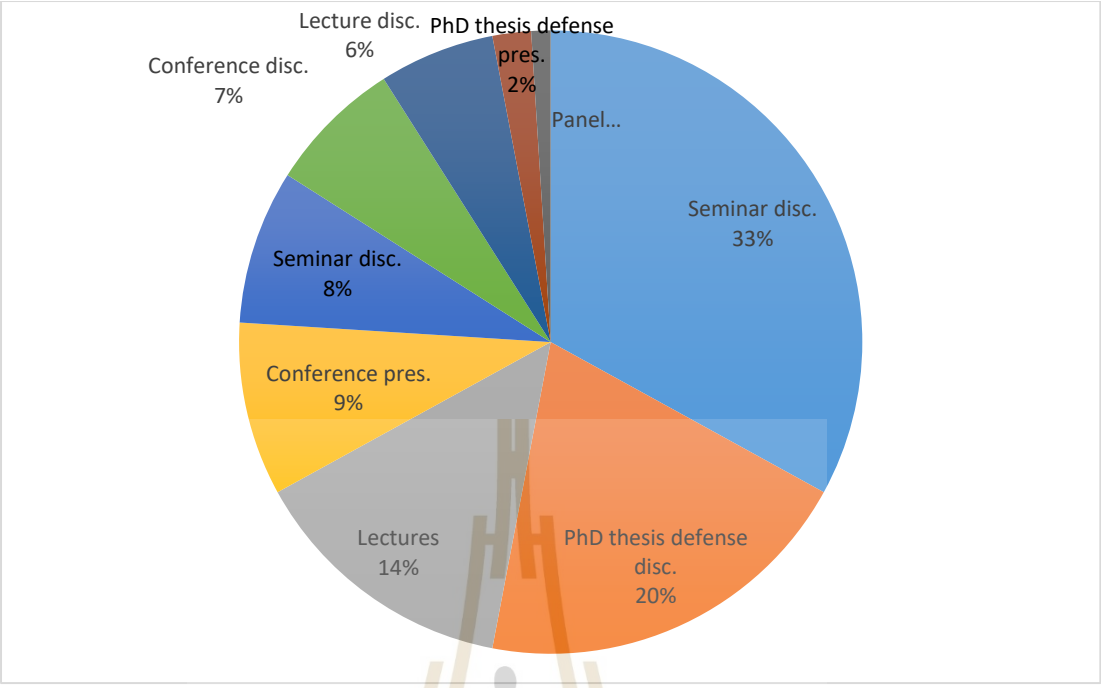
(Louhiala-Salminen & Kankaanranta, 2011, p. 28)

Furthermore, a study of how globally operating business professionals view global communicative competence (GCC) indicated that communicative competence is a crucial element interwoven with total professional competence, and the significance of knowing the audience and being able to

accommodate different ways of doing things are fundamental. Additionally, clarity is valued very highly, and attitude towards the language used in global professional communication is extremely pragmatic in that it emphasises having to get the job done (Louhiala-Salminen & Kankaanranta, 2011).

2.3.1.2 English as a lingua franca in academic settings (ELFA)

Knowledge transmission and exchange, as well as collaboration and mobility beyond national boundaries, have positioned English well on its way to becoming the preferred option for linguistic unity (Faber, 2010). Hence, without any type of official declaration for the role, English has become the *de facto* language of communication for those who require their oral or written texts to travel beyond national boundaries, and this is certainly the case in international conferences, where, for example, scientific and technical information is presented and exchanged (Faber, 2010). Additionally, there has been an increasing tendency in the university sector in recent years to introduce EMI, particularly at the postgraduate level (Ljosland, 2011). Politically, in some contexts, using English as an academic lingua franca has for some years also been encouraged as part of internationalization efforts (Ljosland, 2011). According to the ELFA (English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings) corpus project led by Anna Mauranen, academic event types in non-anglophone contexts discovered in seven academic disciplines, namely social sciences, technology, humanities, natural sciences, medicine, behavioral sciences, and economics & administration, comprise seminar discussions (33%), PhD thesis defense discussions (20%), lectures (14%), conference presentations (9%), seminar discussions (8%), conference discussions (7%), lecture discussions (6%), PhD thesis defense presentations (2%), and panel discussions (1%)



(Mauranen, Hynninen & Ranta, 2010).

Figure 2.3 Distribution of event types in the ELFA corpus

(Mauranen, Hynninen & Ranta, 2010, p. 186)

Abbreviations: pres. = presentations, disc. = discussions

The ELFA corpus project members concluded that mobility is now improving in the reality of students, professionals, and academics all over the globe, in particular in exchange study programmes, in international degrees, or even in entire departments or faculties adopting EMI, where the trend seems to be towards more English in non-English environments (Mauranen, Hynninen & Ranta, 2010).

As previous studies regarding English as an academic lingua franca have not yet clearly specified an acronym for this type of ELF use, for the sake of clarity, this research project will adopt ELFA to refer to English as an academic lingua franca in the rest of this dissertation.

In conclusion, the aforementioned paragraphs have to some extent elaborated on the use of ELF worldwide and on the two different domains of ELF, i.e., English as lingua franca in academic settings and business English as a lingua franca.

The following section focuses on another two aspects of ELF which are included in the goal of the present research: attitudes toward ELF and needs for ELF.

2.3.2 Attitudes toward ELF and communicative need for ELF

Most sociolinguistics theorists tend to agree that there exist affective, cognitive and behavioral aspects to attitudes, i.e., the simple 'tripartite model', which claims that affect, cognition, and behavior emerge as separate and distinctive components of attitude, and which is often referred to in language attitudes work (Garrett, 2003). Language attitudes research can access local processes of interpersonal attraction and distancing, and can help anticipate the character of social relationships, or at least first-acquaintance relationships and single-occasion interactions, such as service encounters within a speech community. Garrett (2001) also notes that it is better to view public attitudes as far more interesting and diverse instead of as a problem. Although, in general, attitudes are not easy to observe or measure, this study adopts a broad definition of attitudes as affect, feelings, values and beliefs measured from the subjects (Garrett, 2003). Importantly, the relevance of the ideology, beliefs and attitudes of the NES as a model and target in English language teaching (ELT) and in second language acquisition (SLA) has lately been increasingly questioned with the appearance of ELF (Kaura & Ramana, 2014). In SLA and ELT, the ultimate goal or target of acquisition has been the speech of a native speaker of English; therefore, non-native speakers of English are seen as imperfect as compared to the NESs. Above all, research in ELF flourishes and provides insightful discoveries regarding the users and uses of English in local contexts; however, attitudes towards ELF are often less than satisfactory, even among NNESs (Holliday, 2005, as cited in Kaura & Ramana, 2014). Furthermore, Jenkins (2007) found that most NNESs display a more positive attitude towards native speakers of English models than to local or non-native speakers of English models. This could be due to deeply rooted ideologies, as most textbooks, teacher education models and theories, and syllabuses are based on NES standards. After all, success and failure in the English language is always judged based on NES norms and standards (Kaura & Ramana, 2014). In the real world, the NES ideology has been radically entrenched in NNES communities for years, such as in Thailand, where the moving away from standards is usually considered wrong and the cause of

deleterious effects. According to Jenkins (2007, 2009), ELF is frequently not accepted and is viewed as being inferior to NES models; often ELF is termed as being too accepting of errors and as endorsing "anything goes". The following sections review research studies regarding ELF attitudes in various contexts.

According to Wang (2014), despite the scholarly justification of NNESs' variations from native English, how users of non-native Englishes think about their own English is crucial in the discussion of linguistic pluricentricity. Interestingly, when a number of NNES teachers' attitudes were surveyed by Kaur (2013) in Malaysia, they showed a preference to using the NES model in their teaching over the NNES model. In addition, the attitudes and awareness toward ELF of forty NNES teachers of various nationalities from Georgia and UAE were studied by Mikeladze and Al-Hariri (2018). The findings indicate that the participants in both groups had an almost similar knowledge of ELF ($\bar{x}$ 2.75 and 2.60). To the participants' understanding, ELF is defined as a bridge language used for communication, i.e., as a tool for international communication between speakers of different languages (a common language), where two different nationalities use English for communication, and as a language for foreigners (not native speakers), although English is the common language for nonnative and native speakers (Mikeladze & Al-Hariri, 2018).

While a study by Spichtinger (2003) of final year Singaporean, Indian, and Thai bachelor degree students' preferences for models of English revealed that Indians seem to place much more confidence in their own variety than Thais, Singaporeans prefer the British accent as much as their own. The table below shows very clearly that preferences vary tremendously according to the local sociopolitical climate.

Table 2.1 Preference for models of English among final Bachelor degree students (Spichtinger, 2003, p. 28)

Model	Singaporeans	Indians	Thais
British	38.3	28.5	49.1
American	14.4	12.0	31.6
Australian	0.6	0.3	0.3
Own way	38.9	47.4	3.5
Others	7.8	11.8	15.5

Akkakoson's recent (2019) study sought to understand whether or not Thai postgraduate students show a sense of ownership of English since they study English-related programmes. The study was conducted by using a written interview format with 44 postgraduate students attending two English language programmes. The study revealed that participants did not think they owned English (77.27%), although half of them (52.27%) had a positive experience of using English and mentioned that it increased confidence, improved motivation and was a source of inspiration. They also stated English was relevant to them for occupational purposes, educational purposes, daily life activities, and communicative purposes. Moreover, their identity of being Thai was also expressed and remained firm. The study can be useful for curriculum developers, who can facilitate learners not to imitate a so-called 'Standard English' but to learn to communicate pragmatically in the ASEAN context, where learners should feel free to produce their own version of English while maintaining intrinsic English comprehensibility. In other words, the existence of localized Englishes should be encouraged among second/foreign language users.

Similarly, Erling and Bartlett (2006) studied German students at one university in Berlin and found that their students viewed the language as a critical tool which provided them with access to a global community and the opportunity to develop their professional careers. Although the participants overwhelmingly agreed that English was crucial and beneficial, they did not think it was necessary to impose a particular native model (e.g., UK or USA) on their Englishes. The language was only regarded as a communication tool which local identity can be an integral part of. Most importantly, the students desired to learn English as a global language rather than the UK or US native language variants (Erling & Bartlett, 2006).

Furthermore, Albl-Mikasa (2009) investigated if NES norms and English language teaching (ELT) affects NNESs who are not English teachers. Her study, based on data from the Tuebingen ELF corpus, containing 70,000 words and 100 participants speaking 27 different languages, pointed out that all NNES participants realized the advantages of ELF, while not all NESs did. The results also demonstrated some contradictions; for example, although most of the NNESs believed that their English competence met their needs and purposes, they still wanted to improve it. While the

NNESs preferred to speak with NESs to improve their English, the NES participants felt no difference either way. Besides, the interviews suggested that most NNESs were not too stressed to cope with ELF. However, a small percent of NESs demonstrated anxiety regarding unsuccessful communication with NNESs in the ELF community. While NESs were afraid of not being understood by NNESs, NNESs were worried about how to say what they wanted, how their social interactions would be recognized, how to collaboratively continue the communication, and how to articulate elegantly in the English language.

The next study, a qualitative one conducted by Kimura (2017) on a Japanese exchange student to Thailand regarding her changing perceptions of English during her yearlong sojourn, discovered that her friend spoke English fast, with a native accent. However, friend did not have to be from an English-speaking country to belong to the category of good English speakers. The subject found it easier to communicate with NNESs regardless of their nationalities and also explained that an NNES was easier to understand. In addition to the rate of speech, the kind of NNES students spoke, such as basic English, was clearly different from that of their American, NNES counterparts. For example, one characteristic of basic English, as the participant described it, was the absence of slang, which resonated with existing ELF research suggesting that idiomatic expressions and slang are not always shared among ELF speakers (Seidlhofer, 2001, as cited in Kimura, 2017). In terms of pronunciation, the participant found it easier to communicate with NNESs because they tended to understand her English without adjustments, while the NES friends did not understand her at all if she spoke in the way she normally did. Consequently, she had to adjust her English to that of her NES friends. It is obvious that at this point the subject developed her linguistic awareness, and her NES friends were generally not willing to accommodate different grammatical and phonological norms; instead, they seem to have imposed their own norms on others (Kimura, 2017).

Wang and Ho (2013) also reported attitudes toward ELF in terms of users, diversity, and acceptance shown by both international and non-international students in that both groups held a substantially positive attitude toward ELF, recognized the fact that English users are not limited to native speakers, and understood that one

result of its use as ELF is its diversity. Moreover, they likely accept this phenomenon. However, both groups of students tended to favor the native speaker model for English learning and experienced a moderate level of difficulty in understanding NNESs. The results of this study also have pedagogical implications, particularly for non-international college students, who were helped to increase their exposure to ELF and to very likely nurture a more positive attitude toward ELF. However, they held less favorable attitudes towards ELF diversity and its acceptance. Therefore, this implies a need for pedagogical intervention to strengthen their sense of ELF, which will contribute significantly to the success of non-IC students and university students in similar contexts of intercultural communication.

Addressing communicative needs for ELF, it is obvious that collecting as much information as possible can build an in-depth and precise understanding of ELF speakers in a specific community of practice. Previous studies involving communicative needs shows rather different aspects of needs depending upon the professions.

Mussa & Wondie (2021) conducted a survey research with trainees on customer contact and secretarial operation coordination in Ethiopia vocational colleges. They found that in the area of micro skills, listening to lectures to take notes and listening to class discussions were highly needed while speaking activities were related to asking and answering questions and participating in whole class discussion. The participants also noted that asking and answering questions and writing different project works like term papers and assignments, sample personal and business letters difficult. They provided the reasons that the courses they took were inefficient to help them develop these skills. Kwan & Dunworth (2016) also did a research study with domestic helpers and employers in Hong Kong by launching surveys and interviews. They discovered the characteristics of the pragmatic features of communication, and identified the challenges experienced by participants and the pragmatic strategies that they used to communicate. It was reported that what can be defined as active strategies, such as clarification, repetition and direct questioning, were more successful in achieving effective communication from a transactional perspective, while passive strategies, such as ignoring unknown language produced by an interlocutor in the

expectation that it would either become clear or redundant, were more likely to lead to ambiguity and misunderstanding. Another study in Hong Kong was conducted by Chan (2014) adopting a questionnaire survey with working adults to explore their written and spoken communicative needs in order to bridge a gap between business English courses and actual needs of workers. She found that email was the most commonly used written communication for both external and internal communication, followed by reports. In terms of spoken communication, telephoning and informal meetings/discussions were the most needed spoken communication means in the workplace. More specifically, the results showed that press briefings and business negotiations were predominantly more challenging than other spoken aspects. The participants explained that presentations and social interactions in English are challenging to them because of the language use.

A report by Moslehifara & Ibrahimb (2012) on an investigation of English language oral communication (ELOC) needs of human resource development (HRD) undergraduates from a public university in the Southern part of Malaysia. The findings revealed that the three most important communicative activities in English language as perceived by the trainees were establishing social relationships with clients, making and arguing for an issue before superiors or colleagues and providing training through discussions and workshops. In addition, they reported the three less important communicative activities were reporting problems, discussing projects, proposals, plans, and designs, while the main oral communication problems encountered by the trainees regarded speaking fluently, asking for clarifications, and supporting opinions.

In addition, Kassim & Ali (2010) launched a communicative needs survey with engineers from 10 multinational chemical companies all around Malaysia. The results indicated that the emphasis should be put on oral, rather than written, communication skills. Moreover, findings also pointed that the communicative events considered important for engineers were teleconferencing, networking for contacts and advice, and presenting new ideas and alternative strategies. Additionally, fluency in the English language was seen as an opportunity in the engineering field to advance towards becoming a global engineer.

All in all, the results of a needs analysis from this present research project are almost certainly useful in terms of providing insightful information to enable ELF speakers to be self-aware; for ELF educators to obtain a better understanding of relevant factors necessary for the design and development of materials, courses, and training sessions that precisely serve their ELF speakers; and for policymakers to obtain a true understanding of learner needs in order to launch sustainable and profitable programmes and projects that best benefit ELF speakers.

As previously demonstrated, although several empirical studies investigating attitudes toward ELF have been carried out with both students and teachers, there is still a lack of research on specific ELF speakers in a community similar to the one in this study. It is, therefore, clearly beneficial to obtain data on both the attitudes towards, and the needs for, ELF in this specific university setting.

This section concludes with a statement by Carter (2003, p.64) that the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language involves an awareness of varieties of languages, how they are perceived and an ability to contextualise one own language practices and those of others. In other words, for learners and speakers in this present study's Thai context, their awareness and perceptions of ELF are relatively important to develop themselves as ELF speakers.

2.3.3 Research into ELF

Jenkins (2017) notes that in the beginning of ELF research, when there was no similar paradigm with which to compare it, examples of research in World Englishes (WE) were adopted by ELF researchers, even though a growing corpus of empirical data indicated that ELF was more fluid than WE. Consequently, attention turned to discovering and describing ELF's fluidity on the side of functions. In recent years, ELF's multilingual nature has been clearer, and "ELF seen as being positioned within a framework of multilingualism rather than multilingualism being an aspect of ELF use" (Jenkins, 2017, p. 596). The multilingual dimension has always been part of ELF research, but it has in fact become more pivotal in recent years (Pizl, 2016, as cited in Jenkins, 2017). This leads Jenkins to theorize that multilingualism with ELF and of ELF is an integral part of multilingualism research (Jenkins, 2017).

Since the first conceptual development of ELF, there have been studies of collections of ELF corpora, starting with the establishment of VOICE (Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English) in 2001 by Babara Seidlhofer. Then, in 2003 the ELFA Corpus (Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings), which included data from higher education contexts, was established by Anna Mauranen. Subsequently, another major development was ACE (Asian Corpus of English), which was launched by Andy Kirkpatrick in 2009 to cover nine countries within East and South-East Asia. These three largest ELF corpora fundamentally covered spoken ELF. Recently, therefore, Mauranen developed WrELFA (the Corpus of Written ELF in Academic Settings), which is still in progress (Jenkins, 2017).

Since then, ample corpus data has enabled ELF researchers to explore ELF forms and functions in different domains. However, the most researched domains have been business ELF (BELF) and English as an academic lingua franca (ELFA), which cover English as a medium of instruction (EMI) for both non-English mother tongue and English dominant (mother tongue) settings (Jenkins, 2017). More research in ELF will be reviewed in the section on related previous studies.

2.4 International Educational System

Key developments occur in many countries through the country's educational system, and one way to advance the learning environment is to internationalize the system by launching international programmes, international schools, English programmes, and international study programmes at the higher education level. Take European countries where the contexts are multilingual as an example. There, higher education has been promoting multilingual programmes and courses (BjÖrkman, 2010), largely due to the prominence of multiculturalism in their societies. Although European countries have adopted internationalized or multilingual education for different purposes, the development of knowledge transmission aims to develop countries in a way that resembles other countries, even those from different continents. In Thailand, the history of internationalization in the education context began in the late 19th century, when the Ministry of Education allowed international schools to be launched.

Subsequently, international education has rapidly prospered, especially in the capital Bangkok and in the main regional provinces, including Chiang Mai, Phuket, Chonburi and Nakhon Rathchasima. To illustrate, the International Schools Association of Thailand website indicates that about 30 international schools exist in Bangkok alone, not to mention the abundantly available international study programmes in higher education institutions. As a result, there has been a growing number of international academics, both Thais and non-Thais, most of them from neighbouring countries and some even from other continents (Punthumasen, 2007). This is due to various promising factors with regard to available employment and scholarships, reputation, opportunities to improve English proficiency, strong research support, and positive interpersonal relationships with international staff and other students (Young & Snodin, 2018). Apart from this, the cost of living and the tuition fees of Thai universities offer the best value at a lower cost compared to universities in other parts of the world (Akwenye, 2018).

2.4.1 Internationalized universities

According to Darasawang (2007), an international programme should include some specific components, such as having international teachers and students, with the students being able to transfer credits to universities abroad. That means international programmes should have links with universities in other countries. At present, in every university, there are international programmes which offer to meet the needs of those who want to be more exposed to English (Darasawang, 2007).

Recruiting a number of foreigners and enhancing international collaboration between higher education institutions benefits an internationalized university by enabling extensive international study programme offerings. This is certainly not only through innovative advancements and upgrading the educational standards of the country, but international academics can also take advantage from such situations. For example, many students, both home and international, state how much they appreciate having peers from around the world on their courses and in their institutions because this gives them a chance to learn about other peoples and places in the world, learn about their differences and similarities, and form lasting and valued friendships (Hyland et al., 2008).

As an international student or member of staff in an ELF context, prior to arrival, most expect to receive or provide a higher education and improve their English language skills. However, a study by Naeeni, et al. (2015) in Malaysia suggests that despite the fact that students were relatively satisfied with the freedom, safety and educational facilities offered by the country, some of them faced challenges in various aspects of education, especially communication. They explained that the accent in Malaysian people's English combined with the students' inadequate language skills brought about communication barriers.

Likewise, a study on staff and students in the UK higher education by Trahar and Hyland (2011) discovered that most of the research participants described problems of a lack of intercultural interaction and difficulties with particular classroom pedagogy, such as group work. Although the participants described difficulties, they gave anecdotal evidence of feeling personally rewarded in terms of building new friendships and developing intercultural competencies.

Another research study by Trahar (2014) explained that as one of the Malaysian national strategies is to increase its income and enhance its ability to compete globally, higher education had been greatly developed, not only to improve the quality of education for its citizens, but also to attract more international students and academics. During an academic visit at Malaysian University, Trahar conducted narrative interviews with six doctoral researchers and three academics regarding their learning and teaching experience in the country. According to a thematic analysis of the narratives, religious similarity, available English teaching courses, low tuition fees and an inexpensive cost of living seem to be reasons which attract people to undertake their education in Malaysia. Although international students are quite satisfied with the academic experience they receive, the quality of relationships with their supervisors can be altered by increasing closeness among the parties. It is, in addition, suggested that the major issue that international students experience is the language barrier. They might feel excluded or marginalized when students in the classroom switch to the local language.

Therefore, in order to elevate the level of internationalization in the Malaysian higher education system, Trahar argues that local and institutional values

should be recognized and well comprehended. Despite the country not viewing itself as possessing a 'segregated population', it is evident that local ethnic groups, including Indians, Chinese and Malays, are disinclined to integrate in a classroom. This possibly negatively influences the level of integration with international students.

According to one northeastern Thailand university strategic plan regarding international environment promotion, the international affairs division of the university has launched an internationalized policy featuring the following aspects:

1. Development of strategic partnership. For example, for educational prospects, artificial intelligence (AI) for education and healthcare, active recruitment, and MOUs must be promoted.
2. International affairs services:
   2.1 Receiving and welcoming international guests, such as ambassadors and executives from overseas; arranging and coordinating formal events; and promoting dialogues for international collaboration
   2.2 Coordinating and facilitating international students and staff, such as recruiting students and staff, arranging visas, orientating international students, providing academic and advisory services, promoting students' activities, and providing housing information.
   2.3 Facilitating Thai students and staff, such as translating official documents, arranging overseas trips, preparing speeches and certifying letter preparation.
   2.4 Managing funds and scholarships for students and staff.
   2.5 Publicizing the university internationally and strengthening the alumni network.

Even though the university has launched the plan and its performance has generally met expectations, a report from stakeholders providing suggestions should be taken into account in order to improve the institution. International support workers and academic staff mentioned the following:

- Communication via various channels must provide an English or multilingual version, for example on signs, in emails, and in documents.

- Service staff in different divisions of the university must be able to communicate in English.
- Network expansion activities among international staff must be scheduled regularly.
- Curriculum development must emphasise the English competency of graduates to prepare them for international organisations.
- The number of efficient international staff recruitment must be increased.
- The number of English as a medium of instructions (EMI) courses must be increased.

On the other hand, Thai support and academic staff noted two important areas:

- Leadership and English language training sessions should be arranged for students and staff.
- EMI teaching techniques sessions should be arranged for Thai lecturers.

All in all, an internationalized university provides numerous advantages, not only within the educational domain and in the development of interdisciplinary studies, but also because it undoubtedly attracts a lot of income into the country, and investments in associated businesses, such as housing and accommodation, tourism, and healthcare all flourish. As a result of this phenomenon constantly growing, an effective internationalized university is one of the crucial keys to maintaining the satisfaction of higher education customers and international academics. Since uneven attention has been aid to research into study abroad and international universities in NNES countries, this study of the Thai context was proposed.

2.5 Pragmatic Strategies in Intercultural Communication and ELF

Speaking is an active and productive form of communication which is commonly performed in face-to-face interaction and which occurs as part of a dialogue or another form of verbal exchange (Ali, 2018, p. 125). Consequently, speaking is a part of a reciprocal exchange which involves both receptive and productive participation. At this point, it is useful to mention speaking purposes, which generally serve two initial

purposes: information routines and interaction routines (Bygate, 1987). The first purpose is to get something done, such as requests, orders, offers, and suggestions. This purpose of conversation is also called transactional. Brown and Yule (1983) note that transactional language is for the expression of content, while McCharty (1991) explains that it is for getting business done. Therefore, transactional talk requires necessary skills in using English for transactions, including selecting vocabulary related to particular transactions and functions, using fixed expressions and routines, expressing functions, using scripts for specific transactions and situations, asking and answering questions, clarifying meanings and intentions, confirming and repeating information, and using communication strategies (Richards, n.d). Another main purpose of talk is for social interaction, such as greetings and small talk. This talk is called interactional talk. According to Brown and Yule (1983), interactional talk involves expressing social relations and personal attitudes. Furthermore, McCharty (1991) mentions that interactional talk establishes roles and relationship with another person prior to transactional talk, confirms and consolidates relationships, expresses solidarity, and so on. According to Richards (n.d.), although small talk consists of short exchanges, certain skills are required for mastering small talk. Those skills include acquiring fixed expressions and routines used in small talk, using formal or casual speech depending on the situation, developing fluency in making small talk around predictable topics, using opening and closing strategies, using backchannel, and managing the flow of conversation around topics

As regards communicative competence, the conventional approach is strongly influenced by linguistic prejudice, on the one hand, and by social norms on the other. Hence, it is evaluated according to fluency in speech, adequacy in the use of complex words, pomposity of language, and articulation (El-Samir, 2011). Later, sociolinguists widened the scope of communicative competence by focusing on the bond between language and society in general and language in its social context in particular. Consequently, because the concept has been widened to cover social appropriateness, communicative competence is no longer restricted to linguistic competence (El-Samir, 2011).

According to Tarone (1980), communicative strategies (CSs) are defined as attempts to use one's linguistic system efficiently and clearly, with minimum effort. CSs are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors attempt to agree on a communicative goal (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2013). Corder (1983) explains that CSs are used by a speaker when faced with some difficulty due to their communicative ends exceeding their communicative means. In other words, CSs are systematic techniques employed by a speaker to express meaning when faced with some difficulty. Some examples described by DÖrnyei (1995) include *avoidance strategies,* in which the speaker leaves an incomplete message, or *topic avoidance,* where the speaker avoids a topic or concepts containing difficult language.

While several research studies have been conducted on IC, revealing the various strategies used, many scholars are quite uncertain about the way to distinguish the differences between communicative strategies and 'pragmatic strategies', particularly in ELF contexts. Galloway and Rose (2015) explain that ELF users actually bring a variety of pragmatic knowledge to ELF encounters, contributing to pragmatic transfer, which does not necessarily cause communicative failure. ELF users rather accomplish communication by adopting a number of pragmatic strategies to negotiate meaning immediately and to overcome miscommunications when they do arise (Galloway & Rose, 2015).

2.5.1 Pragmatic strategies

Pragmatics is the study of meaning in context, which therefore gives consideration to interlocutors and their communicative purposes (Davies, 2005). Yule (1996) states that pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning and contextual meaning as well as of how more gets communicated than is said, and of the expression of relative distance between/among interlocutors. Pragmatic competence is thus defined as the ability to comprehend and produce a communicative act (Liu, 2004).

Taken together, pragmatic strategies can be described as the strategies used during communication in order to ensure successful interactions. Communication between different cultures hence requires skills concerning the English language and intercultural communication (IC). According to Cogo (2009), key to IC is accommodation, which is how interlocutors adjust their speech to facilitate

communication or change one's speech to make it more intelligible or sometimes to converge one's spoken habits to resemble those of one's interlocutors.

Accommodation theory, originally speech accommodation theory, analyses the means by which speakers converge or diverge during an interaction with respect to the language forms and speech styles they perform (Dewey, 2011). Earlier studies in ELF have observed the crucial role accommodation plays. In empirical work in ELF, Seidlhofer (2004), for example, explains accommodation as another important insight from the study of intercultural ELF interactions. Similar to Jenkins' observation about the core phonological features, Seidlhofer notes that ELF research has expressed how language proficiency, in the conventional sense of conforming to the standard code, can only partially attribute to success in communication. She claims that a broader communicative capability, which includes accommodation skills, is vital. In line with Seidlhofer, Mauranen (2003) highlights the importance of ELF speakers being able to modify the language they deploy and states that their language needs to adapt to the interactants' immediate communicative needs and resources. Therefore, the need for adaptation has been a continuing core issue throughout the development of ELF research. In a later work by Mauranen (2007), she illustrates how ELF speakers in academic settings take part in what she defines as adaptive strategies in order to achieve communicative success.

Cogo (2009) notes that successful ELF communication depends on crucial adaptive accommodation skills, along with appreciation for, and acceptance of, diversity. Moreover, the increasing number of studies into the pragmatics of ELF is showing how speakers use a variety of accommodation strategies that allow their exchanges to be more intelligible than if they had simply referred to standard NES norms (Cogo, 2009). According to Jenkins (2007), the ability of ELF speakers to accommodate interlocutors is far more important than the ability to conform to the English as a native language standard. As a matter of fact, the proficiency levels of ELF users is also diverse, and it includes speakers who are still learners, speakers who stopped learning at some point short of expert level, and competent ELF users (Jenkins, 2006).

Accommodation also figures as a way of overcoming possible difficulties in naturally occurring conversations, and the area of problematic talk has provided interesting results with regard to ELF communication (Cogo, 2009). According to Dewey (2011), even though ELD is seemingly prone to misunderstandings because of the variety of lingua-cultures involved, ELF communication displays surprisingly few problematic moments, and the participants show skillful use of various strategies to prevent non-understanding and to ensure the smooth flow of talk. He adds that while the theory has been refined over the years, the fundamental concept continues to be the idea that speakers employ strategic behaviors in their negotiation of social distance.

These accommodation strategies are described as *approximation strategies* (convergence, divergence, maintenance, and complementary), *discourse management*, *interpretability*, *and interpersonal control* (Shepard, Giles & Le Poire, 2001). First, *convergence strategies* are used by interlocutors to modify their linguistic and paralinguistic features in order to make these more similar to those of their interactional partners. Second, *divergence* refers to those strategies interlocutors may use in order to emphasise differences in communicative behaviors, which can include both verbal and nonverbal features. Third, *maintenance* refers to strategies that speakers may prefer in order to continue interacting in a particular speech style, neither reducing nor enhancing perceived differences between their and their interlocutors' patterns of communicative behavior (Giles, Coupland & Coupland, 1991). Fourth, *interpretability strategies* relate to a receiver's ability to interpret the language in an interaction. Fifth, with *discourse management strategies*, the focus is on the perceived needs of the interlocutor(s), and these may include topic selection, backchannel and so on. Finally, with *interpersonal control strategies*, speakers may attempt to direct the interaction, by means of, for example, interrupting and the use of forms of language to address personal interaction (Shepard, Giles & Le Poire, 2001).

Apart from the above mentioned strategies, there is the important fundamental precept that all individuals when engaged in human interaction have a wide repertoire, or range of repertoires, of linguistic and extra-linguistic resources that they may draw on at any given moment, adapting the key repertoire features by

accentuating, modifying, or downplaying these and so on as considered necessary during the communicative flow of an interaction (Dewey, 2011).

Furthermore, an overview of the growing body of accommodation oriented research in ELF pragmatics, as highlighted in various studies, also describes co-operative and convergent strategies (Cogo, 2009). The data reveals how accommodative behavior serves as a way of overcoming potential difficulties in natural interactions, illustrating how participants in ELF talks make use of various pragmatic means to prevent non-understanding and consequently help smooth the flow of talk.

Previous findings in ELF pragmatics have shown how adapting to an interlocutor's linguistic and cultural expectations can be used to pre-empt possible misunderstandings. For example, Cogo and Dewey (2006) show how speakers can achieve communicative effectiveness through repetition of an interlocutor's word or phrase, an accommodative move which not only helps achieve communicative success, but also serves as a device for speech participants to adjust to each other in supportive, collaborative ways of making meaning. In the same vein, Hülmbauer (2009) remarks on the significance of accommodative speech, which is supported with empirical evidence on how speakers are involved with creative language use as part of a continually evolving process of cooperatively expressing meaning, with newly invented expressions being incorporated into the speakers' rather organic pool of shared resources. The main point noted by Hülmbauer is that accommodation arises regardless of correctness criteria related to ENL norms. As a matter of fact, in her study on the relationship between formal correctness and ENL, she indicates that not only can non-standard forms be communicatively effective, but that they are arguably often more effective than the norm, particularly where they emerge as the result of speakers' collaboratively adapting their linguistic resources.

With respect to intercultural communication, there exist seven key concepts for pragmatic strategies, namely *accommodation*, *cooperation*, *code switching*, the *let it pass principle*, *pre-empting strategies*, *repair*, *and repetition.* As some are already described above, the following will provide explanations for the remaining strategies.

Cooperation: Much intercultural communication and in particular ELF communication is characterised by cooperation, which refers to working with the other interlocutor when speaking with them in order to ensure a successful conversation.

Code switching: The ability to switch between different languages or dialects in response to the context of the communication and of the interlocutors. Poplack (1980, 2000, 2015) proposes and classifies code-switching into three categories: tag-switching –an insertion of a tag from one language into talk in other language, intersentential –a shift of language in the middle of a sentence of one language to another, and intrasentential code-witching –a language shift is made at sentence or clause level boundaries.

Let it pass principle: Deciding when misunderstanding is important or not in communication, and ignoring it when it is not considered significant for the immediate purposes of the communication (Firth & Wagner, 1997).

Pre-empting strategies—Repair and Repetition: The ability to predict possible problematic aspects of communication and to use strategies, such as paraphrasing, summaries or repetition, to aid understanding (Kaur, 2009). These strategies can also be used to negotiate and resolve misunderstanding in communication, for example through the use of different words to explain a previously misunderstood word or phrase.

So far, this study has focused on ELF pragmatic strategies, in particular accommodation strategies. The following section will discuss spoken data and the conversational analysis of ELF encounters.

It is emphasised that when conversational data is interpreted, attention must be drawn, especially in the individual pragmatic characteristics of lingua franca talk in an interaction, to either cross-cultural interferences and the existence of a 'third' culture, or to learner language strategies (Meierkord, 2013). Moreover, according to Meierkord's study of successful lingua franca interaction with naturally occurring face-to-face group conversations among overseas students in Great Britain, at the level of pragmatics, the informal register of EIL differs from the native speaker varieties of British English (BrE) and American English (AmE) regarding both discourse structure and what

is usually referred to as politeness phenomena. Special characteristics discovered comprise the following.

Firstly, in its *discourse structure*, unlike BrE or AmE native speakers, ELF speakers do not link opening *and closing phases* to the core phase of the conversations by using illocutions like extractors (e.g. 'I'd better be off now.'). Instead, pauses occur between conversational phases, particularly at the end of a conversation, to mark the transition from one phase to the other. Moreover, the participants also prefer *safe topics,* for instance meals, life in a hostel, and jobs or university classes. The student participants keep the individual topics very short and deal with them rather superficially as most topics are changed after less than ten conversational turns have been devoted to them.

The second point is that the participants' speech exhibits *frequent and long pauses* both within and in-between turns, while simultaneous speech also occurs. However the overlapping parts vary greatly. Some speakers do not overlap with their interlocutors at all, while others frequently talk at the same time with other participants of the conversation. Moreover, those who do so are all very skilled speakers. However, the spans of simultaneous ELF speech are shorter than those of native speakers, such as the fact that they are two words long as compared to the native speakers' three-word overlaps.

The third aspect is the *substantial use of politeness,* such as routine formulae in opening and closing phases, back-channels and other tactics. The participants hardly alter in the actual choice of the routine formulae they use. Therefore, many expressions generally found in native English speakers' speech do not occur at all, and ELF speakers mainly restrict themselves to stereotypical phrases such as "How are you?", "Good morning.", "Hello." and "Bye.".

In addition, the *back-channeling behavior* of participants in the conversations is very similar to what has been observed with BrE native speakers, where the participants use the same amount of supportive back-channels (e.g. *mhm, right, yeah*), though verbal back-channels are frequently replaced by *supportive laughter*. While ELF speakers employ a comparatively high amount of sentence completion and restatements, non-back-channeling tactics were realized in a way that

significantly differs from the style of native BrE speakers. Of special interest is the very high amount of *cajolers,* i.e., verbal appeals for the listener's sympathy, e.g. *you know*, *I mean*, and *you see* that occurred, and which express the ELF speakers' desire to cooperate and be involved with interlocutors.

Meierkord (2013) concluded that in order to interpret these characteristics, the first attempt may be to regard them as being interferences from the speakers' mother tongues. However, although cultural transfer is evident in the types of communicative events that speakers expect to occur in a given situation, the manner of their participation in them, the specific types of acts they perform and the ways they realize them, the ways topics are nominated and developed, and the way discourse is regulated, Ellis (1994) emphasises the importance of not overstating the role of the non-native speakers' L1 and culture.

Regarding conversation analysis (CA), Pichler (2013) compiles from various studies the principal tenets necessary to establish functional taxonomies for selected discourse-pragmatic variables, which are presented below by ordering them from broad indicators to a fine-tuned qualitative analysis (Cameron, 2001; Du Bois et al., 1993; Heritage & Atkinson, 1984; Heritage, 1984; Kjellmer, 2003; Pomerantz, 1984; Psanthas & Anderson 1990; Sack et al., 1974; Schegloff, 1982; Schegloff, 2007; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973; StenstrÖm, 1990; Wichmann, 2011; Yang, 2006):

Recipient design: Interaction is designed in a way that displays speakers' orientation and sensitivity to their co-participants in interaction.

Preference organisation: Interaction alternative where non-equivalent actions are available to speakers. One action is preferred or expected to be chosen (e.g., agreement, acceptance); the other is dispreferred (e.g. disagreement, refusal). Preferred next actions are generally performed directly and without delay, while dispreferred next actions are generally performed indirectly and in a qualified manner, and are generally delayed between and within turns.

Turn-exchange mechanisms: Turn exchange is administered by participants in an interaction in order to proceed smoothly. Usually only one speaker talks at a time, and transitions are finely co-ordinated to minimize gaps and overlaps. Speaker exchange is accomplished on a turn-by-turn basis through one of the following turn-

allocation techniques: (i) the current speakers select a next speaker, (ii) the next speaker self-selects themselves, or (iii) the current speaker continues to speak.

Topic-proffering sequences: By proffering a topic, speakers make available to co-conversationalists a particular topic which they expect their co-conversationalists to embrace or reject. Preferred responses to topic-proffers generate expansion of the topic; dispreferred responses generate topic closure.

Sequential implicativeness: Utterances are context-shaped and context-renewing, such as they occur in response or reaction to some prior utterance and project a relevant next utterance.

Adjacency pairs: Talk is sequentially organized into adjacency pairs. The most basic forms of adjacency pairs are (i) composed of two turns; (ii) produced by different speakers; (iii) adjacently positioned; (iv) ordered; and (v) pair-type related, e.g., question-answer, offer-acceptance/refusal, and assessment-assessment.

Next-turn proof procedure: Because utterances are basically understood as directed to prior talk, a current turn's talk shows a speaker's analysis and understanding of the immediately preceding turn's talk.

Temporal development of interactions: Features such as overlaps and interruptions demonstrate important information about speaker-hearer alignment.

False starts, repetitions and filled pauses (em, er, um): False starts and repetitions aid speakers in the planning of discourse, and filled pauses perform a range of pragmatic functions similar to more prototypical discourse-pragmatic features.

Acknowledgement tokens (mhm, uh-huh, yeah): Depending on their strategic placement in discourse, these tokens function to signal hearers' continued interest and attention to the speaker, or to express agreement and acceptance.

Prosodic and paralinguistic features (speech rate, stress, pauses, volume, duration, pitch movement, intonation contour, voice quality): These features contribute to the communicative meaning of utterances and are of great importance for disambiguating the functions performed by discourse-pragmatic variables.

2.6 Methodological Approaches

2.6.1 Interpretivisim

For the purpose of discovering the answers to the research questions, the researcher adopted a mainly interpretivism approach in accordance with the nature of the research problem being considered. While both categories of approach, i.e., qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collection, are employed, approaches to data analysis or reasoning (inductive and deductive), which include conversation analysis, ethnography, narrative, and interviews, are also employed as research inquiry strategies. Moreover, this research project also undertakes text or image data and closed-ended questions methods (Creswell, 2013). The following sections provide explicit discussions of interpretivism, interaction analysis, and ethnographic approaches. Interpretivism primarily concerns the relationship between society and the individual, where individuals are not only driven by external social forces, as positivists believe (Thompson, 2015). In contrast, individuals are sophisticated and complex, that is, different people; therefore, they experience and understand the same objective reality in different ways and have individual reasons for their actions. As interpretivists focus their interest on specific and unique issues, it can be then said that the focus of interpretivism-driven research is to acquire in-depth insight into the lives of respondents and to obtain an empathetic understanding of why they act in the way that they do (Nguyen & Tran, 2015). For this reason, qualitative methods are preferred in order to allow for close interaction with participants through personal documents, participant observation, and unstructured interviews. Some interpretivism key terms can include subjective interaction, involvement, rapport feelings, Verstehen—interpretive or participatory examination of social phenomena ("Verstehen," n.d.), empathy, thick description—gathering detailed descriptions and interpretations of situations observed by a researcher (Drew, 2020), individual motives, and humanistic investigation (Thompson, 2015).

On the whole, interpretivism is a methodological approach based on understanding the interpretations and meanings people give to actions in specific contexts. In particular, interpretivism focuses on attempting to obtain insight into the

experiences of individuals and groups. For these reasons, interactive relationships were selected as the core approach of this study.

Interaction analysis researches interactions occurring in naturalistic environments which are non-experimental and non-elicited settings (Nunan, 1992). The points of distinction between discourse analysis, interaction analysis, and conversation analysis are the means whereby the data have been collected, the mode of language which is admitted into the analysis, and whether the researcher brings to the analysis a predetermined set of analytical categories; the focus of attention is essentially linguistic or non-linguistic (Nunan, 1992). Hence, conversation analysis, which adopts naturalistic methods of generating data and embraces basically spoken language to analyze interpretively (Nunan, 1992), is an obvious choice for this research project in order to answer the main research questions. The following section explains conversation analysis in greater detail.

2.6.2 Conversation analysis (CA)

According to Have (2007), CA actually developed as a kind of sociology where face-to-face interactions are recorded and analyzed to look for interaction order, categorization, and sequential organisation. However, linguists and researchers in communication may have a slightly different concept of CA's subject matter, and different technical expertise and vocabulary, than sociologists and anthropologists, whose orientation has a stronger ethnomethodology (Have, 2007). In line with Mondada (2013), conversation analysts use audio and video recordings of natural occurring activities to study the details of action as they are temporally and sequentially arranged, moment-by-moment, by the participants within the very context of their activity. CA aims to describe the organisation of ordinary social activities, such as taking turns-at-talk or opening a telephone call (Mondada, 2013). Furthermore, CA aims to uncover the natural living order of social activities as they are endogenously organised in ordinary life, without the exogenous intervention of a researcher imposing topics and tasks or displacing the context of action (Mondada, 2013). Additionally, CA is the study of talk and other forms of conduct, including the nature of the body in gesture, posture, and facial expression, together with in-progress

activities in all the settings and in all the forms of talk in interactions (Schegloff et al., 2002).

Additionally, according to Fox et al. (2013), CA and linguistics have come from separate directions: while CA has arisen from an ethnomethodological interest in how a human constructs social order, linguistics began as a discipline concerning itself with regularities in the patterning of linguistics form. They further explain that there has been a growing interest on the part of linguists in the details of talk as interaction, and a corresponding increase in interest on the part of CA practitioners in the ways that linguistic resources shape interactional practices. This increasing interdisciplinary interest has led to an appreciation of the predominance of linguistic forms in human social interaction, and to attempts to grasp its deeply dynamic, situated and reflexive nature (Fox et al., 2013).

In addition, Antaki (2011) notes another aspect of CA is the study of how social action is brought about through the close organisation of talk, while applied conversation analysis has two different meanings. Firstly, there is the application of CA to the talk of an institution, such as a school or doctor's office, in order to discover its workings, and secondly CA research can suggest improvements in the service that such an institution offers (Antaki, 2011). Consequently, CA is a close examination of language in interaction in order to answer such concrete questions. In fact, CA provides new and more microscopic ways of thinking about social exchange, to establish a detailed, coherent, integrated catalogue of the normative sequences of language in interaction, and the actions that conversational regularities involve (Antaki, 2011).

So far, this section has focused on conversation analysis. Before proceeding to an ethnographic perspective, it is necessary to clarify the CA approach by referring to Vasileios's (2016) study. This researcher explained that CA generally concerns the linear organisation of conversation, where the perspective of how a previous utterance determines the subsequent utterance and how this subsequent utterance shapes the meaning of the following utterance, and so on. He continues by explaining that the unfolding nature of conversation dynamically constructs the social context, while the basic concern of the interlocutors is to become involved in a communicative activity and to reach mutual understanding. Furthermore, CA pays attention to how the

participants to an interaction comprehend one another's utterances in their communicative exchanges and how they co-construct communicative activity. Consequently, CA is interested in the manner by which meaning is interactively co-constructed and in how the interlocutors' inferences are marked during interactional encounters.

For this reason, CA is an important analytic framework for intercultural communication research, owing to the fact that the CA emphasises the significance of how interaction is negotiated (Vasileios, 2016).

2.6.3 Ethnographic perspective

Ethnography is the non-manipulative study of the cultural characteristics of a group in real-world rather than laboratory settings, utilizing ethnographic techniques and providing a sociocultural interpretation of the research data (Nunan, 1992). Ethnographic research also looks at the positioning of research participants, not only by the other interlocutors they interact with in their natural settings, but also by how the researcher herself positions the participants and their behaviors—and herself (Duff, 2010). To obtain access to a research site or community, research by Levon (2013) suggested the most common method for ethnographic research is the friend-of-a-friend technique, where the researcher is brought into a community by a mutual friend who is already a member of the community. Consequently, the other members of the community will be less wary of the researcher's appearance (Levon, 2013).

Regarding data collection, after obtaining access to the research site, there are basically four ways, comprising participant observation, interviews, self-recordings, and collecting artifacts. To observe the participants, the researcher can act either as an active member of a community or as an external observer. However, it is inevitable to discover gaps in understanding when the researcher observes a community other than her own (Levon, 2013). Those gaps that the ethnographic researcher should stay alert for are called rich points (Agar, 2006). To explain rich points as concerns language learning, Agar (2006) emphasises the thickness and wealth of an expression`s meaning that comes along with it, where a rich point can generally appear in any communicative situation, as a non-verbal or verbal expression, demonstrating that a translation can be difficult between two diverse cultures, between different languages and dialects or in

general, and between people who share diverse beliefs, assumptions and ideologies. As a result, employing field notes to record the process of coming to an understanding is necessary, and it is particularly useful to note down while the memories are fresh, in view of the fact that it is often impossible to take notes during interactions (Levon, 2013). Nevertheless, when taking notes may not help record interaction details, recording is an excellent idea in ethnographic research. Additionally, interviews can be conducted after personal rapport with the participants is established.

Moreover, another option for ethnographic data collection is self-recordings (Levon, 2013). In doing so, the research participants create a sense of becoming research assistants. Although self-recording is a direct method, since the researcher simply gives away a set of recorders to the research participants for them to record their interactions, it is likely that insider knowledge will be lost and that irrelevant data can be overwhelming (Levon, 2013). Therefore, it is more practical to provide clear instructions to the participants, for example, specific events the participants should record or specific locations at which the participants should record.

The final way to collect data for this type of research is artifacts collection. As described by Levon (2013), artifacts can include images, broadcasts and media relevant to the research participants' lives. These artifacts are important when missing pieces of information are needed.

2.6.4 Interviews and questionnaires (non-experimental surveys)

Basically, there are two fundamental forms of research interviews: structured and unstructured (Brinkmann, 2020). Structured interviews are, essentially, verbally administered questionnaires, in which a list of likely questions are asked, with little or no variation and with no scope for follow-up questions to responses that warrant further elaboration. Consequently, they are relatively quick and easy to administer and may be of particular use if clarification of certain questions are required or if there are likely to be literacy or numeracy problems with the respondents. However, they only allow for limited participant responses and are of little use if details are needed. In contrast, unstructured interviews do not reflect any theories or ideas and are performed with little or no organisation. Unstructured interviews are usually very time-consuming and difficult to manage, and to participate in, as the lack of predetermined

interview questions provides little guidance on what to talk about. Thus, their use is generally only considered where significant details are required. Lastly, there is also a form of semi-structured interviews, which consist of several key questions to help as a guideline. Additionally, semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer or interviewee to diverge in order to pursue an idea or response in more detail. The present research employs semi-structured interviews.

Questionnaires (non-experimental surveys), which have existed for a long time, starting from the field of sociology, are used to measure attitudes, opinions, or achievements, in fact for a number of variables in natural settings (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005). The present study adopts a questionnaire survey for data collection, with the intent of generalizing from a sample to a population (Creswell, 2009). The questionnaire is adapted from previous research studies related to attitudes toward ELF and needs for ELF. For example, the questionnaire's dimensions consider the aspect of correctness, acceptability for international communication, pleasantness, and the research participant's own familiarity (Jenkins, 2007) with respective accents, such as British, American, Indian, Filipino, Singaporean, Vietnam and Thai. After that, to ensure the validity of the survey questionnaire, a panel of three experts evaluated the questionnaire items for content validity. The index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) was employed and analyzed; the score of each item should be higher than 0.5 to confirm that the questionnaire is correctly constructed. Additionally, revisions were made based on the experts' comments. For the reliability, the questionnaire was administered to 20 target participants of the study. Then, it was analyzed to establish the reliability of the instrument in measuring participants' attitudes and needs. In addition, face validity is examined with this non-sample group to determine any possible difficulties in comprehension. The results were used to improve the clarity of the question items, including the format, instructions, and order of the items.

To conclude this section, the decision to adopt a specific research design is founded on the nature of the research problem or issue being addressed, the researcher(s)' personal experiences, and the audience of the study (Creswell, 2009). As a result, this research project fundamentally uses interpretivism, specifically conversation analysis. As a consequence, data collection is mostly conducted in

natural settings where the research participants interact with each other without manipulation or intervention. In addition, to access data from the perspective of ethnography, which may not be comprehensively conducted due to the nature of the setting, the researcher, however, attempts to obtain the participants' demographic information and attitudes toward ELF by further inquiry after each interaction is completed. Moreover, at their convenience, the research participants are invited to take part in the interviews. In doing so, more thorough and in-depth data can be collected.

2.7 Related Previous Studies

Extensive ELF studies have been conducted in the past two decades. To limit the scope, only related studies will be discussed here.

Mauranen (2006) opposed the idea that ELF communication is vulnerable to misunderstanding due to the speakers' imperfect competency. She indicated that only a few studies of misunderstanding in ELF communication had been conducted, and noted that the corpus presented was derived from limited and different social and linguistic backgrounds. Therefore, her study explored the use of English as a lingua franca in a familiar situation present around the globe, i.e., an academic setting. The data were collected at the English Department of Tampere University from the participants in international degree programmes. Most participants were European, with different backgrounds, ages, and genders, performing naturally authentic spoken discourse via an international conference and workshop and in thesis defenses with international examiners.

In this study, it was found that misunderstandings were rare in an ELF academic setting. She did not limit her findings to only retrospective misunderstandings, but also expanded the scope to prospective ones. The results showed that straightforward misunderstandings were not very diverse. The first strategy used to signal misunderstanding was specific questions, followed by repetition of problematic items and indirect signaling of misunderstanding. The participants co-constructed expressions with additional checks, explanations, or clarifications. To prevent misunderstandings,

confirmation check was adopted, together with self-repair, interactive repair, and explanation. Misunderstandings in an ELF academic setting were therefore not as common as originally expected. Most participants showed effort to prevent misunderstandings by using self-repairs, co-construction, repetition, and clarification.

Kaur's (2010 study aimed to investigate the process of shared understanding among different lingua-cultural background groups whose English was not their first language. The researcher examined a corpus obtained from 22 participants from 13 different first language and cultural backgrounds to see what features are adopted to reach understanding among these interactants. A transcription was made from 15 hours of data recorded from naturally occurring spoken interaction in ELF without the presence of the researcher. The micro-analysis showed four prominent interactional features were adopted by the participants to reach mutual understanding and to repair non-understanding. The first is *repetition*, which is used to refer to the restatement of a proceeding turn. In this study, repetition is adopted to confirm understanding and to give the recipient a chance to hear one more time. Secondly, *paraphrase* also plays a significant a role in a repair sequence when the recipient showed signs of non-understandings. The speaker paraphrase, simplify, and elaborate until both interlocutors reach a shared understanding. Thirdly, *requests for understanding* also appear in this study. Most participants used '*you mean..*' '*sentence ended with yeah?*' (rising tone) and a concluding statement functioning as a question (with rising tone) to confirm whether or not he or she understands correctly. Fourth, a *request for clarification* can be seen in the form of wh-questions, or one single question words, or alternative questions. The study found these strategies are more common in non-native to non-native conversation rather than between native speakers. Also, a lack of linguistic competency could be of little concern if the interlocutors are able to use such practices to reach mutual understanding.

Pickering's (2009) study aimed to acquire better understanding about the use of intonation as a pragmatic strategy in ELF interactions. By adopting the discourse pragmatic concept of intonation introduced by Brazil (1997), the investigation was commenced with an assessment of the prevailing knowledge regarding the aspect of intonational structures in NS (native speaker)–based interaction and followed by an

analysis of ELF discourse data. A 17-hour data set was obtained from 4 native speakers and 25 proficient and non-proficient ELF speakers with various first languages in an academic setting. To examine the prosodic features of NNES speech, the participants were paired up and assigned to conduct interactive tasks, including a dialogue reading (NES-NNES), a giving information gap task (NES-NNES), a spot-the- difference information gap task (NNES-NNES), and an informal conversation (NES-NNES). All interactions were recorded, using both audio and video.

The author suggested that pitch movement and relative pitch level had an impact on intelligibility and so on interactional success in ELF discourse. Apart from the tonic stress placement, ELF interlocutors interpreted the tone choice (rise, fall or level) and key choice (high, mid or low) as meaningful cues during their interactions. According to multiple examples from the recorded interactive tasks, a misplaced tonic stress resulted in confusion between the ELF speakers. The use of tone choice, i.e., rising tone and falling tone, assisted the interlocutors in reaching a successful negotiation of meaning. Additionally, key choice was adopted to signal trouble spots as well as to navigate the resolution to a conversation.

The next research study focused on the analysis of the communication strategies used among the related parties of English as a Lingua Franca Medium Instruction (ELFMI) in Finland. Hahl (2010) pointed out that in an EMI teacher education programme, students training to be teachers in the future are from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. During the training years, both lecturers and students share and negotiate shared understandings together. Although all of them are capable of speaking English, reaching mutual understanding sometimes requires more than linguistic competency, especially in the context of multi-racial, cultural, socio, and lingua-related groups. The researcher elaborated on the three steps of successful communication: *intelligible*, which means the words are clearly heard; *comprehensible*, *which* refers to a clear meaning that is recognizable; and *interpretable*, which is the final stage, when the recipient understands the speaker's actual intention. The results reported that the strategies used in repairing sequences were as follows: clarification of request, repetition of topic, additional information,

signaling non-understanding, rephrase, mediation, and finally reaching mutual understanding.

In research by Lewandowska (2019), a case study was carried out to examine the use of communicative strategies among ELF students adopting Dörnyei's 1995 theoretical framework. The participants of this study were six university students studying in Poland. An asynchronous structured online interview was employed as the instrument of this study. The results showed that as regards difficulties in ELF communication, the most common problem of miscommunication was vocabulary, followed by the pace of delivery and intelligible accents. Regarding communicative strategies, the participants often used avoidance strategies when the topics of the talks were deemed personally too complicated. They also frequently used compensation strategies, such as gestures, code-switching and asking for clarification, in the case of experiencing vocabulary problems. Moreover, they also used stalling tactics, as in filled pauses. The results suggested that they did not prefer certain strategies that require manipulating the language. Instead, they tended to prefer strategies which are simple and limited. It can be stated that using communicative strategies effectively is deemed vital to effective communication in ELF settings and that it is important to adopt communicative strategies in teaching ELF and to enable the learners to explore various strategies that may lead to successful communicative exchanges.

Seigel (2018) studied repair sequence, which is the process in which interlocutors try to fix what is heard or said in the event that it is unclear to them, and this can be achieved by repeating, asking questions, simplifying, translating or code-switching. This study collected a 37-hour corpus from four Japanese students talking with 32 international students from 10 countries, all on the same campus. The participants filmed themselves with a video recorder. They chose the topics on their own, and the contents were produced naturally. The data were analyzed in two ways, firstly by using standard conversation analysis, called emic analysis, and secondly by etic analysis. The results demonstrated three cases showing superficial intersubjectivity. In the first case, the Japanese student did not understand the word *vinegar,* and a Vietnamese student gave the wrong meaning, and the Japanese student believed her and continued the topic. In the second case, both interlocutors could not share an accurate meaning of

cute culture. They used two terms, thinking they had the same meaning, but actually they did not attain mutual comprehension. In the last case, a Japanese student pronounced *pickles* incorrectly, so the hearer thought she meant another thing. These three cases show repair sequence via asking for clarification, explanation for more detail, and guessing, but still, all of them attained superficial intersubjectivity. The researcher also discussed the results. Speakers with higher English competency usually dominated the conversation. The researcher thus pointed out positioning was connected with superficial intersubjectivity in ELF interaction.

Thompson (2015) suggested that ELF is not only varied in terms of the backgrounds of speakers and their Englishes, but that there also exist varied ways of using it in different situational and occasional contexts. He set up three ELF communication settings in Japan. The data were collected by audio recording of natural interactions. Interviews were conducted afterward, asking the participants to comment about their communicative skills, about what features facilitate or disrupt their communication, and about the most outstanding language features for them. The data collected in the first setting were elicited from a meeting or from small group discussions, in the second setting from discussions and presentations, and in the third setting from discussions and role-plays. The participants were from a variety of regions: East Eurasia, West Eurasia, Central Eurasia, North and South America, and Africa. The results reported that four features were frequently used in the three ELF settings.

The first is *infrequently explicit interaction*, in which the participants rarely showed clear verbal interaction to close their turns, normally appearing in the form of laughter, silence, long pauses, or certain actions like taking notes. The second one is repeating their conversation partners' words. Some participants repeated their conversation partners' words to confirm what had been said, like *'You're not decided?' 'Decided.'* The third one is to address an in-group person differently from those in out-groups**.** For instance, the Japanese word '*san*' was used only with peers, and other positions were addressed using English titles. The fourth one is the use of modality markers while playing a dominant role in a conversation. The terms mostly used are *'kind of*' and '*like*', and they were most frequently used when the speakers were dominant in a discussion. The researcher concludes that ELF characteristics are not based on each

person's sociolinguistic or cultural factors, but that they normally rely on individuals and situations which can be changed. He also indicated that there are no precise ways to rate good or bad ELF practices. The language practice that can be considered 'good' must simply be able to serve its purpose.

Next, Kanchanapoomi, Trakulkasemsuk, and Keyuravong, (2016) conducted research to examine the communication patterns used between three Thai and three Burmese professionals in the glass and aluminum construction industry. Six participants, with ages ranging from 32 to 60 years old, were selected based on their capability in speaking English, association with the Thai and Burmese construction business, and engagement in professional meetings. While conducting business dealings, audio recording was adopted as a research tool, along with participant observation in four different settings. These were combined with field notes taken from observation, meaning accumulated recordings of four hours were transcribed and analyzed. The settings consisted of an international airport, a company van, a restaurant, and an office. Several types of conversational phenomenon were detected. Act sequences comprise expressive acts which were clearly demonstrated in all settings. Interactions were conducted in a polite and accommodating manner in all settings. Friendliness was overwhelmingly present in all conversations. Norms of interaction tended to be adjusted based on the change of setting. Cultural aspects and jokes were shared in most conversations. Small talk was adopted for relationship building, while business talk was adopted to achieve the primary purpose of the visit. In conclusion, the pattern of business discourse between Thai and Burmese professionals is worth exploring as it is different from those studied in European or East Asian contexts.

McLellan's (2017) study delved into the negotiation of meaning and attuning in ELF interactions among Southeast Asians. Based on the analysis of two datasets, the BBC World Service television Q&A panel and the ACE corpus, it aimed to identify if there was any mixing, meshing, or alteration of languages other than English in the ELF communication, as well as to explore significant dissimilarities between Outer Circle and Expanding Circle ELF users. It was found that despite the questions being asked by a Cambodian participant contained many of the elements of intelligibility,

attunement was essential for audience comprehension. Due to the influence of his native language, Khmer, the speaker was likely to omit the pronunciation of the final consonant. Further, a slight syntactic deviation was found in a Malaysian panellist's answer. The deviation did not affect the level of intelligibility, but the audience members had to attune in order to understand what was being said.

Accent attunement and negotiation of meaning were applied collaboratively by a Bruneian and a Lao student in order to attain intelligibility. It was suggested that code-mixing occasionally featured in ELF interactions among Southeast Asians to obtain accuracy and sustain intelligibility. Moreover, meaning negotiation strategies and attunement were commonly adopted by users from both the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle of World Englishes.

Inkeaw (2018) conducted an interview-based research study regarding perceptions toward ELF, communication barriers and communication strategies in ten staff of an international golf tournament held in Thailand. The participants included five personnel from the local Thai working team, namely three junior managerial level staff and two event officers. The other five participants were members of the organizing team, comprising two event managers, one from India and the other from Germany, and three event supervisors, two from Singapore and one from Taiwan. The analysis of the data revealed that one participant reported that he or she was uncomfortable with his or her English and would speak English to another party only in the situations where it was required. On the other hand, for the participants who were from Singapore, Germany, India and Taiwan, all their answers emphasised their confidence in speaking English with other interlocutors, as English is commonly practiced in the Outer Circle or often used in their home countries. For Taiwan and Germany, although they are not included in the list of states where English is used as a second language, English is still widely spoken and used for various purposes. None of the organizing team members were bothered with the distinction between Standard English and varieties of English. They simply communicated naturally as English was part of their daily lives. Also, none of the local Thai working team members were confident at employing English with their interlocutors. Some of them lacked confidence at

producing English due to their Thai accent. They expected that it would be best if they could speak in a native-like style.

A mixed method research study conducted by Suwannasom (2019) with Naresuan University graduate students studied intercultural strategies in ELF communication and elicited their opinion about ELF communication by employing a questionnaire and interviews for data collection. During the interviews, the participants were encouraged to share their experiences of interacting with people from diverse cultural backgrounds. In the interview stage, all participants were encouraged to contribute stories and reflections, not only when they encountered communication problems, misunderstandings, or difficulties, but also regarding their techniques to overcome intercultural and linguistic issues. The findings revealed most used intercultural strategies, include clarifying or explaining their cultural terms or topics, selecting conversation topics of shared common interest or background, and selecting standard vocabulary or easy expressions. The findings also suggested that research participants were challenged in terms of attempting to use idioms in conversations, such as 'do me a favor' and 'let's call it a day'. With regard to the characteristics of ELF communications, most of the participants agreed that grammatical and structural correctness were not the major concern in intercultural conversations, stating that they had less focus on grammatical correctness, used simplified language and occasionally used each other's mother tongue to enhance communication. Apart from this, the findings noted that strategies for enhancing ELF communication were employed, namely *explore and expose*, *acquire and accept*, and *accommodate and adjust*.

English is the second language in the Philippines, and it is more oriented towards American English (AmE). However, there are some differences between the grammar used in Filipino spoken English and in Standard American English (SAE). Therefore, Smith (2018) investigated which differences could potentially cause unsuccessful communication. He observed English language use in teacher-applicant interviews and writing; new teacher training conversations and teaching observations; complaints by Korean language students; teacher quality assurance observations and spot checks; and the weekly writing of 200 applicants, trainees and teachers at an online English language center. The results indicate that differences in article use, collocations,

contractions, pluralization of mass nouns, question formation, and verb tense could potentially lead to miscommunication.

Moreover, several studies have investigated ELT textbooks and pragmatic issues. However, there has been a dearth of studies focusing on how communication strategies were incorporated into textbooks. Hence, a study by Vettorel (2018) intended to examine whether ELT materials at Italian secondary schools incorporated activities oriented to communication strategies. The materials investigated were twenty ELT course books published from 1991 to 2015. Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell's models were employed to define the research questions and the analytical criteria. In analyzing the materials, communication strategies were classified into four macro-areas. It was found that most course books consisted of one activity for all areas. Specifically, appeals for help was incorporated in the books; as for meaning negotiation, requests for repetition, clarification and confirmation checks were presented. Moreover, responses and fillers were found to be in course books, while existing achievement strategies included paraphrasing, approximation, description, using synonyms and non-verbal moves. Despite the presence of those communicative strategies in course books, they were not systematically presented; the strategies more often emerged as study skills and exam preparation skills without any examples and did not enable students to have opportunities to use them actively in practices. This indicates a lack of sufficient attention being paid to the roles of communication strategies in ELF settings. Thus, it is implied that communication strategies in ELF contexts are not properly dealt with in ELT course-books. More attention to communication strategies is needed because they serve as tools which allow ELF learners to communicate effectively and be prepared to communicate in varying contexts; improving course books will also make the materials more suitable and relevant to language use in real-world settings.

Earlier, Shaw (1981) made some insightful findings about the needs and feelings of Asian final-year university students and the position of English from a study of 170 Singaporean students, 342 Indians, and 313 Thais. Although English has a prominent role in the education systems of these three countries, each has various official languages; for example, Singapore has four official languages. The results revealed

that 64% of the Singaporeans and 67% of the Indians attended EMI universities, while only 2% of Thais did. Moreover, half of the Singaporeans and 38% of the Indians also spoke English at home when they were young, while only about 3% of Thais made the same claim.

Kaypak and Ortactepe (2014), in their study of 53 Turkish Erasmus exchange students who studied abroad in different ELF countries in Europe, found that after the sojourn, they better understood the importance of practicing English and were more aware of the role English plays worldwide. Moreover, the students' perceptions of the relationship between English and ELF culture, practice and grammar were reshaped by their social life experiences. They discovered that they did not have to depend on cultural knowledge to communicate in English and that they could excel in learning English without having to know about the native English-speaking countries' cultures. They also began to acknowledge the importance of practice for the betterment of their English language skills and felt more willing to take opportunities to use their existing knowledge about English so as to maintain their communication with the people of the host countries. Furthermore, the participants recognized the global role of English as an essential means of communication. More than this, their communication experiences in various ELF countries gave them new views about the concepts of fluency and accuracy. Unlike experiences they had had before their stays, when the courses were finished, their English learning focus changed from form to meaning. They also started to assign more value to fluency, as they surmised that fluency was what was needed to have successful interaction.

Furthermore, Virkkula and Nikula (2010) carried out a case study with seven Finnish engineering students on identity construction in ELF contexts. In addition to discovering that students developed new social and linguistic resources, the researchers noted that the students were more motivated to speak, emotional obstacles to using English were reduced, and the students developed a feeling that it would be possible for them to be successful in their language learning. The findings suggest that if there is an opportunity to use English with other people whose mother tongues are not English, it may lead to a feeling of being a more competent and self-confident speaker of English.

Next, a study by Yujobo, et al. (2016) sought to shed some light on students' beliefs and their usage of communication strategies. Forty-seven students in Education majors in two ELF classes in the spring semester of 2015 constituted the sample for this study. Pre-project and post-project surveys, group work, tutorial sessions and Focus Group Discussion (FGD) sessions were implemented to collect data. The survey findings showed that there was a considerable increase in the participants' awareness in all aspects; they felt that they were able to communicate more effectively using strategies and that PBL improved group collaboration, critical thinking skills, and presentation skills, as well as increased their learning motivation. The results from tutorial sessions demonstrated that the students used a variety of communication and discursive strategies, e.g. repetition, paraphrasing, seeking clarification, use of specific terms, and cooperative completion of utterances. The results indicated that the group project promoted a collaborative learning environment and exposed learners to various communication strategies simultaneously; it enabled them to improve their communication abilities and provided them with opportunities to exchange ideas collaboratively.

Next, a qualitative study was conducted by Baker (2009) on seven fourth-year international undergraduates majoring in English at a university in Thailand and found that the skills the participants needed most were those that allowed them to be understood and to successfully negotiate meaning. He reported that the participants did not have to focus on knowledge of either American or British culture, but rather needed to use English in ways by which their interlocutors could decode messages easily and clearly. This was likely to be helpful for English language learners to improve their language fluency as they reported feeling less worried and more relaxed when using the target language (Baker, 2009).

A 2016 study by Monklom aimed to investigate conversation strategies used by, and apprehension occurring between, 20 NES teachers and 139 Thai EFL teachers in Phayao Province. The results reported that English native teachers showed a lower level of apprehension. Thai EFL teachers expressed more anxiety and stress while communicating due to a lack of confidence. The communication strategy most used by both groups was body language. There was a significant correlation between

apprehension and strategies among Thai EFL teacher but none in the NES group. The implications of the study as stated by the researcher are that the results can help Thai teachers to be better prepared and become successful when engaging in cross-cultural communication.

To sum up, the findings of the aforementioned studies suggest that learning and using English in ELF settings may provide a number of benefits to English language learners, users, and educators that might serve to better situate them within a global context that is increasingly relying on English as a lingua franca.

2.8 Summary

This chapter examined the nature of the English as an international language, including how it spreads. The literature review highlighted the key features of this study, pragmatic strategies in intercultural communication, particularly in English as a lingua franca. By and large, the chapter showed that the strategies by which EFL speakers make their interactions intelligible are varied. For the reason of scoping the research, the strategies that will primarily be taken into account are key concepts for pragmatic strategies in intercultural communication. The next section of the chapter reviewed attitudes toward ELF and the need for ELF, and a great deal of previous research on ideology, perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes toward ELF reveals that most ELF speakers accept English varieties and can interact well in various ELF settings. The section on methodological approaches highlighted the principal approaches and methods for this research study, while the last part of the chapter explored previous related studies. All in all, a large volume of published studies have described the role of ELF in different communities, and pragmatic strategies in ELF have been comprehensively investigated.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology for the investigation of the use of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) between IR officials and their international visitors in order to systematically investigate the answers to the research questions. The first section begins with the clarification of the research design, including the sites and participants, the collection process, and the forms of data analysis. Subsequent sections describe the data obtained for this study, which covers the demographic data of this study from 1) conversations between Thai international relations officials (TS) and international students and staff visitors (IV), 2) questionnaire respondents, and 3) interview participants. Finally, the research process is summarised and concluded.

3.1 Research Design

The research includes eight steps. It began with the literature review and with talking with people who are involved with this particular community. Then, the researcher drew up the outline and constructed the research questions. In addition, applicable methodological approaches were chosen. Once the data were collected, they were analyzed. The findings were then discussed and reported.

3.2 Research Sites and Research Participants

3.2.1 Research sites

In order to be sure to answer the proposed research questions, conversation analysis, an ethnographic perspective, interviews, and a questionnaire method were adopted. To obtain data for this study, the research sites comprised four universities in Northeast Thailand from four different provinces. More specifically, the international relations (IR) offices of each university and their faculties comprised the research sites.

3.2.2 Research participants

Regarding the research participants, Thai IR officials from each university were invited and recruited from the IR offices. Some of them worked for the central IR office of the university, and some of them for the faculties' IR units. They were full-time staff, mainly responsible for staffing the IR service desk. In terms of the spread of the population, the faculties' IR units were selected for several reasons. The first important factor was the distribution of the disciplines, as according to the system operating in most Thai higher education institutions, faculties are divided into three main disciplines, namely Science and Technology, Medical Sciences, and Humanities and Social Sciences. The second important factor was the availability of the IR staff. Some universities manage IR through centralized IR offices. Therefore, no IR staff are stationed at the faculties. At the beginning, it was estimated that 40 Thai IR staff in total could be recruited for this research project.

The other group of research participants comprised the interlocutors of the IR staff. These comprised the international visitors who visited the IR officials' service desks. They were recruited from the international academics, both staff and students, at these particular universities, and they originally resided in countries other than Thailand. The research project was expected to acquire from each university 30 interactions between Thai IR officials and their international visitors.

3.3 Data Collection Process

The international relations (IR) offices of the four universities were the research sites for collecting the data for analysis. First, the IR offices were contacted by the researcher visiting the offices in person and introducing the research objectives. Then, the data collection methods were explained. At this stage, letters requesting permission for data collection and ethics-related documents were prepared and sent out from the School of Foreign Languages, at Suranaree University of Technology. These letters invited the officials of the IR offices to participate in the study. Only if they agreed to participate could their conversations be recorded. Subsequently, the research participants were invited for interviews at their convenience in order to

provide them with more information. A wider population was asked to respond to a questionnaire survey. With regard to quantitative data collection, a questionnaire was sent out electronically to reach all the population.

The main stages in compiling data for this research were documentation, conversation records, interviews, and questionnaire surveys. The following subsection provides detailed explanations of the methods, tools, and reliability and validity.

3.3.1 Documentation

This was an initial stage for data collection. Information from websites, leaflets, and brochures, including organisation charts, job descriptions, and statistics, were acquired. Then, the university personnel offices and the IR officials were contacted by phone and email to obtain unpublished information, such as policies for the usage of English by university staff and the nature of staff training. Informal conversations with IR staff were arranged to obtain more demographic data and general information. In this process, notes were taken. The purpose of obtaining supporting data from documents is to provide background, to help explain the attitudes and behavior of those in the group, and to verify specific details that participants supply (Shenton, 2004). Triangulation of data sources is one way to increase the reliability of the research. Another way which can be conducted is the development of prior familiarity with the culture of the participants' organisations before the first data collection occurs. The researcher in fact visited the offices, made a few phone calls, and spent about 20–40 minutes talking with the IR staff. This was in line with, the concept of preliminary visits in order to prolong engagement, as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

3.3.2 Recording conversations

First, the researcher visited the sites (IR offices) to informally introduce the study. In fact, the-friend-of-a-friend technique was also used since a few staff members at IR offices were acquaintances of the researcher. Subsequently, formal letters for permission to collect data and ethical document were dispatched. Once permission was granted, appointments were made with the Thai IR research participants (the officials) to introduce the study. Then, as part of the process of orienting the research participants, the objectives of the study were explained, as was process of data

collection. The officials were then trained in how to use the audio recorder and when to record. This was because the study mainly employed a self-recording method that aimed to record face-to-face encounters between the Thai IR staff and international visitors in a specific genuine setting, i.e., the IR offices.

The recordings were expected to be naturalistic conversations. Therefore, once the Thai IR staff greeted the international visitors, the research project was introduced. An information sheet was provided and briefly explained. The international visitors read through the information sheet, and a consent form was also provided before they started their main conversations. However, it was recognized that some international visitors may have been in a hurry or have felt uncomfortable with their conversation being recorded. Alternatively, after they completed their interactions, they were informed about the project. If they agreed to participate, their conversation was kept for analysis. If they did not want to contribute, the conversation was immediately deleted. In fact, after they completed their interactions at the IR officer's desk or counter, the researcher usually appeared to introduce the project. Then, that particular international visitor was invited for interview at a time and place convenient to them.

Subsequently, the recordings of their conversations were systematically transcribed. Then, the transcripts were coded and marked up. The transcriptions were analyzed using an adapted framework of analysis, which was explained in the Data Analysis section. In terms of a reliability check, the inter-coding method was employed. It was found from the example coded transcriptions that there were 15 similarities and 6 differences in the codes, which constituted 71.4 % reliability in the coded transcriptions.

In doing conversation analysis with a small number of specific individuals in a specialist environment, it is very difficult to prove that the research findings and conclusions are applicable to other situations and populations in a way that is similar to quantitative research findings based on randomly selected samples, which can more readily be generalized. Hence, for qualitative research, it is the researcher's responsibility to provide sufficient contextual information about the research site to assist the reader with generalizing. Consequently, thick description of the phenomenon

under investigation is essential in order to enable the reader to compare the instances of the reported phenomenon (Shenton, 2004).

3.3.3 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was deployed electronically by using the Survey Monkey platform. This was employed to facilitate both the participants, by providing them with convenient access to the questionnaire, and the researcher, by decreasing the cost of travel and travel time. Moreover, this platform helped calculate the data automatically. However, a paper-based questionnaire version was also prepared to provide an option for the participants.

Also, a questionnaire survey which focused on a participant's attitudes towards ELF was adapted to obtain quantitative data. The questionnaire provided clarification and detailed data on the participants' attitudes towards ELF. The questionnaire was basically adapted from Wang and Ho (2013) and contained two main parts: ELF acceptance and English learning models. The first part included three subsections, i.e., English users, English varieties, and ELF acceptance. The second part covered aspects of native speakers as models for learning and comprehension and understanding (see Appendix 1).

Regarding the validity and reliability of the questionnaire survey, the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC), determined by obtaining scores from three experts, was used to check. The three invited experts were experienced-teachers and researchers in the fields of applied linguistics, English language teaching, and English as a lingua franca. In fact, both the questionnaire survey and the interview questions were also pilot-tested with a similar or the same group of research participants to ensure the questions were clear and measure what they were intended to measure, and to ensure it produces almost identical results in repeated trials. To clarify IOC conduct, 10 out of 24 items scored at 0.33, which was lower than 0.5, while reserved items scored equal to or higher than 0.5. Therefore, specific items as well as other items which were given comments on for improvement by the three experts were revised.

3.3.4 Interviews

As previously mentioned, after the encounters between the Thai IR officials and international visitors were complete and the visitors left the IR desk, if they agreed

to provide more information through the interviews, detailed questions regarding demographic data, ELF attitudes and needs for ELF, and obstacles and solutions were asked during additional interviews at a time and place suitable to them. See Appendix B for further details of the interview questions. They were given consent forms to be signed for face-to-face interviews, but for telephone and online interviews they could either consent verbally or sign the form electronically. Small tokens of appreciation (stationery sets) were also provided.

For the reliability of the research, in particular the interview sessions, there were tactics to help ensure honesty in participants when contributing data. For example, the participants were provided with opportunities to refuse to participate in the project so as for data collection to involve only those who were willing to take part so that they provided data freely. In addition, the researcher had to establish a rapport at the opening of the interview by stating that there were no right answers to the questions that would be asked (Shenton, 2004). Moreover, an on-the-spot check was conducted by the participants. Here, the researcher randomly asked the participants to read the transcripts for the accuracy of the data at the end or afterwards.

To illustrate the interaction collection framework, the diagram below shows the prospective interaction between the Thai IR staff (TS) and the international student/staff visitor (IV) at the IR office. Throughout the study, TS will be used to stand for Thai IR staff while IV will stand for international student and staff visitor.

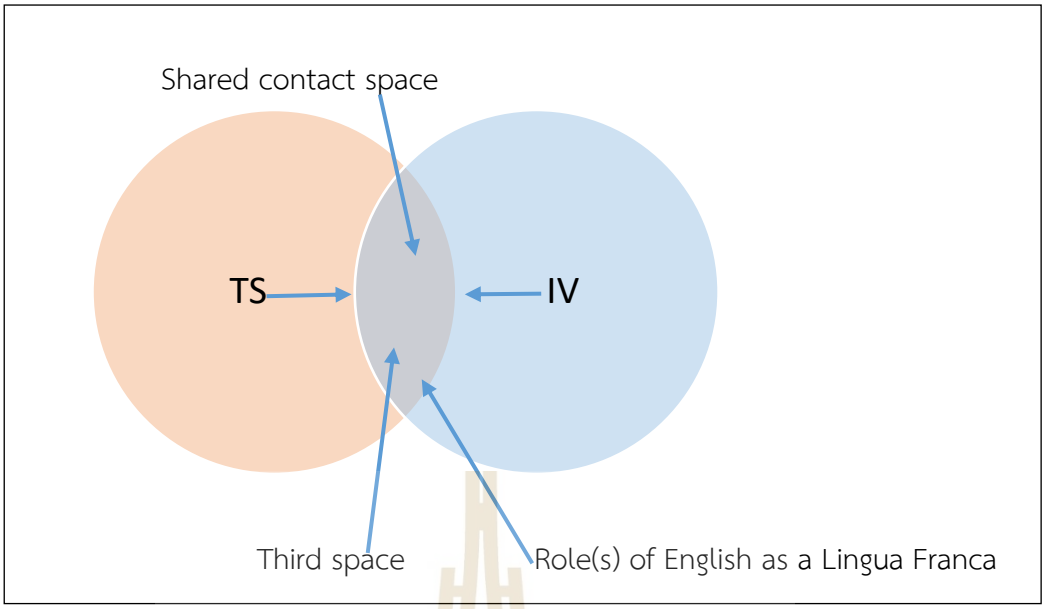


Figure 3.1 Interaction collection framework

TSs who work as IR officials routinely work during office hours in their offices, where they perform both paperwork and sometimes simultaneously face-to-face interactions with IVs paying a visit to their offices or help desks. In this particular circumstance, TSs are required to use ELF while the IVs of various ethnicities also use ELF, meaning natural conversations data can be collected by recording interactions between a TS and an IV.

From the above diagram, when the TS and IV meet, ELF is needed in their shared contact space, where the themes of their interactions are varied. The use of ELF plays a vital role in this kind of encounter. Both interlocutors may employ different pragmatic strategies to negotiate meaning. This shared contact space is rich in terms of ELF research data. Moreover, the third space as described by Bhabha (1990) is a hybridity of being an in-between situation of two original cultures that emerges, and an individual having two or more ethnic identities demonstrates hybridity and can be studied in this kind of specific environment, too.

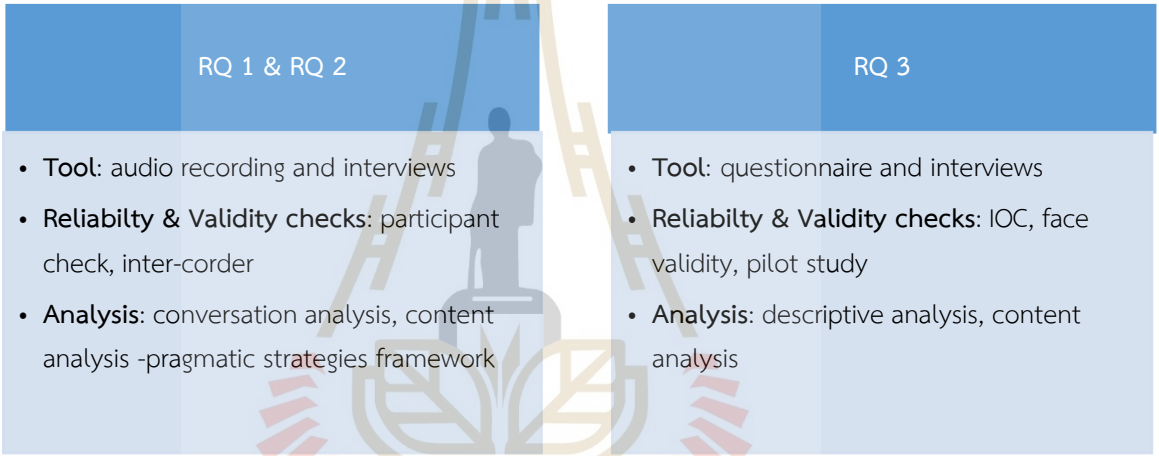
When considering the three main research questions, restated below, the diagram that follows illustrates the method, together with the instruments and their reliability and validity checks, as well as the forms of data analysis.

Research question 1: What pragmatic strategies do Thai international relations staff and international visitors use for meaning negotiations in a Thai university ELF context?

Research question 2: Do these pragmatic strategies vary according to whether or not the visitors are native English speakers?

Research question 3: What are different users' attitudes and communicative needs regarding the use of English as a lingua franca in the Thai university international relations office setting?

The following diagram clearly illustrates the present research study's methods.



The next **section** explains the forms of data analysis.

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 Conversation analysis and content analysis

In order to analyze recorded conversations, firstly the conversations were transcribed using the Jefferson transcription system (Jefferson, 2004) and the Transana software to ease the transcription workload. Then, the transcriptions were coded. At this stage, the transcribed conversations were manually coded. In doing so, the transcriptions were inter-coded by hand or MSWord, in the latter case using the comment and note functions.

After the texts were coded, to capture participants' realities, content analysis was employed (Gheyle & Jacobs, 2017). Therefore, categorizing codes and generating

themes, particularly those that could be addressed by the research questions, was involved. Eventually, the core phenomena were revealed.

Apart from broadly categorizing and allocating codes to the transcriptions based on the organisation of the conversation, i.e., turn-taking, repair, and word selection, in order to analyze the conversation more thoroughly, for content analysis, certain strategies in ELF interactions, specifically ones from accommodation theory, were adopted for the analysis. They include *approximation strategies* (convergence, divergence, maintenance, and complementary), *discourse management, interpretability,* and *interpersonal control* (Shepard, Giles & Le Poire, 2001). In addition, other relevant strategies, such as those discussed by BjÖrkman (2012), Cogo and Dewey (2012), Cogo and Pitzl (2016), Deterding (2013), Firth (1996), Kaur (2009), and Mauranen (2006) were also applied. These strategies include let-it-pass, signaling the problems, correcting, asking for clarification, make-it-normal, silence, providing a backchannel, selecting part of the utterance, topic fronting, changing the topic, laughter, non-awareness, self-repair, repetition, partial repetition, self-repetition, lexical repetition, echoing, spelling out ambiguous terms, rephrasing, collaborative completions, and rising question intonation. Additionally, the detailed framework employed in Jaroensak's (2018) study was adapted. These are presented in the following table.

Table 3.1 Pragmatic strategies framework for analysis

No.	Strategy	Explanation
Confirmation check		
1	Direct question	An overt question, e.g., 'Did I understand, right?' is used as a confirmation check.
2	Question tag	The practice of using a token, e.g., 'Right?', 'Yeah?', or 'Correct?' as a questioning tag with a rising intonation after a reformulated or repeated utterance to confirm understanding.
3	Using an alternative word/phrase with a rising intonation	The practice of using an alternative word, which is the other word in the same local context of talk as used with a rising intonation.
4	Using discourse markers	A discourse marker, e.g., 'You mean?' or 'Right?' is used to check the listener's accuracy in understanding.

Table 3.1 Pragmatic strategies framework for analysis (Continued)

No.	Strategy	Explanation
Repetition		
5	Key-word repetition	The practice of repeating a particular or important word or phrase to provide a listener an emphasis of meaning, and to give the narrow sense of meaning in the ongoing talk.
6	Parallel phrasing	The practice of repeating oneself with slight change of previous utterance for rhetorical effects or a series of synonymous or antonymous words.
7	Other-repetition	A word or phrase in the previous turn is repeated (with a falling intonation) by listener in the following turn. This kind of repetition can show alignment and to confirm correct hearing.
8	Self-repetition	The strategic practice that a speaker simply repeats a part or the whole of his/her own previous utterance to provide a listener with another chance of hearing.
9	Utterance-developing repetition	The practice of repetition that a speaker develops his/her utterance for a few times for a deeper sense of meaning.
10	Combined repetition	A word or phrase is repeated, together with using a synonym, further information, or additional explanation.
11	Sound-stretch repetition	A word or phrase is repeated in which the sound is pronounced with a stronger and clearer stress and pronunciation.
12	Spelling-out repetition	A word is repeated in which a speaker spells out the word.
Comprehension check		
13	Using ‘you know?’	A speaker uses a discourse marker, e.g., ‘You know?’ after his/her utterance to check or monitor a recipient’s understanding.
14	Constructed (overt) question	A direct or constructed question is used by a speaker to ensure that his/her listener understands what has been said, e.g., ‘Understand?’, ‘Do you know what I mean?’ and ‘Okay?’
Signal of non-understanding		
15	Explicit statement	A direct statement is uttered by a recipient to indicate the mismatch in understanding e.g. ‘I don’t understand’.
16	Inappropriate response	The response in the following turn does not match what was said or asked in the previous turn so it is assumed that there is a mismatch in understanding.
17	Minimal query	A minimal query, e.g., ‘Pardon?’, ‘Sorry?’, or ‘Huh?’ is used to ask for another chance of clearer hearing.
18	Interrogative echo	A listener repeats a speaker’s utterance or problematic item in the previous with a rising intonation when s/he encounters a difficulty in intelligibility or comprehensibility.
19	Unfocused question	A question word is uttered when a listener does not pay attention to listening, without any focus in listening.

Table 3.1 Pragmatic strategies framework for analysis (Continued)

No.	Strategy	Explanation
Linguistic repair		
20	Lexical anticipation (collaborative completions)	The strategic practice in which a listener anticipates a possible word to help a speaker complete his/her utterance.
21	Lexical replacement (self repair)	An incorrect word or phrase in the previous utterance is replaced by the correct one.
22	Co-constructed repair	The practice of lexicogrammatical repair is performed by the third party in the multi-party talk to help other interlocutors make meaning and constructing utterance.
23	Lexical suggestion	A word or phrase is suggested or offered in order to provide word choices.
24	Lexicogrammatical repair	A non-standard lexicogrammatical feature is replaced or repaired, either through self-repair or other-repair.
25	Pronunciation repair	A correct or better pronunciation is produced to repair the prior mispronounced word.
Reformulation		
26	Paraphrasing	A previous utterance is reformulated by using different words with similar meaning.
27	Paraphrase with expansion	A previous utterance is paraphrased with additional explanation of related lexical items in the same context.
28	Rephrasing	A previous utterance is reformulated in a different sentence with slight variation of utterances; the key word or phrase is remained.
Clarification request		
29	Question repeat	A word or a segment of a previous utterance is repeated with a rising intonation by a listener to request clarification (after the listener more or less recognizes the local context of talk
30	Single-word question	A wh-question word e.g. 'what?' or 'which?' is used to request clarification without a specific area of understanding problem.
31	Wh-clarification question	A wh-question with a specific area of the previous utterance is used by a listener of talk to seek clarification or addition explanation.

At first, the aforementioned strategies employed for this framework of analysis seem to overlap; this is because they were to some extent based on different ELF researchers' studies. When the pilot study was conducted, other emerging strategies apart from these were also adopted. Therefore, the framework for analysis of the main study was modified according to any suggestions for improvement. Thus, the framework was refined before the main study. In this study, the analysis of the

conversations was completed by counting all the pragmatic strategies which were employed throughout the conversations.

3.4.2 Descriptive statistics

For the data from the questionnaire, this was descriptively analyzed automatically by the survey platform.

3.5 Collected Demographic Data

3.5.1 Conversations at Thai international relations offices

Data were collected from one university, where research participant invitations and consent forms were sent to six faculties, i.e., Engineering, Agriculture, Science, Public Health, Education, and Humanities and Social Sciences, and one central IR office. Nine Thai IR staff (TS) took part in the research. Two of the TSs were from the central IR office (CT), and two were from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (HS). Then, one IR office in each of the following faculties participated: Engineering (EN), Science (SC), Agriculture (AG), Public Health (PH), and Education (ED). The majority of Thai staff (TSs) had graduated with a BA in languages, namely English, Business English, and French. Some of them had master's degrees in related fields. Only one TS was male. They had been working from one to twelve years in their positions.

Thirty-one conversations of TSs serving international visitors (IVs) were recorded from nine TS work stations. As detailed in Table 3.2, the 31 collected recordings of interactions lasted on average seven minutes. The shortest was less than one minute, while the longest conversation lasted almost forty minutes. All in all, the recorded conversations comprise about 205 minutes, i.e., almost four hours in total. When these recorded conversations were transcribed, there were about 16,250 words. The 31 recorded conversations were of TSs and IVs normally resident in, or expats from, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Japan, Myanmar, South Korea, Tanzania, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, and Vietnam. Table 3.2 also provides words per turn (W/T) and the number of interactions (visits). While the highest number of visits was by Japanese visitors (6 interactions), the total number of words of Bhutanese visitors (3 interactions) was significantly higher, at 6,223 (Bhutanese) and 3,215 (Japanese).

Table 3.2 Interaction details

Nationality	Average Spending Time	Longest Spending Time	Shortest Spending Time	W/T (TS)	W/T (IV)	Number of interactions	Total words
American	1.4			6.9	3.6	1	122
Bhutan	7.5	39.2	20.5	6.9	3.8	3	6,223
British	5.5			7.0	6.2	1	671
Cambodia	5.7	9.0	1.3	6.0	3.9	4	2,165
Chinese	1.8	1.4	0.4	6.3	3.0	5	390
Indonesian	6.8	11.4	41.0	6.9	3.7	3	730
Japanese	6.2	11.2	1.1	4.8	3.7	6	3,215
Korean	6.0	4.5	74.0	6.2	3.8	2	945
Myanmar	2.9	4.0	1.3	5.2	6.4	4	1,266
Tanzanian	0.5			6.7	1.6	1	86
Vietnam	8.4			8.9	2.7	1	711
TOTAL	**4.8**	**39.2**	**0.4**	**6.5**	**3.9**	**31**	**16,524**

In relation to the IV's status, four were lecturers, one was a researcher, thirteen were doctoral students, three were master's degree students, and seven were bachelor's degrees students. In total, there were 28 of them, with three revisiting.

Turning to the themes of conversations between TSs and IVs, they fell under two categories: documentation and arrangements. Document-related conversations included themes regarding course registration, study plans (changes and extensions), qualifying exams, theses (the plagiarism check programme), visas, scholarships, ethical applications for research, and health insurance. Arrangement-related conversations concerned the themes of conferences and events, technical help (office amenities, printing services, and logistic services), travel (shuttle bus), and excursions. Apart from these two mentioned key features of the conversations (documentation and arrangement), it seemed that TSs and their IVs who had previously met engaged in small talk as well. These small talk conversations could also include wellbeing matters. Transcripts 3.1 – 3.3 present three examples of the kind of small talk which appeared in conversations between Thai TSs and their IVs.

Transcript 3.1

1.	TS	Sensei
2.	IV	Huh?
3.	TS	I got a sore throat
4.	IV	Ah
5.	TS	£Sorry£
6.	IV	Okay

Transcript 3.2

1.	TS:	Yes | (0.73) did you try to eat du↑rian? | (.) durian
2.	IV:	Pardon?
3.	TS:	Did did you try to eat er durian?
4.	IV:	Durian?
5.	TS:	Yeah
6.	IV:	No
7.	TS:	No not yet
8.	IV:	No no | (0.08) but may↑be I cannot () fresh du↑rian.
9.	TS:	Yes you cannot
10.	IV:	Just a dry durian.

Transcript 3.3

1.	TS:	[and you]
2.	IV:	Actually I have to () but this mor↑ning I lost my earr(h)ings.
3.	TS:	Pardon?
4.	IV:	and I
5.	TS:	[and hurt]
6.	IV:	I have to find on the (TV) I put but (when) I cleaned the table I-I put the tissue over the bag () and I forgot I have to find in the bath↑room.
7.	TS:	[okay]

The TS and IV in the first example extract talked about symptoms of an illness before moving to the main conversation. Similarly, in Transcripts 3.2 – 3.3, while talking about IV's main purpose of interaction and before moving to the purposed theme, they engaged in small talk relating to firstly, seasonal fruit and then to a lost belonging.

With respect to conversation analysis (CA), the average words per turn of the TS was 6.5 while for the IV it was 4.0 words per turn. Regarding adjacency pairs, in general these conversations had equal turns for each interlocutor, showing greeting-greeting, question-answer, request-compliance or refusal features. However, there were four conversations where the TSs seemed to control the conversation, for example with average words per turn for the TS being seven and for the IV being only four, and with average words per turn for the TS being ten and for the IV being seven.

3.5.2 Questionnaire respondents

Around 270 foreign students, both undergraduate and graduate students, together with foreign lecturers and researchers from the four research sites in Northeast Thailand were invited to respond to the online questionnaire sent via email and social networking sites, including Line and Facebook. In total, 114 participants responded to the questionnaire with 43 (37.7%), 48 (42.1%), and 23 (20.2%) having or pursuing doctoral degrees, master's degrees, and bachelor's degree, respectively. Looking at Figure 3.2, it is apparent that the master's degree group contains the highest proportion of respondents of any group.

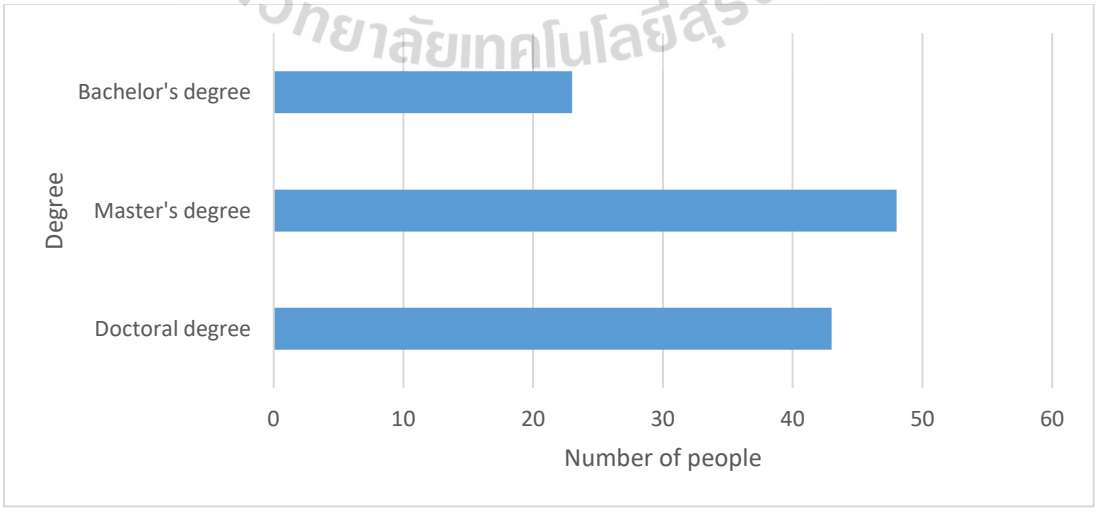


Figure 3.2 Highest degree of the questionnaire respondents

As shown in Figure 3.3, of the 26 Thai IR official participants, the majority of them (42.3%) had been working for between one and three years and eight (30.8%) of them for three to six years. Three (11.5%) of the respondents had been working as IR officials for more than 12 years.

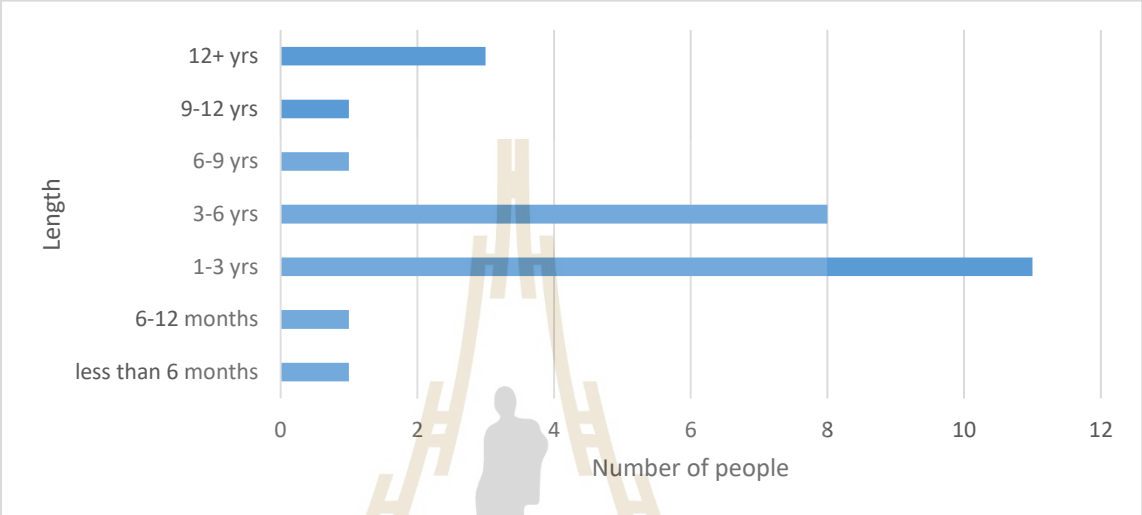


Figure 3.3 Years working as an IR official

Of 78 international respondents, 37 (47.4%) of them had been staying in Thailand for one to three years, 20 (25.6%) of them for three to six years, 6 (7.7%) of them for less than six months, and five (6.4%) each for six to twelve months and for more than twelve years. Figure 3.4 illustrates the number of years the international visitor respondents had been staying in Thailand at the time of the research.

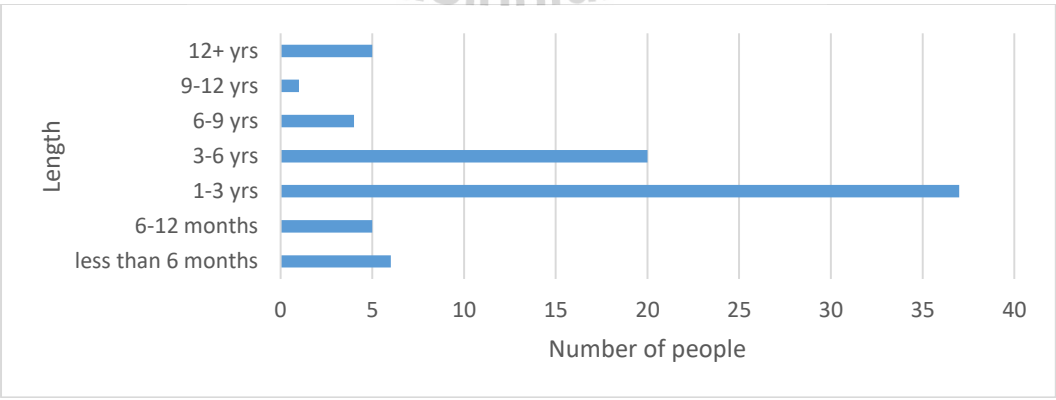


Figure 3.4 Years staying in Thailand

The respondents' nationalities were diverse, as 22 nationalities can be seen in Table 3.3. The highest number of respondents by nationality was Indonesian (20 respondents). Chinese and Vietnamese were the joint second highest. See Appendix C for the details of the questionnaire respondents' nationalities.

Table 3.3 Top ten nationalities of the questionnaire respondents

No.	Nationality	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Indonesian	20	17.7
2	Chinese	17	15.0
3	Vietnamese	17	15.0
4	Thai	16	14.2
5	Myanmar	13	11.5
6	Cambodian	8	7.1
7	Bhutanese	3	2.7
8	Filipino	3	2.7
9	American	2	1.8
10	Japanese	2	1.8

With respect to the questionnaire respondents' first language, the below Table 3.4 shows that 25 first languages were reported, Chinese being the most frequently reported first language. For further first languages of the questionnaire respondents, see Appendix D.

Table 3.4 Top ten first languages of the questionnaire respondents

No.	Language	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Chinese	17	15.3
2	Vietnamese	16	14.4
3	Thai	16	14.4
4	Bahasa Indonesia	15	13.5
5	Burmese	12	10.8
6	Khmer	8	7.2
7	English	6	5.4
8	Tagalog	2	1.8
9	Javanese	2	1.8
10	Japanese	2	1.8

Apart from their first language and English, at least 27 other languages were spoken by the questionnaire respondents. Table 3.5 provides a list of these spoken languages. See Appendix E for other spoken languages.

Table 3.5 Spoken languages of the questionnaire respondents other than English

No.	Language	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Thai	18	27.7
2	Korean	4	6.2
3	Dzongkha	3	4.6
4	Chinese	3	4.6
5	Indonesian	3	4.6
6	Spanish	3	4.6
7	German	2	3.1
8	Malay	2	3.1
9	French	2	3.1
10	Burmese	2	3.1
11	Russian	2	3.1
12	Hindi	2	3.1

What stands out in connection with the respondents' spoken languages is the variety, comprising approximately 50 languages in total. English was of course reported as one of them.

Turning to the respondents' major field of study, these were from various disciplines. Twenty-one (41.2%), twenty-two (43.1%), and eight (15.7%) were in the humanities and social sciences, science and technology, and medical science, respectively. See Appendix F for details of the respondents' field of study.

3.5.3 Interview participants

Because of the COVID 19 pandemic, there were various health restrictions, which led to the interviews mainly being completed online, e.g. via Zoom, Google Meet, Skype, Line, Facebook, and by telephone call. Interview participants from the four research sites were recruited. There were 45 interview participants, including 18 Thai IR officials and 27 international visitors.

The eighteen Thai IR officials (eight university 1, five university 2, four university 3, and one university 4) had been working as IR staff from three months to 20 years. Six of them possessed a master's degree in English, English and Communication, or TEFL, and the rest possessed a bachelor's degree in English, English and Communication, International Affairs, or Social Development. All of them had Thai as their first language and spoke very few other languages apart from English. See Appendix G for Thai staff interviewees' profiles.

The twenty-seven IVs were located at university 1 (eleven), university 2 (seven), university 3 (two), and university 4 (seven). Regarding how long they had been staying in Thailand, the shortest was 10 months and the longest was 12 years. See Appendix H for IV interviewees' profiles.

The international interviewees were from 15 different countries, i.e., Australia, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, China, England, India, Indonesia, Japan, Myanmar, Nepal, Philippines, Tanzania, USA, and Vietnam, as shown in Figure 3.5.

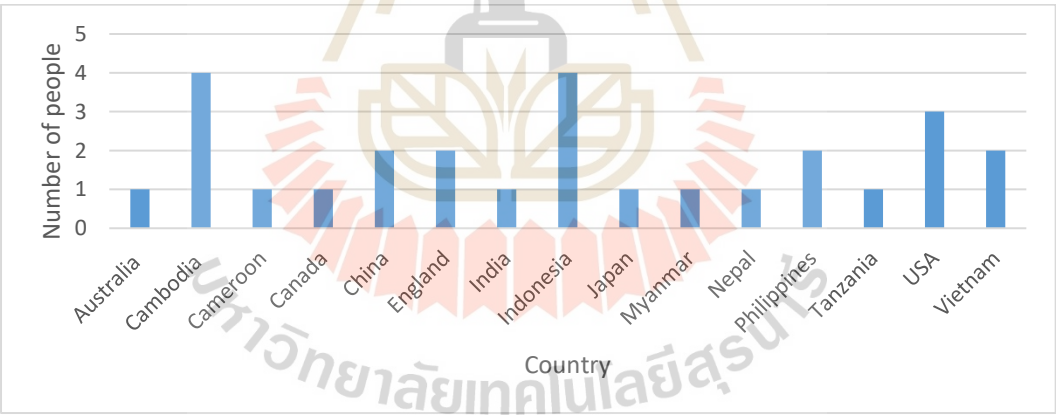


Figure 3.5 Countries of origin of the interview participants

In terms of spoken languages, about 23 different languages were spoken by the international participants, as can be seen in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Spoken language of research interview participants

No.	Language
1	Arabic
2	Bahasa Indonesia
3	Chinese
4	Dutch
5	English
6	Filipino
7	French
8	German
9	Hindi
10	Indian dialect
11	Italian
12	Japanese
13	Khmer
14	Korean
15	Laos
16	Myanmar
17	Nepali
18	Russian
19	Spanish
20	Sukuma
21	Swahili
22	Thai
23	Vietnamese

Regarding the status of these international interview participants, twelve were lecturers, eight were master's degree students, five were doctoral students, and two were foreign experts. Figure 3.6 below shows the interviewees' profiles.

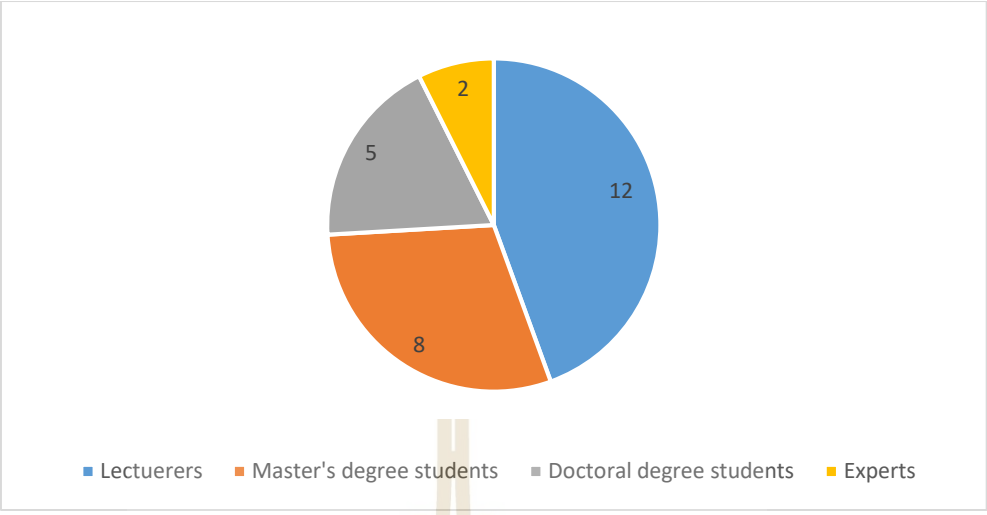


Figure 3.6 Status of interview participants

To conclude this chapter, this study obtained data using three main methods, i.e. conversations, collected from 9 TSs and 27 IVs; questionnaires administered at 4 research sites, involving 115 respondents; and interviews, with 18 TSs and 27 IVs (15 nationalities). All in all, there was a wide variety of almost all ethnographic aspects, such as languages, fields of study and years of working or studying. Although the research participants seemed to derive from a variety of backgrounds and cultures, they generally shared the same experiences interacting in Thailand's university IR offices.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS I: PRAGMATIC STRATEGIES FOR MEANING NEGOTIATION

As presented in previous chapters, the purpose of this research is to look into the use of English as a lingua franca in international relations (IR) offices in a Thai university context. Specifically, the research seeks to explore the interactions between Thai international relations staff (TSs) and international student and staff visitors (IVs) and to understand how pragmatic strategies help with meaning negotiation in this setting. This chapter presents the results and a discussion in response to research questions 1 and 2 (RQs1 – 2): "What pragmatic strategies do Thai international relations staff and international visitors use for meaning negotiation in a Thai university ELF context?" and "Do these pragmatic strategies vary according to whether or not the visitors are native English speakers?"

Consequently, the first section of this chapter relates the findings and discusses the pragmatic strategies used by TSs and IVs. The second section provides the results and a discussion of this study in response to RQ2, specifically regarding whether or not the pragmatic strategies detected vary according to the origin of the IV, i.e., by native English speaking (NES) and non-native English speaking (NNES) countries. The third section provides meaning negotiation example transcripts with explanations, while the fourth section presents a discussion of the pragmatic strategies used by IR offices in a Thai university setting. The final section presents a chapter summary.

4.1 Pragmatic Strategies in International Relations Offices

4.1.1 Pragmatic strategies used by Thai international relations staff

The findings presented include all the pragmatic strategies which were employed by the Thai staff (TS) and the international visitors (IVs) in their interactions

at the IR offices. In answering RQ1, the pragmatic strategies used by the TS comprise 34 main strategies. It can be clearly seen that the most frequently used strategy was backchannel (31.9%), while the least frequently used strategies that were nonetheless still adopted were comprehension check (0.9%) and interpersonal control (0.3%). Considering confirmation checks, the TSs employed discourse markers, e.g. 'you mean' and 'right' the most, while the other-repetition strategy was the most frequent repetition strategy employed. For linguistic repair, the lexicogrammatical repair strategy was the one most often used by TSs. When TSs requested clarification, they used the Wh-clarification question strategy most often. Details of TSs' pragmatic strategies are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Pragmatic strategies used by Thai international relations staff

No.	Pragmatic Strategies	Frequency	Percentage
1	Confirmation check	64	8.1
2	Repetition	151	19.2
3	Comprehension check	7	0.9
4	Signal of non-understanding	16	2.0
5	Linguistic repair	88	11.2
6	Reformulation	23	2.9
7	Clarification request	59	7.5
8	Backchannel	251	31.9
9	Interpersonal control	2	0.3
10	Changing the topic	25	3.2
11	Rising question intonation	39	5.0
12	Code-switching	39	5.0
13	Laughter	23	2.9
	Total	**787**	**100.0**

Table 4.1 presents the main strategies used by the TSs. The TSs employed confirmation check (8.1 %), which included question tag, direct question, using an alternative word/phrase with a rising intonation, and using a discourse marker. Repetition strategies (19.2%) used included key-word repetition, parallel phrasing, other repetition, self-repetition, utterance-developing repetition, and combined

repetition. For signal of non-understanding strategies (2%), the TSs used inappropriate response, minimal query, and interrogative echo. For linguistic repair (11.2%), strategies included lexical anticipation (collaborative completions), lexical replacement (self repair), lexical suggestion, and lexicogrammatical repair. For reformulation strategies (3%), the TSs employed paraphrasing, paraphrase with expansion, and rephrasing. Clarification request (7.9%) comprised question repeat, single-word question, and Wh-clarification question.

The following transcript is an extract from a nine-minute conversation about accommodation between TS1, who possesses a master's degree in English for Careers and who had been working as an IR official for 10 years, henceforth (MA English for Careers, 10 years) and an IV from Japan who is a professor in public health and who had been working in Thailand for 4 years, henceforth (Public Health professor, 4 years).

Transcript 4.1: TS1 and a Japanese IV (IV1)

1. IV1 In-in this case, so **apartment ah hotel** {lexical replacement}
2. TS1 [**hotel**] {lexical suggestion}
3. IV1 Owner also have to
4. TS1 [↑**yeah**] {backchannel}
5. IV1 Go to ()
6. TS1 The owner of the hotel need to report this. **They need to report EVERY international case when they have international guests come** {combined repetition, paraphrase with expansion}
7. IV1 [**ah**] {backchannel}
8. TS1 They do it for the guests. (0.2)
9. IV1 So, (0.3) I want to say I'm sorry to (all all) ((followed by TS's laugher))
10. TS1 Doesn't matter, **sensei**. {code switching}

As can be seen in Transcript 4.1, the IV started this part of the conversation with the lexical replacement strategy 'apartment ah hotel' in line 1, while the TS also helped collaboratively complete the word for 'hotel' in line 2. In line 7, the TS used

a lexical replacement strategy for her explanation, which seemed successful because the IV showed understanding by using the backchannel 'ah'. In the later turns, after the IV apologized to the TS for bothering her with his issue, the TS laughed supportively, and she used the Japanese word 'sensei', which means teacher. In doing so, the atmosphere seemed to relax, and both parties reached a consensus. Although there are only a few turns, to enhance mutual understanding, the TS employed four different pragmatic strategies, namely collaborative completion, backchannel, lexical replacement, and code-switching.

4.1.1.1 Most frequent used strategies by Thai international relations staff

The next section illustrates the frequency of pragmatic strategies used by TSs. Figure 4.1 displays the ten pragmatic strategies most frequently used by TSs. These were, in descending order, backchannel (31.9 %), repetition (19.2%), linguistic repair (11.2%), confirmation check (8.1%), clarification request (7.5%), rising question intonation (5%), code-switching (5%), reformulation (2.9%), and laughter (2.9%).

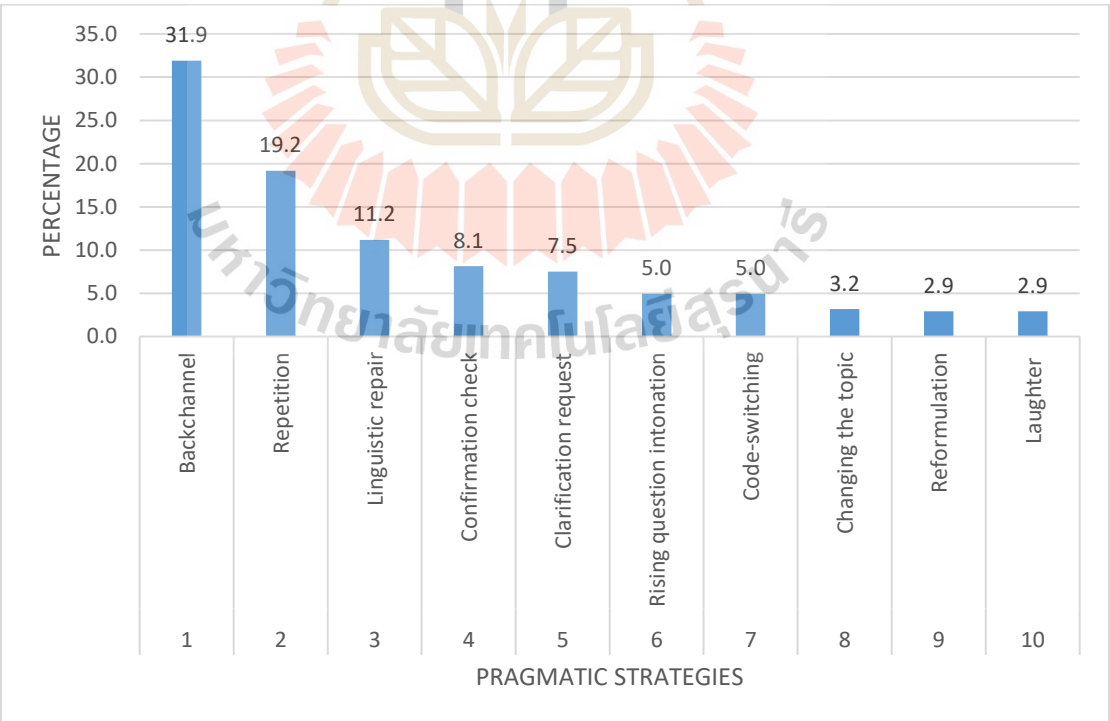


Figure 4.1 The ten pragmatic strategies most frequently used by Thai international relations staff

In addition, interview data reveals the reasons why the TSs used backchannel, i.e., mainly to show attention (44.5%) and to show understanding (41%). Apart from these two main reasons, the TSs added that they used backchannel because they needed time to think about what to say next (10%) and to avoid uncomfortable feelings (4.5%).

Additionally, the interview participants noted the reasons they used repetition. They repeated mainly in order to ensure understanding (71.5%), to make sure important information was understood correctly (19%), and to avoid misunderstanding (9.5%).

This finding is consistent with that of Cogo and Dewey (2006), who reported that ELF speakers can achieve communicative effectiveness through repetition of an interlocutor's word or phrase, which also serves as a device for speech participants to adjust to each other in supportive, collaborative ways of making meaning. A number of recent studies have also revealed repetition strategies used among ELF speakers, e.g., Cameroon (2001), Hahl (2010), Kaur (2009), Mauranen (2006), and Vettorel (2018).

The following example transcripts present strategies frequently used by TSs. The examples include both intelligible or successful and unintelligible or unsuccessful uses, including the backchannel, lexicogrammatical repair, Wh-clarification question, and rising question intonation strategies.

1. Backchannel is the use of minimal responses e.g. *mhm, right, yeah,* to show understanding, agreement and so on. Transcripts 4.2 – 4.4 show examples of interactions between TSs and Cambodian and Bhutanese visitors. In the first two examples, the TSs' backchannel use shows the IV's understanding of and/or listening to the TS, while in the third example the TS only responded with 'um' to the IV's long turns of his explanation, which may not be sufficient to show understanding of and/or agreement with what was said. Therefore, the third example is an example of the unsuccessful use of a backchannel, while the rest of the conversation shows more use of strategies and a rapport between the interlocutors.

Transcript 4.2: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1. TS4: ↑Did you chec<u>k</u> (.) the detail?
2. IV13: I checked
3. TS4: Yeah and I said that ah November and Decem↑ber (.) you will get the mo↑ney and plus ten ↑months (.) and divided into
4. IV13: Yeah (0.03) ↑**ten months ten months** (and) (thirty) () {key-word repetition)
5. TS4: **Yeah** {backchannel}
6. IV13: Plus the twenty (thousand) or something (added up)
7. TS4: **Um** {backchannel}

Transcript 4.3: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1. IV13: But when you (view) practical↑ly it's ah not possible like that. | (0.02) and if you (emphasise) for me to work here I I (feel) () I never intend to have (all) ↑res↓ponse |(0.02) This is the expe↑rience
2. TS4: **Um** {backchannel}
3. IV13: I never () (anybody) but it hap↑pened that ↑way | (.) (reality) () (I think there's no point talking to us) because this is like when you have this ah (visa) (probably) send to Thailand and () law it's a law but but the law is implemented by human ↓being. | (0.02) we are not () the law are not () it can be done | it is not for a person to be benefit of | (.) you are (as good as) any↓bo↑dy but if we can () it can be done no the law can () | In this case also now (0.03) you're telling me to continue I'm not () and () (subject) (.) with er (0.04) ten months (.) I know so I'm not I already have (two) () for two ↑months
4. TS4: **Um** {backchannel}

5. IV13: () (look) accom↑moda↓tion and **accommodation** also () to me | (.) (of course) () but the (.) as this is the heat (.) I experience in () it's very hot {key-word repetition}
6. TS4: **Um** {backchannel}

Transcript 4.4: TS5 and a Cambodian IV (IV17)

1. IV17: And in this semes↑ter research to business and (partnership)
2. TS5: [**ah huh**] {backchannel}
3. IV17: Also
4. TS5: [**Really?**] {backchannel}
5. IV17: teach in Thai yeah
6. TS5: **Really,** {backchannel}
7. IV17: Yeah but (this) profes↑sor

2. Linguistic repair: lexicogrammatical repair is when a non-standard lexicogrammatical feature is replaced or repaired, either through self-repair or other-repair.

Transcript 4.5: TS8 and a Chinese IV (IV27)

1. TS8: **have you have (.) do you have here? (.) | original one**, {lexicogrammatical repair}
2. IV27: **Pardon**? **what**? {minimal query, single-word question}
3. TS8: **Ah bank ac↑count_** {self-repetition}
4. IV27: **Erm (.) not ↑bring |(0.02) no no I-I not bring my | (0.02) no no I'm not bring** {lexicogrammatical repair}
5. TS8: [**okay**] {backchannel}
6. IV27: my passport
7. TS8: Okay so I need your pass°port° (0.04)
8. IV27: **Like ↑this?** (.) | this the {rising question intonation}
9. TS8: No not need it(0.06) Sign your name **krab** two times:. (0.03) {code switching}

10. IV27: **In here?** {rising question intonation}
11. TS8: Yeah please. | (0.12) okay **krab** just submit me °back° tomorrow. {code switching}
12. IV27: °O°kay (**you mean**) I need () another document right? {using discourse markers}
13. TS8: no
14. IV27: It's
15. TS8: Yes (it's that) only one thing (.) bank ↑account(h).

In the conversation in Transcript 4.5, this IV did not bring an essential document, a bank book, with her in order to get money transferred to her account. The TS used the lexicogrammatical repair strategy in line 1, changing 'have you have' to 'do you have here?' in order to repair his utterance so as to help improve the IV's understanding. However, the IV still could not comprehend the meaning. She replied by employing the minimal query 'pardon' and right afterward by using the single-word question strategy 'what?' to ask for clarification (line 2). Then, the TS adopted the self-repetition strategy to repeat part of his previous utterance in order to provide her with another chance to hear the compound noun 'bank account' in the following turn. Not only did she then answer him right away, but also she made use of the lexicogrammatical repair strategy to correct herself (line 4). Apart from this, the IV used the rising question intonation strategy two times, in "like this?' and 'in here?', in lines 8 and 10, to ask for clarification. The IV also employed the discourse marker strategy 'you mean' to check accuracy of understanding in line 12. Moreover, the TS added 'krab' (lines 9 and 11), which is a Thai language particle to show politeness by a male speaker. All in all, this transcript displays how this encounter attained successful mutual understanding through the use of several pragmatic strategies, including comprehension check, linguistics repair, code-switching, confirmation check, and repetition.

Transcript 4.6: TS5 and a Japanese IV (IV15)

1. TS5: And how about the (church) the () | **when you we when we** want to ↑pray {lexicogrammatical repair}
2. IV15: Oh: (0.04)
3. TS5: **Near ↑here**? {rising question intonation}
4. IV15: Ah yeah yeah
5. TS5: **Near ↑here** | (0.04) **So what what peo↑ple want to pray (.) with the °church°,** {self-repetition, Wh-clarification question)
6. IV15: Ah: | (.) **what peo↑ple**, {question repeat}
7. TS5: Ah **peo↑ple wanna ask what when they go to pray.** {utterance-developing repetition}
8. IV15: **When they go to** {interrogative echo}
9. TS5: Ah **want to ↑rich: want to have ah mar↑ry or when** {utterance-developing repetition}
10. IV15: ↑Ah: |(.) that's not de↑cide.
11. TS5: (in) normal **right**? {using discourse markers}
12. IV15: Yes **normal normal** yeah (0.06) {other-repetition}

As can be clearly seen in Transcript 4.6, although this conversation was merely a casual conversation, the TS made an effort to employ the lexicogrammatical repair strategy in order to try to replace her non-standard lexicogrammatical features in line 1. Throughout this conversation, both of them often adopted the other-repetition strategy to repeat a word or phrase in the previous turn in order to show alignment and to confirm the correct hearing. Moreover, both of them used the question repeat strategy to request clarification by repeating a word or a segment of a previous utterance with a rising intonation, as shown in lines 3 and 6.

The following transcripts (4.7 – 4.9), exemplify the TSs' use of lexical repair while interacting with Bhutanese and Japanese visitors. They are considered to be successful encounters because the IVs could comprehend the utterances by providing required and/or correct responses in the following turns.

Transcript 4.7: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1. TS4: And also the as you know that his erm (0.02) **his ma↑jor his stu↑dy** is very diffi↑cult so he need more time to be in Thailand no in Bhutan | (.) they said that but I have to say that er he have health pro↑blem {lexical replacement}
2. IV13: **Um** {backchannel}
3. TS4: And they still concern that ah () he ↓is in Bhutan they are not going to pay him | (.) but once he ah come back they will pay (it) normally
4. IV13: **Um** {backchannel}
5. TS4: Just like in your case | (0.02) but [Name] does ah doesn't understand like he said that you get ↑it (.) he get the mo↑ney when you go back **right?** | **when you went back to Bhutan_** {using discourse markers, lexicogrammatical repair}
6. IV13: Yeah

Transcript 4.8: TS5 and a Cambodian IV (IV17)

1. IV17: But I have (.) studied one subject with ↑him | (.) one time a week and after class I already up↑date.
2. TS5: **Okay** {backchannel}
3. IV17: [my research progress]
4. TS5: **How many students: in the in that ↑class**? {Wh-clarification question, lexicogrammatical repair}
5. IV17: Ah s:even stu↑dents
6. TS5: Oh so **the students ah <their ↑major>** is in transporta↑tion. | am I **right**? {lexicogrammatical repair, using discourse markers}
7. IV17: Yeah yeah

Transcript 4.9: TS3 and a Japanese IV (IV10)

1. TS3: So **what do you want to do now?** (0.6) | Did you do the reentry permit? {Wh-clarification question}
2. IV10: <yes yes.
3. TS3: **Where?** (0.2) **which page**, {single-word question, lexicogrammatical repair}
4. IV10: (update here)

3. Clarification request – The Wh-clarification question is the use of a Wh-question with a specific area of the previous utterance by the listener of the talk in order to seek clarification or an additional explanation. Transcripts 4.10 – 4.12 illustrate the successful use of the Wh-clarification question strategy by TSs with Bhutanese and Japanese visitors. In Transcript 4.10, the TS requested clarification in line 2, and the IV supplied an answer. Although his answer shows non-understanding via phrases and words, i.e. 'I don't know', 'supposed' and 'right', he described his answer in detail for the TS. In Transcript 4.11, the TS asked 'why not' in line 2, which the IV promptly answered, providing a reason. The TS in Transcript 4.12 asked, 'What do you mean by updating...' After that, the IV repeated the key-word and paused before he continued; his voice could not clearly be heard enough for his utterance to be completely transcribed.

Transcript 4.10: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1. IV13: But the way they implemen↑ting the rules you know it is implemented by human being so I think we ()
2. TS4: **What do you mean by that area_ | like how can we do** {Wh-clarification question}
3. IV13: That I don't know myself (0.03) know () from November to December so I'm (supposed) to (live on my own) **right**? | (.) so in that case first thing is now Thailand is a (advance) that's ↑why it's providing this ah ..... time to (my country) {using discourse markers}
4. TS4: **Um** {backchannel}

Transcript 4.11: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1. IV13: to (.) share the room (they don't like)
2. TS4: Um **why not**, {wh-clarification question}
3. IV13: It's a twin ↑bed (in the same room) so () need to have ah privacy (0.02) but I think Thai people living
4. TS4: [yeah]
5. IV13: They they share

Transcript 4.12: TS3 and a Japanese IV (IV10)

1. TS3: **What do you mean by updating**, {Wh-clarification question}
2. IV10: Update ah (0.5) ()
3. TS3: **Um** {backchannel}
4. IV10: So becuz (0.3) ah (1.0) so **that's expiry date?** {rising question intonation}
5. TS3: Um (.) **this is the EXpiry date** (.) eleventh <April two thousand twenty> is your expiry date. {other-repetition}
6. IV10: **April?** {question repeat}
7. TS3: YES **April**. {key-word repetition}

4. Rising question intonation is the use of a word, phrase or statement sentence with a rising intonation in order to ask for clarification.

Transcript 4.13: TS5 and a Japanese IV (IV15)

1. IV15: Um yes (.) so that's (why I) went to the Phetchabun.
2. TS5: **Phetchabun_** {other-repetition}
3. IV15: Yes
4. TS5: Because (.) when when you ↑went to Phetchabun (0.02)
5. IV15: Ah so
6. TS5: In in in (.) in **Decem↑ber or Janua↑ry?** {rising question intonation}

7. IV15: Oh yes that is February.
8. TS5: **February**, {other-repetition}
9. IV15: Yes last week.
10. TS5: **Last week?** | **How was it,** |(.) **It's good**, {question repeat, Wh-clarification question, rising question intonation}
11. IV15: Yeah **it's good** {other-repetition}

As can be seen in Transcript 4.13, throughout this example conversation the TS employed rising question intonation, in lines 6 and 10, to make questions more intelligible. The TS also used the repetition strategy twice in lines 2 and 8 to show alignment and to confirm the correct hearing.

Transcript 4.14: TS6 and a Japanese IV (IV18)

1. IV18: After that I (went) to the natio↑nal (Name) mu↑seum.
2. TS6 **Oh** {backchannel}
3. IV18 On foot
4. TS6 **Wow** {backchannel}
5. IV18 Ea↑sy
6. TS6: **Easy**(h), | (0.05) **and how do you go to lake yester↑day?** {other-repetition, Wh-clarification question}
7. IV18: **Yesterday** {other-repetition}
8. TS6: **Walk or ↑run?** {using alternative word/phrase with a rising intonation}
9. IV18: Run (of course) **run** {key-word repetition}
10. TS6: **Um (.) wow** (0.10) {backchannel}

In Transcript 4.14, the TS used both the Wh-clarification request in line 6 and rising question intonation, in line 8. Although this conversation consists of small talk, it is evident that a variety of pragmatic strategies were used to reach mutual understanding.

Transcripts 4.15 – 4.16 are more examples of the successful use of rising question intonation in interactions between TSs and Cambodian and Japanese IVs.

Transcript 4.15: TS5 and a Cambodian IV (IV17)

1. TS5: Sorry(h) | (.) So did you met ↑him? | I mean
2. IV17: Yeah
3. TS5: **Friend↑ly?** {rising question intonation}
4. IV17: Um normal↑ly | (0.02) one time a week to () my research pro↑gress.
5. TS5: **Every week?** {rising question intonation}
6. IV17: Yes mostly
7. TS5: **Wow** {backchannel}
8. IV17: **Nearly every week.** {combined repetition}

Transcript 4.16: TS3 and a Japanese IV (IV10)

1. TS3: **Extend the visa?** {rising question intonation}
2. IV10: Ah >yeah yeah<
3. TS3: **Why do you have to extend the visa again?** (.) | you already **you alrea↑dy did this** | let me see your passport. (0.21) Here {Wh-clarification question, lexicogrammatical repair}
4. IV10: **ah** {backchannel}
5. TS3: Your visa (.) valid until eleventh April.
6. IV10: [**um**] {backchannel}
7. TS3: Two thousand twenty **so?** {using discourse markers}
8. IV10: [eh]

4.1.2 Pragmatic strategies used by international visitors

When visiting IR offices, to negotiate meaning the IVs also employed various strategies, in total 36. It was found that the most frequently used strategy was the backchannel (44.5%). In contrast, the least frequently used strategies, but still found,

were utterance-developing repetition, unfocused question, pronunciation repair, paraphrasing with expansion, and let it pass (once each).

In terms of confirmation checks, the IVs mainly employed discourse markers, while for repetition strategies, other-repetition was used the most. The IVs employed lexical anticipation (collaborative completions) the most as a linguistic repair strategy, while the question repeat strategy was employed the most as a clarification request strategy. Details of the pragmatic strategies used by IVs are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Pragmatic strategies used by international visitors

No.	Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
1	Confirmation check	32	4.6
2	Repetition	132	18.9
3	Comprehension check	3	0.4
4	Signal of non-understanding	23	3.3
5	Linguistic repair	67	9.6
6	Reformulation	7	1.0
7	Clarification request	42	6.0
8	Backchannel	311	44.5
9	Interpersonal control	4	0.6
10	Changing the topic	10	1.4
11	Code switching	9	1.3
12	Rising question intonation	31	4.4
13	Topic fronting	2	0.3
14	Let it pass	1	0.1
15	Laughter	25	3.6
	Total	699	100.0

Table 4.2 illustrates the pragmatic strategies used by international visitors. The IVs used confirmation check (4.6%), which included question tag, direct question, alternative word/phrase with a rising intonation, and discourse markers. Repetition strategies (18.9%) included key-word repetition, parallel phrasing, other-repetition, self-repetition, utterance-development repetition, combined repetition, and spelling-out repetition. For comprehension check (0.4%), IVs just used ‘you know?’, while for signal of non-understanding (3.3%), IVs used explicit statement, inappropriate response,

minimal query, interrogative echo, and unfocused question. IVs also employed linguistic repair strategies (9.6%), which included lexical anticipation, lexical replacement, lexical suggestion, lexicogrammatical repair, and pronunciation repair. Reformulation strategies (1%) included paraphrasing, paraphrasing with expansion, and rephrasing. Clarification request (6%) covered question repeat, single-word question, and Wh-clarification question. IVs also coded switched (44%) and laughed (3.6%) while interacting with TSs.

The following transcript is an example interaction between a TS (BA [International Affairs], 2 years) and an IV from Japan (academic visitor, 7 days).

Transcript 4.17: TS6 and a Japanese IV (IV18)

1. TS6: Yes | (0.73) did you try to eat du↑rian? | (.) **durian** {key-word repetition}
2. IV18: **Pardon**? {minimal query}
3. TS6: **Did did you try to eat er durian?** {self-repetition}
4. IV18: **Durian?** {question repeat}
5. TS6: Yeah
6. IV18: No
7. TS6: No not yet
8. IV18: No no | (0.08) but may↑be I cannot () fresh du↑rian.
9. TS6: Yes you cannot
10. IV18: Just a dry durian.
11. TS6: Yes (0.06)
12. IV18: **Dry du↑rian** is er very expensive in any other () {key-word repetition}
13. TS6: **Yes** {backchannel}

Transcript 4.17 exhibits long pauses in lines 1, 8 and 11 because the interlocutors were sitting in a van going to visit a school while engaging in ice-breaking small talk to build a positive atmosphere. In the first turn here, the TS used key-word repetition for 'durian', but the IV still could not catch that. Therefore, he used the minimal query strategy 'pardon?' to ask for another chance at understanding. Then, the TS repeated the whole question for him, presuming that the IV knew what a durian

was. The IV replied by repeating the key-word with rising question intonation for a confirmation check. The IV seemed to understand and could answer in line 8. In fact, although the conversation was merely small talk, pragmatic strategies, e.g. repetition, signal of non-understanding, and backchannel, were employed to negotiate meaning.

4.1.2.1 Most frequent used strategies by international visitors

To further illustrate the strategies most frequently employed by IVs, Figure 4.2 presents the top ten pragmatic strategies, with backchannel (44.5%) and repetition (20.3%) being by far the two most frequently used.

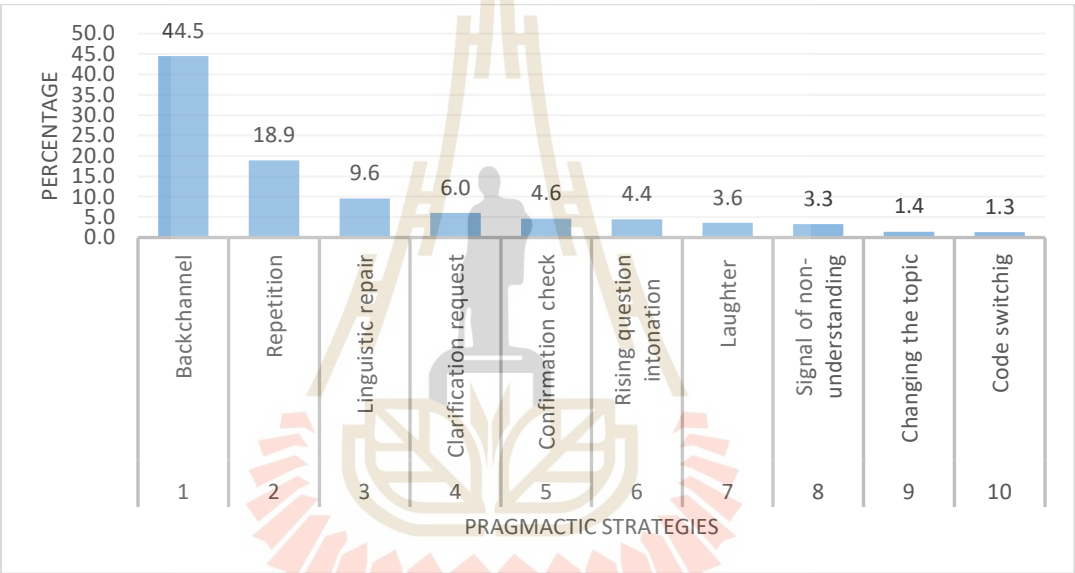


Figure 4.2 Top ten pragmatic strategies used by international visitors

When 27 IV interview participants were asked to recall the purpose of using a backchannel when having a conversation, they noted that the backchannel was mostly used to show understanding (29.8%) and to show attention (27.7%). Other reasons for using a backchannel were also provided, but these were not significant. These included to think about what to say next, to make a conversation more pleasant so that it would flow more smoothly, to agree with the interlocutor, and to show respect for another speaker.

However, the present study discovered an additional interesting reason, which was to think about what to say next. To elaborate on this point, we may look at business talk and/or a question-and answer-session after a presentation. In

these instances, strategies for buying time to think of a response can often be employed. One strategy is to use expressions like ‘well, let me see…’ or ‘I’m glad you asked about this particular subject because it’s important to me.’ In the present study, these expressions were not detected. Although IVs mentioned that they employed a backchannel to also think about what to say next, only acknowledgement tokens such as ‘yeah’, ‘yes’, and ‘uh-huh’ were used in their conversations. These responses are all too brief to give time for a speaker to think about what to say, unless they stretch the sound.

Apart from the backchannel, IVs used various kinds of repetition strategies (20.3%). The interview participants noted that they generally employed repetition to ensure understanding. These findings are in accord with a recent study by Lee (2020) which states that repetition is a crucial strategy where both speakers successfully co-build the construction of an interaction and establish rapport-building relationships. These findings further support the position of Kaur (2009) that repetition, one of the pre-empting strategies, is used in order to negotiate and resolve misunderstanding in communication, for example through the use of different words to explain a previously misunderstood word or phrase.

Furthermore, IVs explained that they also adopted code-switching in order to help with understanding (55.5%) and to make a conversation friendlier and smoother (44.5%). A similar conclusion was reached by House (2016), who found that often most ELF users code switched on occasions, including small talk, openings, and closing phases. These results are likely to be related to multilingual resources, whereby ELF speakers often include items from other languages, in particular the speakers’ L1s (Cogo & House, 2017).

The example transcripts below show such examples and focus on both successful and failed uses of pragmatic strategies by IVs, involving other-repetition, lexical anticipation, question repeat, and discourse marker strategies.

1. Repetition: the other-repetition strategy means a word or phrase in the previous turn is repeated with a falling intonation by a listener in the following turn. This kind of repetition can show alignment and confirmation of correct hearing.

Transcript 4.18: TS5 and a Japanese IV (IV15)

1. TS5: Or (0.02) the heri↑tage: vil↑lage: (.) can't remember the name.
2. IV15: **Vil↑lage?** {question repeat}
3. TS5: Ah heritage village (0.13) Shirakawago
4. IV15: **↑Oh yeah**(h) {backchannel}
5. TS5: ((**laughter**)) {laughter}
6. IV15: **Shirakawago** yeah yeah {other-repetition}
7. TS5: **This is very most fa ah it's very most (0.02) it's fa↑mous in Thailand**. {lexicogrammatical repair}

As can be clearly seen, throughout this conversation, the other-repetition strategy was used to repeat a word or phrase in the previous turn. The IV also used the question repeat strategy to request a clarification by repeating a word or a segment of a previous utterance with a rising intonation, as shown in line 2. Here, the TS also attempted to employ the lexicogrammatical repair strategy in order to try to replace her non-standard lexicogrammatical feature in line 7. Although the IV did not have important business to talk about with the TS, they interacted using various pragmatic strategies to enhance their understanding.

In Transcripts 4.19 – 4.23, showing interactions between TSs and Bhutanese, Cambodian, and Tanzanian visitors, IVs' successful use of the other-repetition strategy is presented.

Transcript 4.19: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. IV12: For the: enroll↑ment um:
2. TS4: Because () will ex↑tend just the scholarship just only for one semester.
3. IV12: **One semes↓ter** {other-repetition}
4. TS4: Yeah (.) because now it's already one semester **right**? {using discourse markers}
5. IV12: **Um** {backchannel}

Transcript 4.20: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1. IV13: But er (initially) you don't need (doctorate) I think okay option one and option two () (condition)
2. TS4: Yeah because if they don't pay you
3. IV13: [**yeah**] {backchannel}
4. TS4: like for half year
5. IV13: **Yeah** {backchannel}
6. TS4: how can you stay in Thailand **right?** | (.) so (.) I told you to choose the first op↑tion {using discourse markers}
7. IV13: [yeah **first option**] {other-repetition}
8. TS4: because you will get the money like every ↑month

Transcript 4.21: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1. IV13: it seems so that gonna hap↓pen that ↓way then ah (.) but (in here) like what they said I'm not get promotion but in any way I'm not going to get promotion even if I finish my PhD. | (0.02) because I () (pay for myself)
2. TS4: But if you get your er PhD they will like ex↑tend | (.) normally you will retire at
3. IV13: **At sixty** {lexical anticipation}
4. TS4: **Sixty**. {other-repetition}
5. IV13: **Yeah** {backchannel}

Transcript 4.22: TS5 and a Cambodian IV (IV17)

1. IV17: Ah (.) in (overview) I think it's okay but there's one subject ah re↑search to business (.) ah mostly profes↑sor taught in Thai
2. TS5: [**Thai?**] {question repeat}
3. IV17: Yeah
4. TS5: **Really?** {backchannel}
5. IV17: And

6. TS5: **Busi↑ness**? {lexical anticipation}
7. IV17: Re↑search to busi↑ness (.) oh no no
8. TS5: **Research methodolo↑gy**? {lexical replacement}
9. IV17: (sorry) **research methodology** yeah. {other-repetition}

Transcript 4.23: TS4 and a Tanzanian IV (IV**14)**

1. TS4: O↓kay okay ah Pi Kiet tell me that er your turnitin is not com↑plete yet.
2. IV14: **Uh huh** {backchannel}
3. TS4: Because (.) you submit on↑ly (.) some ↑parts
4. IV14: **Hmm** {backchannel}
5. TS4: of your thesis.
6. IV14: **Hmm** {backchannel}
7. TS4: Actual↑ly have to: put (.) all of the thesis.
8. IV14: **all of (thesis)** {other-repetition}
9. TS4: That means ah (from) the cover page until the end.

1. Linguistic repair: lexical anticipation is a strategic practice whereby a listener anticipates a possible word to help a speaker complete his or her utterance. Transcripts 4.24 – 4.27 illustrate how IVs used lexical anticipation to make their conversations flow meaningfully.

Transcript 4.24: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. TS4: Yeah **you ↑don't need to send it now**. {combined repetition}
2. IV12: **Um** {backchannel}
3. TS4: Because I will send another let↑ter to extend like (.) until
4. IV12: **August** {lexical anticipation}
5. TS4: **August** {other-repetition}

Transcript 4.25: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. TS4: In case that something wrong

2. IV12: [yeah something get wrong] then I have the (time) no no need to extend.
3. TS4: Yeah but you ↑don't need to: extend for the like
4. IV12: (**October**) {lexical anticipation}
5. TS4: I mean the enroll↑ment

Transcript 4.26: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. TS4: Ah huh so I I mean that we **we have no pro↑blem** {self-repetition}
2. IV12: [**yeah yeah**] {backchannel}
3. TS4: if you would like to extend until Au↑gust for for faculty (0.02) because you want to er I mean you want to make like your thesis
4. IV12: [**thesis**] {lexical anticipation}
5. TS4: like yeah yeah want to finish everything by that time ↑but it's about the scholarship. | It's not about us(h).

Transcript 4.27: TS1 and a Myanmar/Burmese IV (IV4)

1. TS1: And <I'm not sure that> where is your.
2. IV4: [**yeah**] {backchannel}
3. TS1: Ah room
4. IV4: [**yeah**] {backchannel}
5. TS1: For ↑work
6. IV4: [**Yeah**] {backchannel}
7. TS1: So we can as:k
8. IV4: [**dean**] {lexical anticipation}
9. TS1: **The dean** again. {other-repetition}

2. Clarification request: question repeat refers to when a word or a segment of a previous utterance is repeated with a rising intonation by a listener to request clarification after the listener more or less recognizes the context of talk.

Transcripts 4.28 – 4.31 show examples of the question repeat strategy being successfully used by IVs from Bhutan and Japan.

Transcript 4.28: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. TS4: [so] your your ah study re↑sult should be submit before the end of (.) the semester. | Ah I mean after the ↑end of (.) the semester like your study re↑sult
2. IV12: **Um** {backchannel}
3. TS4: Need (two) like (issue)
4. IV12: **study re↑sult?** {question repeat}
5. TS4: Yeah | (.) So if I extend the vi↑sa until (.) June
6. IV12: August **August** {key-word repetition}
7. TS4: Until until **August** {other-repetition}

Transcript 4.29: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. TS4: May () | (0.91) Af↑ter the thesis defense you have (.) forty five days for (finish) your thesis **right**? {using discourse markers}
2. IV12: Thesis ()
3. TS4: But (Name said that) you have to submit (.) the complete report (.) by the end of June.
4. IV12: **By the end of June**, {question repeat}
5. TS4: Yeah

Transcript 4.30: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1. TS4: [ah so] do you ↑know (.) (Name)? | (.) she is the master degree stu↑dent in Animal Science_ | she stay in another dormito↑ry she said that it chea↑per than the (Park View).
2. IV13: **The Park View is** {question repeat}
3. TS4: Do you know her_ | the girl from (.) Indone↑sia
4. IV13: Oh

5. TS4: **The lit↑tle one** {paraphrasing}

Transcript 4.31: TS1 and a Myanmar IV (IV4)

1. TS1: Okay good so **how ↑MUCH** (.) **how much for month a ↑month**? {single-word question, combined repetition, lexicogrammatical repair}
2. IV4: [ah] **for ↑month** {other-repetition}
3. TS1: [in the contract]
4. IV4: **For month?** {question repeat}
5. TS1: [yeah] **for ↑month** {other-repetition}
6. IV4: **[yeah]** {inappropriate response}
7. TS1: So **how much for one ↑month you need to pay for (.) accommo↑da↓tion** {paraphrase with expansion}
8. IV4: ↑Ah accommoda↑tion is gonna be ah four thousand

3. Confirmation check: using discourse markers is when a discourse marker, e.g., you mean?' or 'right?', is used to check the listener's accuracy in understanding. Transcripts 4.32 – 4.35 illustrate when IVs from Bhutan and Japan successfully employ discourse markers in their conversations with TSs.

Transcript 4.32: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. IV12: **August** () no problem {key-word repetition}
2. TS4: No (.) it's gonna be a problem because you need to regis↑ter one more semester. | **You need to enroll for the next semester**. | That means you have to pay the tuition fee I think_ | (0.08) Because the next semester will begin in June. {paraphrasing}
3. IV12: **June** {other-repetition}
4. TS4: Yeah
5. IV12: Um () June (I need to make sure) (0.02)June start in June,
6. TS4: Um yeah **start in June** {key-word repetition}

7. IV12: This semester end in March **right**? {using discourse markers}
8. TS4: **End in ↑March** {other-repetition}

Transcript 4.33: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. TS4: Let me send the the let↑ter to them first and then they will go (post) it to their presi↑dent.
2. IV12: **Um** {backchannel}
3. TS4: And then let see the result but they they told me that there should not be a problem.
4. IV12: **You mean** (extend) where, {using discourse markers}
5. TS4: Ah I mean their
6. IV12: (**direc↑tor**) {lexical suggestion}
7. TS4: Ah yeah (0.02) their director

Transcript 4.34: TS1 and a Cambodian IV (IV3)

1. IV3: **Just only the name of the facul↑ty right?** {question tag}
2. TS1: ↑Yes
3. IV3: About the ot↑hers °no need° **right,** {using discourse markers}
4. TS1: No
5. IV3: Okay

Transcript 4.35: TS1 and a Myanmar IV (IV4)

1. TS1: Okay I will tell you£ | anyway you ↑should know that (.) <which line that you can take from the ga<u>t</u>e>
2. IV4: [**yeah**] {backchannel}
3. TS1: **The faculty to the ga<u>t</u>e**. {parallel phrasing}
4. IV4: So
5. TS1: [no no]
6. IV4: I need to change **right**? {using discourse markers}
7. TS1: <Ah only one ↑bus from here to the gate and from the

gate to here.

8. IV4: [**ah okay**] {backchannel}

4.1.3 Comparison of pragmatic strategies used by TSs and IVs

As is evident from Figure 4.3, the most frequently used strategies are backchannel, repetition, linguistic repair, clarification request, confirmation check, rising question intonation, laughter, signal of non-understanding, changing the topic, and code-switching.

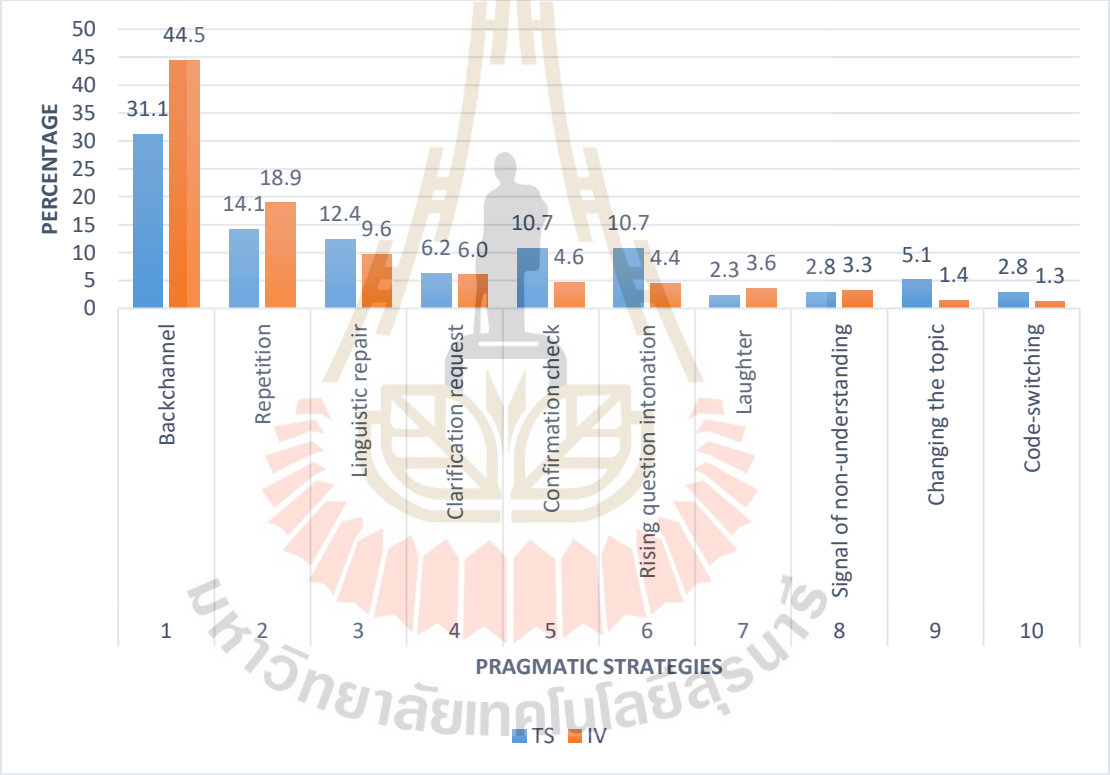


Figure 4.3 Comparison of the ten pragmatic strategies most frequently used by TSs and IVs

Although the most frequently employed strategies by both TSs and IVs were relatively similar, they used some slightly different strategies for the same categories. Clearly, both TSs and IVs used linguistic repair, but the TSs employed more lexicogrammatical repair, while the IVs made more use of the lexical anticipation (collaborative completions) strategy. The TSs were probably worried about accuracy

as in the interviews, they mentioned their worry about word choices and English grammar. Moreover, for clarification requests, the TSs used the Wh-clarification question strategy most frequently, while IVs used question repeat the most. This can probably be explained by the reasons the TSs provided later during the interviews, i.e., that they wanted to make every issue clear, so they asked straightforward questions of the IVs to clarify the matter under discussion.

Moreover, asking directly in order to clarify an issue is somewhat related to the cultural aspects of discourse because in many countries, face is important. Both TSs and IVs were asked about their choices in handling confusing and unclear messages and whether they would tell another interlocutor directly that they did not understand what was said. The TSs explained that they would usually tell the IVs directly. They provided one main reason for doing so, i.e., that they wanted to make the conversation as clear as possible in order to understand the needs of their visitors, in particular if important issues were being discussed. Interestingly, eight responses from IVs indicated that they would indirectly tell a TS if they did not understand what the TS was talking about. They would rather ask polite questions, such as, 'What you are saying was…' and 'Did you mean…?' instead of directly asking. They noted that directly asking was culturally considered rude. Therefore, they would probably tell the TS to repeat what was said. However, both TSs and IVs mentioned that if it was not an important issue, they usually let it pass.

Overall, these findings concerning pragmatic strategies are in accordance with findings reported by Kaur (2010), who found that although ELF speakers are from different lingual-cultural backgrounds, they share mutual understanding when they interact, adopting various useful strategies. Furthermore, a lack of linguistic competency is likely of little concern if the interlocutors are able to use such practices to reach mutual understanding (Kaur, 2010). Hence, in ELF interaction, particularly in the context of an international relations office in a Thai university, both interlocutors can also reach a shared understanding by employing pragmatic strategies. The findings of the current study demonstrate that both TSs and IVs in fact adopt relatively similar strategies in their conversations in IR offices.

4.2 Pragmatic strategies used by TSs when interacting with NESs and NNESs

4.2.1 Pragmatic strategies used by Thai international relations staff with native English speakers

The IVs who paid a visit to IR TS help desks originated from 11 different countries. To start with a group of native English speaking (NES) visitors, in this research setting only one each of the British, American, and Tanzanian visitors visited the offices during the data collection process. When TSs interacted with these visitors, they employed nine main strategies, of which the code-switching strategy was the most frequently used (27.9%). Next, backchannel (14.8%) and laughter (13.1%) were employed. Other strategies were also employed, such as repetition (9.8%), including key-word repetition, other-repetition, and self-repetition; changing the topic (8.2%); and rising question intonation (3.3%). Other strategies, such as confirmation check, comprehension check, signal of non-understanding, and clarification request were infrequently used. Figure 4.4 below illustrates the pragmatic strategies most frequently used by TSs when interacting with NES IVs.

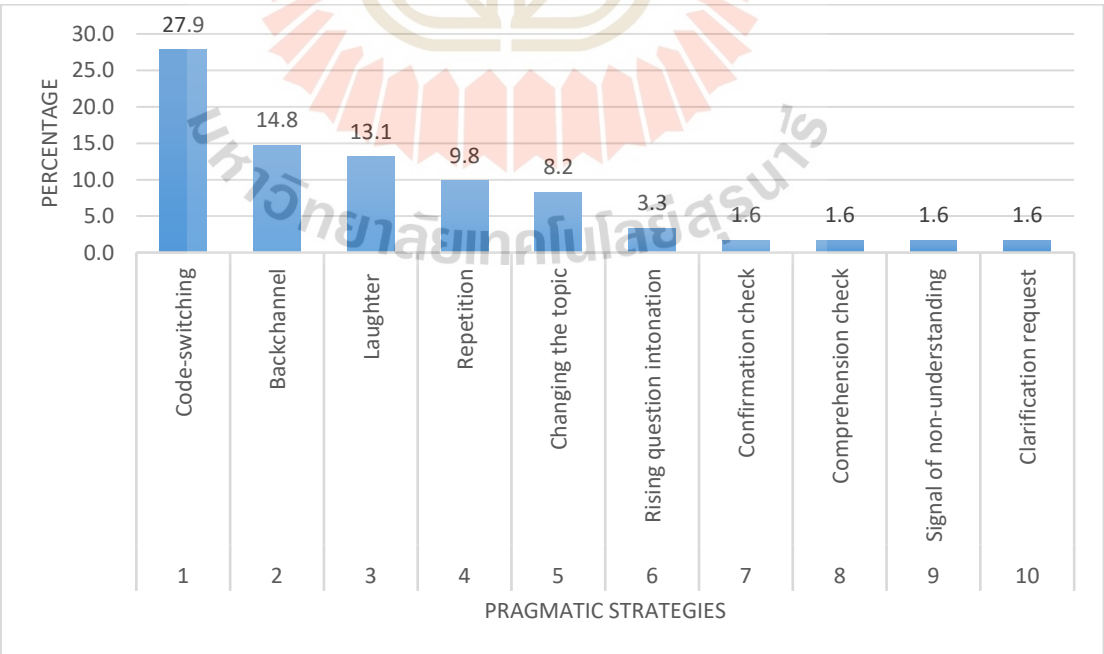


Figure 4.4 Pragmatic strategies used by Thai international relations staff with native English speakers

This example transcript (4.36) elaborates part of an approximately five-minute interaction between a TS (MA English, 4 years) and an IV from the United Kingdom (English language professor, 6 years) concerning the faculty printer usage. The first pragmatic strategy that appeared in this first turn was the rephrasing strategy, in order to reformulate a previous utterance using a different sentence with a slight variation, from 'I have no idea' to 'I don't know' in lines 1 and 3. The TS responded to this by offering to sort out his printer user password. While doing that, the utterances of the TS and IV were suggestive of their being well acquainted. It appeared that they knew each other well because the TS frequently switched to Northeastern Thai (a Lao dialect) and to Central Thai, in lines 4, 7, and 11. The TS had to know that the IV also understood these languages. This can also clearly be seen from his continued responses. Moreover, to make their conversation more understandable, the TS also used key-word repetition to provide an emphasis on the meaning, using 'right one' in line 9, after which the IV confirmed the correct hearing by saying 'yeah' in line 10.

Transcript 4.36 TS2 and a British IV (IV7)

1	IV7	I didn't I didn't choose that ↑card so **I have no idea**. (0.8) {combined repetition}
2	TS2	What's your username?
3	IV7	**I don't know.** {rephrasing}
4	TS2	**Out** ((Northeastern Thai interjection)) (0.3) **daew na** ((Thai)) let me let me (check) {code switching, code switching}
5	IV7	() I just tap my card every ↑time.
6		(0.7)
7	TS2	**Daew na daew gon** (.) **eham** by this {code switching}
8	IV7	But that's the right that's the right ↑one **right ek** {question tag}
9	TS2	Yeah **right one.** {key-word repetition}
10	IV7	Yeah that's what I (was thinking).
11	TS2	Okay ↑try (0.3) okay can you go try a↑gain oh no wait (0.7) **ni ngai ma la** (0.7) () it can {code switching}

4.2.2 Pragmatic strategies used by Thai international relations staff with non-native English speakers

Considering the group of visitors from NNES countries, some IVs were from neighbouring countries, where sociocultural backgrounds are shared to some extent, e.g. a number of Thai languages originated from Khmer (the Cambodian language). The TSs employed 12 strategies to negotiate understanding with NNESs from these countries, namely Cambodia, Myanmar and Vietnam. Backchannel was used most (31.1%) when the TSs conversed with IVs. TSs also repeated very often (14.1%), using the other-repetition strategy most often. Moreover, TSs confirmed understanding mostly by using discourse markers while they principally repaired themselves linguistically by adopting the lexicogrammatical repair strategy. The most frequently adopted strategies are presented in Figure 4.5.

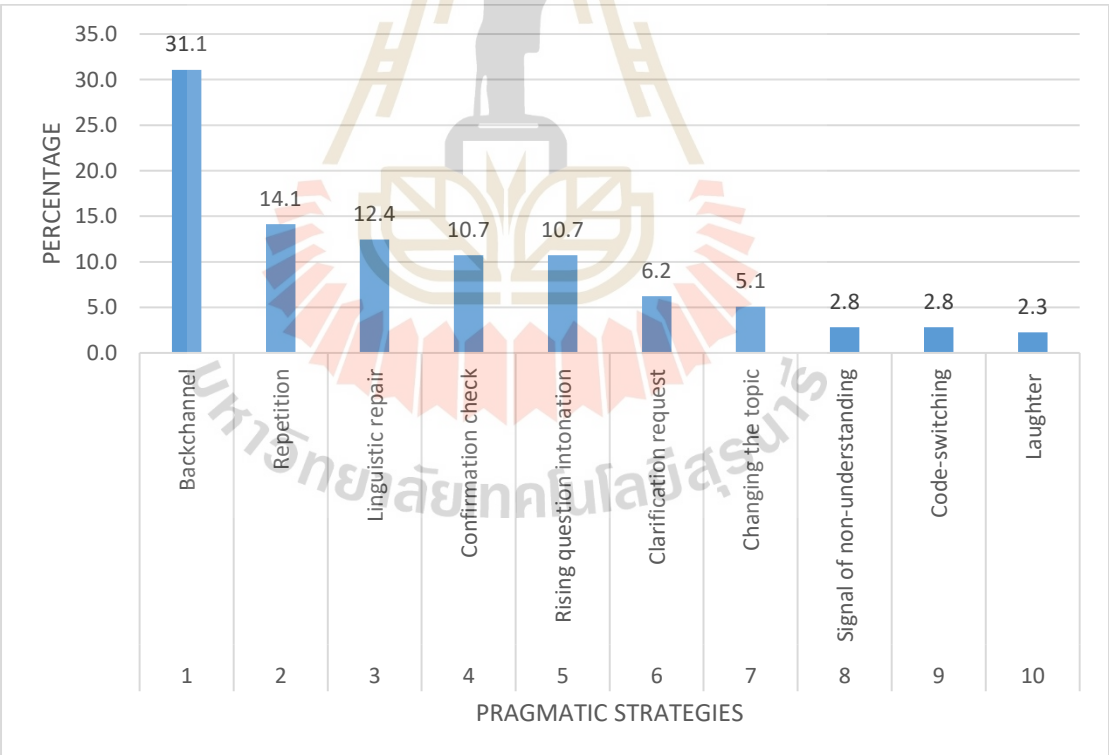


Figure 4.5 Pragmatic strategies TSs used with IVs from neighbouring countries

The interaction in Transcript 4.37 shows an extract from an almost nine-minute conversation between a TS (BA English, 3 years) and an IV from Vietnam (PhD student, 3 years) who needed to clear up a registration-related issue.

Transcript 4.37: TS3 and a Vietnamese IV (IV11)

1. TS3: ↑No oh **you mean** the last the last ↑day of the-the next semester? (.) | er let me see (0.2) I have a draft ↑here (0.4) <ah for graduate stu↑dents> it will be <seVENth> November or something. {using discourse markers}
2. IV11: **Seventh November** (oh too early) {other-repetition}
3. TS3: RIGHT becuz you know be ah we have already changed our ah
4. IV11: [**schedule**] {lexical anticipation}
5. TS3: **Ah yeah** {backchannel}
6. IV11: **Oh** (0.2) {backchannel}
7. TS3: It-it's earlier.
8. IV11: Becuz becuz when I came here the first first semester in January.
9. TS3: [**right**] {backchannel}
10. IV11: Yes
11. TS3: Right we >have< changed to June.
12. IV11: [**yeah**] {bakchannel}
13. TS3: So the last day of the <next semes↑ter> will be (.) right **seventh November.** {key-word repetition}
14. IV11: **Seventh November** {other-repetition}
15. TS3: **Seventh November** and then if you er you will be study↑ing **next in the next semester** {key-word repetition, lexicogrammatical repair}
16. IV11: [**yeah**] {backchannel}

In the example, the TS used the discourse marker 'you mean' in line 1 in order to check accuracy of understanding. Then, the linguistic repair strategy was employed in line 4. The IV uttered 'schedule' as he lexically anticipated in order to help complete this word. Throughout the conversation, both the TS and the IV also employed repetition strategies, such as key-word repetition and other repetition, in order to both emphasise meaning and confirm correct hearing (lines 2, 13, 14, and 15).

Regarding the pragmatic strategies used most by TSs with IVs from other Asian countries, which included Bhutan, China, Indonesia, Japan, and South Korea, the TSs employed 12 different pragmatic strategies. Backchannel was used the most (33.5%); however, they also extensively employed repetition strategies (21.5%), with other-repetition being the most frequent. Additionally, they employed a number of linguistic repair strategies (11.8%), with the most frequently employed being lexicogrammatical repair. For confirmation check (7.9%), discourse marker was the most often used strategy, while for clarification request (8.4%), Wh-clarification question was the most frequently employed strategy. Figure 4.6 clearly illustrates the strategies used most frequently by TSs with IVs from other Asian countries.

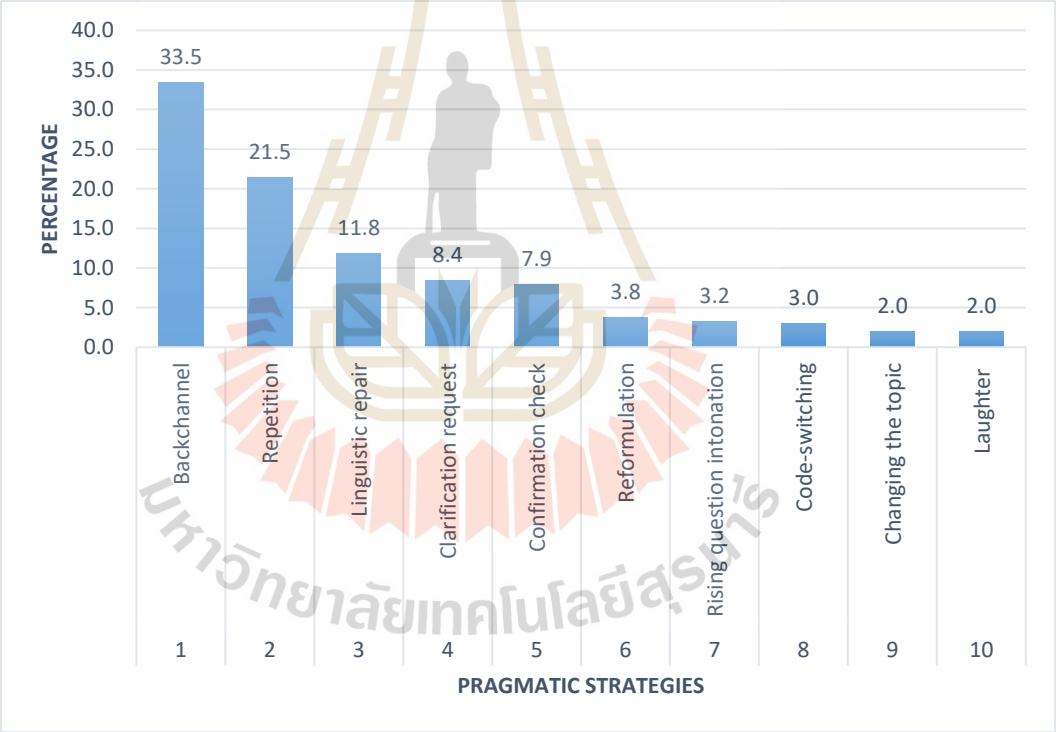


Figure 4.6 Pragmatic strategies used most by TSs with Asian IVs

The following transcript shows a TS (MA English, 4 years) and an IV from Korea (Volunteer teacher, 2 years) talking about a printer repair service.

Transcript 4.38: TS2 and a Korean IV (IV6)

1. TS2: But when we talk about ano↑ther thing like prin↑ter or the dri↑ver or the Window bro↑ken we need to ah outsour↑cing.

2. IV6: [**um**] {backchannel}
3. TS2: **Ano↑ther company**. {paraphrasing}
4. IV6: [**um**] {backchannel}
5. TS2: **Outside out faculty** to come and fix it. {paraphrasing}
6. IV6: [**um**] {backchannel}
7. TS2: And do when we do ↑that it takes a long time.
8. IV6: [**um**] {backchannel}
9. TS2: **It can be month two months de↑pends but in this ↑case** {paraphrase with expansion}
10. IV6: [**um**] {backchannel}
11. TS2: It's kind of impossi↑ble because they can↑celled using it already.

Obviously, backchannel was used extensively by the IV in this example. The TS started the first turn here by using the paraphrasing strategy for the word 'outsource' (lines 1, 3 and 5) so as to use different words with a similar meaning to help with clarifying this important matter for the IV. The IV showed he was listening and probably understanding by using the 'um' filler all the time. In line 9, the TS even used paraphrase with expansion to add explanation to her previous turn in line 7 about the time required for fixing the printer. However, the IV only responded briefly. It is rather impossible to be sure of his understanding at this point. The TS continued explaining without checking his comprehension, which can be done by using 'you know' and so on. This example presumably illustrates how one interlocutor can dominate a conversation as well as a failure in meaning negotiation to some extent.

In response to RQ2, it can be summarised that TSs used pragmatic strategies when interacting with NES visitors, who in this study were American and British IVs, together with a Tanzanian IV, whose official languages are Swahili and English, and that this is largely different from the pragmatic strategies that the TSs used when interacting with IVs from Thailand's neighbouring countries in Southeast Asia and more broadly from Asian countries.

Data from the interviews with the 18 IR TSs reveals further explanations regarding the use of the pragmatic strategies most frequently detected. Concerning backchannel use, TSs noted that they used the backchannel strategy to show attention (47.6%) and to show understanding (42.9%). Moreover, they also explained that they used the backchannel to think about what to say next (9.5%).

Regarding repetition strategies, TSs indicated that they adopted them mainly to clarify meaning and understanding (77.8%). In addition, they stated that they used repetition to avoid mistakes (11.1%) and to emphasise something (11.1%).

For the reasons behind code-switching, TSs explained that this strategy was adopted to help improve understanding (44.4%). They also noted that code-switching helped increase confidence (27.8%) and show friendliness or politeness (27.8%).

With regard to code-switching, which is considered to be one of the compensation strategies, it is described as the use of two or more languages in one conversation where the speakers speak or at least understand the language into which switching occurs (Turunen, 2012, p. 16). The results of the present study regarding code-switching are in agreement with those obtained by Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011), explaining that the most typical ELF features which occur in lingua franca interactions are code switching, cross-linguistic interactions, and simplification. In line with Firth's (2009) study, ELF speakers might borrow and use and re-use each other's language forms and switch and mix languages.

Moving to the use of the backchannel strategy, usage can depend on the L1 influence. For example, the Japanese often use the backchannel more frequently than the English (Clancy, 1996). This might affect the way they speak other languages as well. In the present study, Japanese visitors to IR offices tended to use a number of backchannels. Moreover, in English classes, teachers usually suggest to learners that to make the conversation flow smoothly and successfully, it might be better show mutual understanding, agreement, and politeness by using a backchannel. As Meierkord (2013) explained, the backchannel is a strategy found in ELF speech that can involve the substantial use of politeness. It is possible that the NNESs in this study similarly made use of the backchannel strategy because of this reason.

4.3 Meaning Negotiation between Thai International Relations Staff and International Visitors

This section describes various forms of meaning negotiation in the encounters between TSs and the IVS. Examples are extracted from transcripts. Some contextual explanations are also provided.

Transcript 4.39: TS2 and an American IV (IV5)

1. TS2 (so) Let me.
2. IV5 Do I sign any↑where here?
3. TS2 Yeah right ↑here (0.4) | so **you've done teaching for to↑day?** {rising question intonation}
4. IV5 Yeah
5. TS2 **Erm** {backchannel}
6. IV5 But I have to go () drama audi↑tions:.
7. TS2 **Sorry**? {minimal query}
8. IV5 [**Drama**] {key-word repetition}
9. TS2 **drama audi↑tion?** {question repeat}
10. IV5 <**Cuz I'm teaching the drama ↑class.** {combined repetition}
11. TS2 **↑Oh I see.** {backchannel}
12. IV5 **[yeah]** {backchannel}
13. TS2 Ajarn Ajarn [name] have you heard this name ↑before | er she used to be the person who's responsible for the drama for the English-majored students.
14. IV5 Oh I have heard of her she she doesn't teach at [name] anymore.
15. TS2 Yeah she changed to this £building£ actually.
16. IV5 [**yeah**] {backchannel}

Transcript 4.39 shows a conversation between a TS (MA English, 4 years) and an American IV (English teacher, 3 months). It can be seen that although the main theme of the conversation regarded signing a document, in lines 1 and 3, the TS initiated small talk afterwards by asking whether the IV had finished her classes for that day.

The TS used the rising question intonation strategy here, in line 3, in ‘so you’ve done teaching for today’. The TS also used ‘so’ to signal topic changing. This made the conversation sound natural. The IV replied informally in line 4 but did not add any further comments. The IV probably realized this from the TS’s short token ‘erm’, then she continued talking. The TS might also have used the backchannel to think about what to say next. The IV then explained about her activity regarding a drama audition in line 6, which the TS did not seem to understand or may not have caught the words. Here, the TS used a minimal query strategy, ‘sorry’, to ask for another chance at clearer hearing (line 7). The IV then used key-word repetition (pronouncing an important word again in a louder manner) of the word ‘drama’. At this point, the TS asked about the ‘drama audition’ again by using question repeat with a rising intonation to request clarification. Then, the IV made her meaning clearer by employing a combined repetition strategy, which was to repeat the phrase using either a synonym or further explanation about the utterance. Then, both the TS and the IV used the backchannel strategy to show understanding, by saying ‘oh I see’ and ‘yeah’. Right after that, the TS, who had some knowledge about this drama class and a previous teacher, introduced a new but connected topic by continuing with talking about the previous teacher. Obviously, both of them shared some background knowledge about this class, as the TS was an English major graduate from this faculty. From this, it can be clearly seen that the use of small talk was able to build a good rapport between them. Therefore, although the main intention of the IV’s visit was in regard to documentation, the TS and IV employed small talk as well. In doing so, the TS and IV were likely to develop a good rapport. All in all, this example shows various pragmatic strategies, i.e., the rising question intonation, confirmation check, comprehension check, repetition, and backchannel strategies, were used to make the conversation more intelligible to another interlocutor.

Transcript 4.40: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV12)

1. TS4: But yester↑day he he said that (.) er (0.04) he tried to like hold the (.) thesis (.) exam by March not ↑April.
2. IV12: [no no] (.) () (March) () **what what** {single-word question}
3. TS4: **June** {lexical anticipation}

4. IV12: **June** | (0.12) **(this is) summer break no, (.) () sum↑mer break?** {other-repetition, rising question intonation)
5. TS4: Yeah
6. IV12: And what I want I wanted to work in (that) summer break and ()|(0.7) When I can (0.04)
7. TS4: So now we are wai↑ting for the academic calen↑dar for the next semester.
8. IV12: Um not sure
9. TS4: So **not sure** ↑but (.) it will <begin> (.) maybe {other-repetition}
10. IV12: **June** (0.06) {lexical anticipation}
11. TS4: I think it will be in June early **June** (0.02) {key-word repetition}
12. IV12: (Then I must finish within May)
13. TS4: **Yeah** {backchannel}

This example conversation (Transcript 4.40) between a TS (BA, Business English, 2 years) and an IV from Bhutan (PhD student, 3 years) was mainly related to the timeframe for a thesis and the arrangements for a thesis examination. This whole conversation lasted around 20 minutes; the transcript shows part of it. When the TS explained a tentative month for an examination to the IV, he sounded his disbelief. He employed the single-word question strategy 'what' to request clarification in line 2. The TS clarified this by using the key-word repetition strategy for the month 'June' (line 3). The IV at the same time also used the lexical anticipation strategy to help the speaker to complete the utterance about the month. Then, there was a long pause (0.12) in line 4 before he continued. The IV then used rising question intonation to confirm the information again with 'summer break?'. In this situation, the IV seemed to take a longer time for each turn. Pauses have meaning in a conversation, and a typical pause in speech lasts only about a quarter to half a second (Lundholm Fors, 2015). In this conversation, however, the pause took longer than that. When a speaker takes a long time to respond to what was said, it might be interpreted as disagreement or a lack of interest. It can also mean a person is gathering their thoughts before delivering an utterance or is struggling to say it. In this case, the IV was probably

checking his schedule and thinking through the research plan while talking. The IV expressed hesitation over the due date, while the TS used the other-repetition strategy with the phrase 'not sure' to show alignment and to confirm correct hearing (lines 8 – 9). Then, in lines 10–11, the month mentioned earlier was clarified and repeated. This was done in order to make sure both interlocutors reached mutual understanding. Generally, this transcript shows various examples of the use of pragmatic strategies to negotiate intelligibility, such as the repetition, comprehension check, rising question intonation, linguistic repair and backchannel strategies.

Transcript 4.41: TS4 and a Bhutanese IV (IV13)

1	TS4:	And he said that he said that why ↑you [name] can get mo↑ney and I (said) yeah he he get but they will get the money back from [name] | (0.03) he doesn't seem understand but but he need to understand (.) because he thought ↑that he will get the money **the allo↑wance** for February {lexical replacement}
2	IV13:	**Um** {backchannel}
3	TS4:	And [name] said that no
4	IV13:	[[**name**]] {other-repetition}
5	TS4:	They will stop
6	IV13:	[[name]] [name] () not yet
7	TS4:	Yeah because (.) as you know that he go back ↑first for his health problem
8	IV13:	**Um** {backchannel}
9	TS4:	and also **for tea↑ching right**? {using discourse markers}
10	IV13:	**Um** {backchannel}
11	TS4:	Yeah but we cannot tell [name] that he go for tea↑ching
12	IV13:	[**yeah**] {backchannel}
13	TS4:	We have to confirm that he have to go back
14	IV13:	**for his health problem** {collaborative completions}
15	TS4:	Yeah and [name] always ask me like you know I I'm the person who always contact to [name]

Transcript 4.41 exemplifies part of the interaction between a TS (BA Business English, 2 years) and an IV from Nepal (MA student, 2 years) regarding a scholarship student allowance. In total, the conversation lasts almost 40 minutes, but this example shows when the TS explained a topic in detail and subsequently used the lexical replacement strategy to replace an incorrect word in the previous utterance, i.e., in the first turn shown, that is, the word 'allowance'. This strategy is one of the linguistic repair strategies that can help another interlocutor understand the message correctly. The IV showed understanding by just expressing a filler, i.e., 'um'. Then, the TS continued by mentioning the IV's friend name a few times, while the IV used the other-repetition strategy by repeating that name to confirm correct hearing in line 4. The TS also used an alternative word with rising intonation and the discourse marker 'right' (line 9) to check accuracy in understanding. In this circumstance, it seemed that the TS and IV discussed quite a serious issue concerning another student, a friend of this IV, whose allowance would be withdrawn and who had to go back to his own country to teach in order to earn some income but who also had to report to the teacher and the school that he had to return to recover from a health problem. In particular, the second reason seemed to be understood by both the TS and the IV as part of a collaborative completion strategy was used for the phrase 'for his health problem' (line 14). In general, this example conversation shows how meaning negotiation was successfully conducted by employing a number of pragmatic strategies, for example the repetition, comprehension check, backchannel and collaborative completion strategies.

Transcript 4.42: TS5 and a Cambodian IV (IV16)

1. TS5: Er (0.02) () well it like do your work (.) ah will be finished on (.) within Ju↑ly **right**? | you know this scholarship will be (°expired°) until July. {using discourse markers}
2. IV16: <Yes (next next next) **Ju↑ly** but I think I-I can finish. {other-repetition}
3. TS5: **This year**? {rising question intonation}
4. IV16: No next ↑year (.) **two twenty-one twenty twenty-one**. {lexical replacement}
5. TS5: **Ah** {backchannel}

6. IV16: Because I'm ()
7. TS5: This is just the second year **right**? |↑okay(h) {using discourse markers}
8. IV16: Yeah
9. TS5: [okay]
10. IV16: Now it's **second year**. {key-word repetition}
11. TS5: Okay(h)so **I'm a little (bit) I'm a little bit** con↑fused becuz you're a PhD stu↑dent. {self-repetition}
12. IV16: Yes
13. TS5: Not a mas°ter° stu↑dent okay |(0.02) okay so did you plan to like to-to ↑join the confe↑rence:?
14. IV16: Oh
15. TS5: **(to the same one there?)** {rising question intonation}
16. IV16: I already (tried) last ↑year (but) er this year this year I'm not sure becuz I'm try: to (.) to publish °the° the paper.
17. TS5: **Oh** {backchannel}

Transcript 4.42 is an extract of a five-minute conversation between a TS (MA English, 10 years) and an IV from Cambodia (PhD student, 3 years) concerning a study plan by which the IV wanted to get his research article published. The TS employed the discourse marker strategy 'right' twice in this example, to check accuracy of understanding, as can be seen in lines 1 and 7. Both uses were responded to directly, with 'yes' and 'yeah'. The TS then used rising question intonation in 'This year?' (line 3) to request clarification, to which the IV employed the lexical replacement strategy in line 4 to replace an incorrect utterance with the correct one with regard to the year. Moreover, the key-word repetition strategy 'second year' in line 10 was used in order to narrow the scope of the ongoing talk. The TS also used the self-repetition strategy, in line 11, probably to let the other interlocutor have another chance at hearing or to emphasise her confusion. Although in line 15, the TS used the rising question intonation strategy with 'to the same one?' instead of a more grammatically correct question, that it was understood correctly by the IV is demonstrated by the fact that he could reply by supplying a detailed explanation, in line 16. This sample, therefore,

illustrates several uses of pragmatic strategies to make both interlocutors' utterances understandable, such as the repetition, rising question intonation, reformulation, and backchannel strategies.

Transcript 4.43: TS6 and two Indonesian IVs (IV20)

1. TS6: Ah this is your si student ID_
2. IV20: ° **Student ID ° (0.04) here?** {question repeat}
3. TS6: Yes
4. IV20: **Student ID** {key-word repetition}
5. TS6: Yes (0.53) o↑kay let me check
6. IV20: **Ah** (0.04) {backchannel}
7. TS6: Okay this is the doctor degree >please< select this one
8. IV20: **This one?** {question repeat}
9. TS6: Yes (0.04) | **what is the study plan that you would like to change one point one or which one?** {Wh-clarification question}
10. IV20: Ah the before our
11. TS6: [**the next**] {lexical replacement}
12. IV20: **The next** {other-repetition}
13. IV20(2): [the next]
14. TS6: The new one that you would like to change (0.09) ah ah this this one should be before_
15. IV20: **Before** {other-repetition}
16. TS6: Yes (0.04) | okay **this one is your ma↑jor science educa↑tion?** {rising question intonation}
17. IV20: [**yeah**] {backchannel}
18. TS6: Yes you write here (0.54) | okay this is ah you studying the fulltime **right?** {using discourse markers}
19. IV20: **Fulltime** yes {other-repetition}
20. TS6: Yes first one
21. IV20: **This one?** {using an alternative word/phrase with a rising intonation}
22. TS6: Yes (0.08) | Okay: (0.02) okay this one you should to put the the old study plan one point ↑one,

A TS (BA International Affairs, 2 years) and two IVs (PhD students, 2 years) talking about changing their study programme is illustrated in Transcript 4.43, which is part of an eleven-minute interaction. Two IVs who had enrolled in the same PhD programme visited the TS's office to fill in plan change forms. In the first turn here, the TS asked the IVs to provide their student identification information. In line 2 and later in lines 8 and 21, the IVs used the question repeat strategy via rising intonation for a clarification request. Those turns were sufficiently comprehensible because the TS could reply 'yes' and continued talking. In lines 9–15, the TS tried to request clarification on the change plan. She used a Wh-clarification question in line 9, 'which one?'. Although the IV provided the answer 'the before…', both sides employed the key-word repetition strategy to narrow down the meaning, in lines 11 – 13, with 'the next'. However, in line 14, the TS changed to lexical replacement to correct a word to 'the new one' and added explanation to help with understanding. The IV wanted to ensure correct understanding, so she employed the key-word repetition strategy for the word 'before', which was understood by the TS. Then, the TS continued asking for clarification by using the rising question intonation strategy in line 16. Next, the TS employed the discourse marker 'right?' to ensure accuracy of understanding for the student status 'full-time', in lines 18–19. Both sides comprehended the other relatively well. This could have been because the turns were quite consistent, i.e., responses were given straightaway. Although there were both short and long pauses in the conversation, this did not mean their communication was unsuccessful. They paused because the TS had to help with checking the forms for the IVs and because the IVs had to fill in the information as well. All in all, they actively adopted several pragmatic strategies to ensure that their messages were understood correctly.

Transcript 4.44: TS1 and a Japanese IV (IV1)

1.	TS1	So, I got the information(.)
2.	IV1	Thank you very much.
3.	TS1	Yes (.) It's Thailand Post.
4.	IV1	**Huh**? {minimal query}
5.	TS1	**Thailand Post** {self-repetition}
6.	IV1	**Thailand Po Post** {interrogative echo}

7. TS1 Thailand Post
8. IV1 **Ah, ↓Thailand Post** {backchannel, other repetition}
9. TS1 Yes. The red white one
10. IV1 (Thai) (0.5) **Thailand Post** {other-repetition, self-repetition}

Transcript 4.44 is part of a nine-minute conversation showing a TS (MA English for Careers, 10 years) helping an IV from Japan (Public Health teacher, 4 years) regarding shipping parcels back to Japan. In the first turn shown here, the TS stated that she had received his inquiry. In line 3, she provided the information which this Japanese professor needed about the place to ship his parcel. In the first few turns, the TS used the key-word repetition strategy with the phrase 'Thailand Post' to place emphasis on the meaning, in line 5. The IV was unfamiliar with this word, so he used pronunciation repair to make sure he got the right phrase in line 6, 'Thailand Po Post'. Then, in lines 8 and 10, the IV seemed to have a problem with understanding the phrase 'Thailand Post'. He employed the interrogative echo strategy to signal non-understanding. Next, the TS continued talking about other things, while the IV only responded briefly with some backchannel strategies. It is possible that this represented a failure in negotiation of meaning because the TS supplied a little additional explanation regarding 'Thailand Post' when she said 'red white one', which was a contextualized clue. In doing this with a different interlocutor with a different sociocultural background, it would likely have been a failure to communicate. The TS might need to use other pragmatic strategies to help make this more understandable, such as by adopting the lexicogrammatic replacement strategy or the paraphrasing strategy.

Transcript 4.45: TS2 and a Korean IV (IV6)

1. TS2: **Why don't you use the main prin↑ter?** {self-repetition}
2. IV6: Ah now I using my note↑book.
3. TS2: **[ah ha]** {backchannel}
4. IV6: So no internet is difficult.
5. TS2: ah **it is difficult** {other-repetition}
6. IV6: Yeah **it is difficult to connect the internet** so ah I {rephrasing}
7. TS2: **Why don't you change to the PC the laptop one,** {Wh-

clarification question}

8. IV6: **Ah** {backchannel}
9. TS2: I mean **why don't you use the compu↑ter** {paraphrasing}
10. IV6: [**yeah**] {backchannel}
11. TS2: Instead of note↑book
12. IV6: **Yeah I use my notebook** so {inappropriate response}
13. TS2: **You don't use computer?** {rising question intonation}
14. IV6: **Yeah** I don't ah-ah (0.02) university computers. {inappropriate response}
15. TS2: [**um**] {backchannel}
16. IV6: **I don't use university computer ah becuz ah I have a work personally or ah-ah.** {combined repetition}
17. TS2: **Easier?** {rising question intonation}
18 IV6: To teaching **to to to teaching**. {self-repetition}
19. TS2: So it conve↑nient for you.

Transcript 4.45 illustrates a conversation between a TS (MA English, 4 years) and an IV from Korea (Volunteer teacher, 2 years) concerning how to get a printer repair service. The TS suggested a number of options to the IV. For example, in lines 1, 7, and 9, 'why don't you…' was used to provide help, but for the first suggestion, the IV said he had a connection difficulty. Here, other-repetition was also used in line 5, to confirm correct hearing, with 'it is difficult'. The IV tried to rephrase his reason in line 6. Then, the second and third suggestions were given. At this point, however, the IV showed his non-understanding by responding inappropriately in line 12 with 'I use my notebook', when in fact the TS advised him to use the faculty computer instead of his own notebook. By responding like this, the TS attempted to make sure the IV could understand properly by using the rising question intonation strategy with 'you don't use computer?' in line 13. The IV understood that and replied to the TS in line 14 that he did not use the university computers. The IV made use of the combined repetition strategy in line 16 to add an explanation and use of the self-repetition strategy 'to teaching' in line 18 to provide another chance at understanding. In general, both the

TS and IV tried to convey their purposes by using several pragmatic strategies, including repetition, different kinds of signal of non-understanding, linguistic repair, backchannel, and clarification request.

Transcript 4.46: TS5 and a Japanese IV (IV15)

1. IV15: Yeah ah (0.02) so **Thai peo↑ple is so (.) everyone like Hokkaido**. {lexicogrammatical repair}
2. TS5: Yeah
3. IV15: **Why**(h)? {single-word question}
4. TS5: ((**laughter**)) {laughter}
5. IV15: ((**laughter**)) {laughter}
6. TS5: Becuz they ne↑ver see snow.
7. IV15: **Oh** {backchannel}
8. TS5: want to **see snow**. {key-word repetition}
9. IV15: **Ah huh** {backchannel}
10. TS5: **Snow in for Thai peo↑ple very quite | (.) It's real↑ly exci↑ting for Thai peo↑ple** becuz we ↑don't have {lexicogrammatical repair}
11. IV15: **Um** {backchannel}
12. TS5: **Snow** {key-word repetition}
13. IV15: eating (.) **eating** something yes the seafood is very ↑good. {key-word repetition}
14. TS5: **Ah** {backchannel}
15. IV15: in Hokkaido
16. TS5: **Ah ah** {backchannel}
17. IV15: So that Japanese peo↑ple this go to Hokkaido (purpose) is the **eating seafood.** {key-word repetition}
18. TS5: <**Eating seafood**, {other-repetition}
19. IV15: Yeah **eating seafood**. {key-word repetition}
20. TS5: **It's good**, {rising question intonation}
21. IV15: Yes
22. TS5: **sea↑food** {key-word repetition}

23. IV15: **It's good**. {other-repetition}
24. TS5: **What what what what peo↑ple want to eat in Hokkaido** {lexicogrammatical repair}
25. IV15: Um so fish
26. TS5: [**fish**] {other-repetition}
27. IV15: **fa↑mous fish** {combined repetition}

Transcript 4.46 is an extract from small talk concerning cultural aspects between a TS (MA English, 5 years) and an IV from Japan (Engineering professor, 3 months) which lasts almost 10 minutes. They interacted using various pragmatic strategies to enhance understanding and to make their communication friendlier and smoother. As can be clearly seen, throughout this conversation both of them used the other-repetition strategy to repeat words or phrases in the previous turn to show alignment and to confirm correct hearing. Although this conversation was merely a chat, both the TS and the IV made an effort to employ the lexicogrammatical repair strategy in order to try to replace non-standard lexicogrammatical features, in lines 1 and 10. All in all, this example conversation presents various uses of pragmatic strategies, and the backchannel was predominantly employed here. However, other strategies were also adopted, such as linguistic repair and repetition.

Transcript 4.47: TS2 and a Korean IV (IV6)

1. IV6 So you come here um **techni↑cian printer ↓techni↑cian ah please please technician come ↑here,** {self-repetition}
2. TS2 [**umm**] {backchannel}
3. IV6 Ah I want to fix the print°er°.
4. TS2 [**umm**] {backchannel}
5. IV6 Yes how-**how much is it pay?** {Wh-clarification question}
6. TS2 [**ah huh]** {backchannel}
7. IV6 Yes (0.03) war ah warranty warranty period not not er during the warranty war-warranty period I don't pay the money to him. (0.2)
8. TS2 [umm] (0.06) **Kai pen kon sue** (whispering to herself in) | **Do you have the receipt huh?** | (0.90) Battery mod Ajarn_ {code

switching, direction question}

9. IV6 ↑**Ah um** {supportive backchannel}
10. TS2 **Diew na_** (0.3) {code switching, interpersonal control}
11. IV6 [**umm**] {backchannel}
12. TS2 **Aou ber ni gor dai.** (1.01) **Where do you buy ↑>it< do you know where-where where did you it?** {code switching, Wh-clarification question, self-repetition}
13. IV6 Ah **I don't °understand°** (well) I don't know (0.8) um two years or three years {explicit statement}
14. TS2 **What's the problem about the printer?** {Wh-clarification question}
15. IV6 Thi:s this problem (1.98)
16. TS2 So right now they ↑said that we need to call them again tomorrow at ten_
17. IV6 Umm **so**? {rising question intonation}
18. TS2 **At ten becuz <the> <technicians are out to the> to fixing things** {combined repetition}
19. IV6 [**umm**] {backchannel}
20. TS2 **Outside the office.** {paraphrase with expansion}
21. TS2 So tomorrow at ten we call again.
22. IV6 **Tomorrow**, {interrogative echo}
23. TS2 **At ten_** {self-repetition}
24. IV6 **At ten?** {interrogative echo}
25. TS2 Yeah he said call again.
26. IV6 [**again**] {key-word repetition}
27. TS2 There will be another one another technician receive the phone call.
28. IV6 [**ah**] {backchannel}
29. TS2 Becuz they will prepare the the <fixing instru↑ments>_
30. IV6 [**umm**] {backchannel}
31. TS2 About nine or ten so

32. IV6 [**umm**] {backchannel}
33. TS2 Ten would be the best time_
34. IV6 [**umm**] {backchannel}
35. TS2 For calling tomor↑row.
36. IV6 Yes () **I don't know ()** {explicit statement}
37. TS2 **Huh**? {minimal query}
38. IV6 **Time**? {rising question intonation}
39. TS2 Ten_
40. IV6 **Ten** ↑:ah↓ Ten ↑a.m. {other-repetition}

Transcript 4.47 is an extract from an approximately 8-minute conversation regarding facility maintenance between a TS (MA English, 4 years) and an IV from South Korea (Volunteer teacher, 2 years). The IV talked about the technical assistance that he needed in line 1 by using the self-repetition strategy to repeat a part or the whole of his/her own previous utterance to provide a listener with another chance at hearing. Throughout this conversation, it appears that both of them used a number of backchannel strategies. They also employed asking questions, either for a confirmation check, with direct questions, or for a clarification request, with Wh-clarification questions. For example, the direct question strategy is used by the TS in line 8, with 'do you have the receipt huh?,' and a Wh-clarification question is by the IV in line 5, with 'how much is it pay?'. Moreover, the TS switched to Thai three times, in lines 8, 10, and 12, but each time did not elaborate on her expressions to make them more intelligible. She probably switched to her L1 to give herself time to think and manage things to serve the IV. Interestingly, the IV used signal of non-understanding strategies, including the explicit statements of 'I don't know' and 'I don't understand' (lines 13 and 36) and the interrogative echo; that is, to repeat an utterance or problematic item in the previous utterance with rising intonation, when he encountered a difficulty with intelligibility, lines 24 and 26. The last part of this transcript shows that although this TS made an effort to explain about how to contact the computer shop and an appropriate time to call, her attempt almost failed as she kept having to explain to the IV, who only used the backchannels of 'ah' and 'umm' to respond to her. Then,

the IV said ‘I don’t know’ in line 36, but this was not about unambiguous understanding of what the TS had said. In fact, he was not sure if he could make a phone call the next morning. Therefore, he asked for confirmation by using the rising question intonation strategy ‘Time?’ in line 38. Generally, although both of them struggled during the conversation, various strategies, such as the repetition, comprehension check, linguistic repair and clarification request strategies were used to help them reach understanding in this situation.

Transcript 4.48: TS1 and a Myanmar/Burmese IV (IV2)

1. TS1 ↑Actually we can find the detail (.) in the yes
2. IV2 **In the book** {lexical anticipation, collaborative completions}
3. TS1 Document **you have the big one?** {rising question intonation}
4. IV2 <YES **big one** I-I left in my I in my room **do you want**, {other-repetition, direction question)
5. TS1 Ah we can check it ↑**but** I will check it with the <representative> of this company
6. IV2 **Ah** {backchannel}
7. TS1 **Yes** {backchannel}
8. IV2 Yes yes () it look like this one in ah in ↓my own country at the time I got back pain I go to () hospi↑tal.
9. TS1 **Erm** {backchannel}
10. IV2 And then I registered in the OPD.
11. TS1 **Erm** {backchannel}
12. IV2 And then I got treat↑ment (alone) for () **ultra-ultrasound er how can I say it radi ultrasound ↑wave** in here and (electrode) only two treat↑ments only | that’s enough for one ↑week and treatment I got treatment and then I relieved my pain it’s okay. {lexicogrammatical repair}
13. TS1 [**erm**] {backchannel}
14. IV2 In here I want to treat look like this.
15. TS1 [**erm**] {backchannel}
16. IV2 But in here I cannot (know) the procedure I want to know

17. TS1 [er] **what happened with your ↑back? | why-why?** {Wh-clarification question, single-word question}
18. IV2 [yes] Because ah my back pain is look like Ajarn (name) Ajarn-Ajarn also tell me she she always get the treatment
19. TS1 **Erm** {backchannel}
20. IV2 Look like this the same because () is we have (technician) only we don't do we don't want to do the surgery look like this and for the relief of pain.

This example transcript (4.48) is part of a 4-minute conversation between a TS (MA English for Careers, 10 years) and an IV from Myanmar (PhD student, 1 year) relating to a doctor's appointment for back pain. Although this extract is rather short, it shows various pragmatic strategies were employed by both the TS and the IV. In line 2, the IV used the lexical anticipation strategy to collaboratively complete what the TS wanted to say, i.e., 'in the book'. Then, the TS used rising question intonation in line 3 when saying 'you have the big one?' to request clarification. Although the TS probably did not recall the phrase 'student manual', it appeared to be understood by the IV in that she could reply right away by using key-word repetition with 'big one' in line 4. She also asked 'do you want' afterwards. The TS explained the reason why she referred to the 'big one' (the student manual) to IV (line 5), and it seemed as if the IV understood it, as she replied 'ah'. Then, the IV explained her symptoms and the previously received treatment to the TS. While talking about her condition, the IV also attempted to correct herself (line 12) to ensure the TS's understanding. Additionally, clarification request strategies, including a single-word question and Wh-clarification question, were used in line 17 by the TS. All in all, although the backchannel strategy was used extensively in this example extract, the confirmation check and repetition strategies were also used.

Transcript 4.49: TS3 and a Vietnamese IV (IV11)

1.	TS3:	Okay er **I will continue for ↑you I mean I >will proceed< this** and you will re↑ceive an email through {lexicogrammatical repair}
2.	IV11:	[**yes**] {backchannel}
	TS3:	in here
3.		
4.	IV11:	**In ↑here** I will get this? {question repeat}
5.	TS3:	No no you will go to the internatio↑nal
6.	IV11:	(I-I)
7.	TS3:	**Relations affairs** {lexical replacement}
8.	IV11:	**Ah** okay. {backchannel}
9.	TS3:	Er >no< **i(h)nternational affairs division.** {lexical replacement}
10.	IV11:	**Ah yes yes.** {backchannel}
11.	TS3:	The fourth floor over there.
12.	IV11:	Yes **not here**. {paraphrasing}
13.	TS3:	**Not here** (0.3) okay it >will< take like as before **you ↑know**. {other-repetition, using 'you know?'}
14.	IV11:	[**yes**] {backchannel}
15.	TS3:	You-you already know that **right?** {using discourse markers}
16.	IV11:	↑Thank you so much.

Transcript 4.49 shows part of an almost 9-minute conversation between a TS (BA English, 3 years) and an IV from Vietnam (PhD student, 3 years) who needed to settle a registration-related issue. In the first turn from this example, the TS employed the linguistic repair strategy (lexicogrammatical replacement) in order to correct her previous words. Moreover, 'you know' was also used in line 29 after the TS's utterance in order to monitor the IV's understanding. In this situation, the TS made use of this in order to ensure understanding as the issue they were discussing was vital. The TS

employed repetition strategies, such as key-word repetition for ‘not here’, in order to both emphasise meaning and confirm correct hearing, in line 29. The TS used a discourse marker in line 31, i.e., ‘right’, in order to check accuracy in understanding. Although a number of backchannel strategies were used in this example conversation, various types of other pragmatic strategies, namely the comprehension check and reformulation strategies, were also employed in order to make sure the interlocutors’ utterances were understood correctly.

4.4 Discussion

This study sought firstly to investigate the pragmatic strategies used in international relations offices in a Thai university context. The present results are in line with those of previous studies, whereby several reports have shown that ELF speakers usually employ strategies to make their utterances more intelligible. For instance, in Galloway and Rose (2015), ELF users accomplished communication by using a number of pragmatic strategies to negotiate meaning promptly and to overcome miscommunications when they occurred. ELF speakers expressed the desired content, or at least close to the desired content, and if the meaning was not clear from their utterances, they attempted to reinforce it through pragmatic strategies, i.e., repetition, paraphrase, and other strategies (Kecskes, 2019). Although similar studies were conducted in different settings, the results from this study seem consistent with previous studies, as various pragmatic strategies were employed by Thai IR staff when interacting with international visitors. For example, in a study conducted by Sato (2019) concerning strategies implemented in ELF interactions, it was also found that ELF users employed a variety of communication strategies to achieve mutual understanding and deal with uncertainty in ELF conversations. A similar finding was also reported by Firth (2009), wherein various strategies were often found in ELF conversations, in which ELF users activated complex pragmatic strategies to help them negotiate meaning.

As it is reported in the present study that the most frequently used strategy by TSs was the backchannel, this finding broadly supports the work of other studies in this

area linking accommodation strategies and ELF speakers. As explained by Shepard, Giles and Le Poire (2001), one of the key accommodation strategies was discourse management strategies, which included such strategies as topic selection and backchannel. In a study conducted by Tanaka (2008) on certain strategies used in ELF, it was revealed that the backchannel was commonly seen in the data. In a more recent study by Lee (2020), it was shown that ELF speakers often use the backchannel in order to maintain a high degree of politeness and to display empathy and involvement, and this shows that ELF is highly cooperative and mutually supportive in nature.

In accordance with the present results, previous studies have demonstrated that the backchannel is used in ELF conversations most frequently in order to show attention and understanding. Although the findings revealed mostly short response tokens, such as 'yeah', 'ehm', and 'uh', these showed reaction and acknowledgement, as explained by Lee (2020). Furthermore, the results of this present study regarding the backchannel are in accord with studies by Bjørge (2010), Cogo and Dewey (2012), Lee (2020), Mauranen (2006), and Schegloff (1982).

Similarly, Cogo and Dewey (2006) suggested that repetition was employed to ensure understanding. The interview data in the present study discovered this as well. This finding is also consistent with data obtained by Cogo (2009) and Mauranen (2012). Interestingly, the informants added that they used repetition to make sure key information was comprehended correctly.

Additionally, the findings of the present research as regards the other pragmatic strategies found to have been used by TSs are consistent with the data obtained by Jenkins, Cogo and Dewy (2011) and Sato (2019), as presented in the literature review chapter. They include linguistic repair, confirmation check, clarification request, code-switching, reformulation, laughter, and signal of non-understanding. The present results further support the idea of ELF interactions where speakers from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds who use English as their shared language of communication include various pragmatic strategies to enable communication.

The data analysis for the second part of RQ1 of this study concernsthe pragmatic strategies used by IVs in Thai university IR offices. The most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that the backchannel was used most frequently by IVs from different

countries. The findings clearly indicate that the purposes of using the backchannel were mainly to show understanding and to attention when having a conversation. Overall, these findings are in accordance with previously reported findings. They corroborate the ideas of Schegloff (1982), who suggested that the backchannel shows that the speaker is listening to and interested in the main channel speaker's talk and encourages the other to continue the talk. These findings also seem to be consistent with other research which found that the speakers can know each other's position and are comfortable when speaking because they can know that the interlocutor is listening to them and understands what they have said (Fujie et al., 2005). Moreover, these findings support previous research into this area in which the backchannel is viewed as providing minimal response tokens in order to avoid confusing the main interaction, with extra text being labeled as an agreement-oriented backchannel (Cogdill et al., 2001). Moreover, according to Lee's (2020) study, the backchannel can encourage the main channel speaker to continue the talk by implying acknowledgement and approval.

The present study has been able to qualitatively demonstrate that TSs used different pragmatic strategies with visitors from different countries. This result has not previously been reported in other studies in a similar setting. In fact, it can be said that prior to this study, the pragmatic strategies used by Thai IR staff were unknown. However, an explanation for this might be found in studies in other contexts. For example, in a teacher-student conversation in a university context, as reported by Martínez-Sánchez (2017) in the case of a Business English class in a Mexican university, it was found that there existed various set of patterns, from using one single strategy to more complex patterns, which encompass a series of strategies vital to reach understanding. In a business context, in a study of business professionals in Bangladesh conducted by Roshid (2019), it was reported that to communicate and negotiate meaning, pragmatic strategies, such as achievement strategies and time gaining strategies, were used. Although the present study's findings are partially in accord with recent studies indicating that various pragmatic strategies were employed in meaning negotiation, the motives behind why these TSs predominantly used the code-switching strategy more with their NES visitors than with their neighbouring country and Asian

country visitors have not been revealed. Interestingly, ELF users from nearby countries where sociolinguistic backgrounds are quite fluid employed less mixing and switching to the L1 and other shared languages than expected. It is recommended that a further study be conducted to investigate this aspect.

However, the present study found that code-switching was employed to increase confidence and show friendliness or politeness. This contradicted the findings of McLellan's (2017) study, on negotiation of meaning and attuning in ELF interactions among Southeast Asians, which reported that code-mixing occasionally featured in ELF interactions to obtain accuracy and sustain intelligibility.

In the context of the present study, a possible explanation for this might be that most international visitors stay in Thailand for some period of time and/or have an opportunity to learn the Thai language and sometimes speak Thai in daily life as well. Additionally, Thai IR staff might know that the international visitors could understand some Thai and even some Northeastern Thai, a Lao dialect. Therefore, they automatically switched to Thai or to the Lao dialect when interacting with some international visitors. This finding is partially consistent with that of Pietikäinen (2014), who studied six ELF couples originating from four continents, and who commented that code-switching in which the participants mixed and borrowed languages spontaneously facilitated meaning-making without misunderstanding.

One unexpected finding was the extent to which TSs used code-switching most frequently with NES visitors while the backchannel was mostly used with NNES visitors. These findings may partly be explained by Berredo's study (1997) on the pragmatic functions of code-switching. She demonstrated that code-switching between languages was considered an important tool to lessen the negative connotations of utterances and to add some humorous and/or ironic remarks and to provide better contextualized situations. In accordance with the present results, Cogo (2009) concluded three main pragmatic functions for code-switching in ELF speakers, i.e., it serves as an extra communicative tool for communication in order to provide the possibility of expressing meaning to a greater degree, it is used to ensure understanding beyond cultural differences and serves to reach greater comprehension in conversations, and it can be used to signal solidarity and membership of a group.

For the present study, there are two possible explanations for the choices of pragmatic strategies used. Considering the use of code-switching, the reason can be the IVs' year(s) of living in Thailand and the nature of their relationship. For these reasons, both TSs and IVs may have a sense of being a member of the same community. Although the TSs and IVs understand that they must use English in the IR office, they sometimes switched the language from English to another language. When it happened, localized code-switching between English and Thai was used the most. As evidently shown in the questionnaire result indicating that apart from their first language and English, 27.7% of the respondents could use Thai language. Table 3.5 provides a list of these spoken languages. This finding is likely to be related to the studies by Cogo (2009) and Matsumoto (2013) that found that one main purpose of code-switching is to provide a membership marker, meaning to show that they belong to the same community or society.

4.5 Summary

This study found that TS and IV conversations are filled with both interactional and transactional language. One conversation (3.2%) contains only small talk to maintain the social relationship between a TS and an IV, while 48.4% of the conversations at IR offices contain only transactional language to get business done. However, this study also reveals that there can also be a mix of both interactional and transactional language in one encounter between a TS and an IV (48.4%). These results corroborate the findings of previous work by Brown and Yule (1983) on speaking purposes that found that most language is not "purely" transactional or interactional but a mix of both.

The present study also discovered that Thai IR staff (TSs) used a variety of pragmatic strategies. The most striking strategy was the backchannel, which was used to show attention and to show understanding. Another important pragmatic strategy found was repetition, which included key-word repetition, parallel phrasing, other-repetition, self-repetition, utterance-developing repetition, and combined repetition. This study also reveals that ensuring understanding and making sure important

information is understood correctly were the main reasons why repetition strategies were used. Other strategies found to have been used by TSs included linguistic repair, confirmation check, clarification request, rising question intonation, code-switching, reformulation, laughter, and signal of non-understanding.

The present study also revealed that Thai IR staff adopted several types of pragmatic strategy with the IVs. However, when the TSs interacted with native English speakers (NES) visitors, they used different pragmatic strategies from those they used with NNES visitors from Thailand's neighbouring countries and from other Asian countries. That is to say, code-switching was the most frequently used strategy when TSs were interacting with NES visitors, while the backchannel was used the most when TSs were having conversations with NNES visitors. The TSs mentioned that code-switching mainly helped increase confidence and showed friendliness or politeness.

To sum up on the question of the pragmatic strategies found to have been used by IVs, this study found that the backchannel was used the most by IVs. IV interview participants explained that the main purposes of using the backchannel when having a conversation were to show understanding and to show attention. Another important finding on the pragmatic strategies used by IVs concerned how repetition was used to enhance understanding. Other interesting findings concerned the linguistic repair, clarification request, confirmation check, signal of non-understanding, code-switching, and reformulation strategies.

The investigation was successful as it was able to identify the pragmatic strategies used by TSs and IVs. The present results are significant in at least two major respects, i.e., in revealing that various types of pragmatic strategies were employed by ELF speakers and in discovering that TSs used different pragmatic strategies with visitors from NES and NNES countries.

More generally, the findings of Chapter IV seem to support the findings in the literature concerning the various pragmatic strategies used in internationalized universities in that participants do seem to actively involve themselves in the use of English as a lingua franca in IR offices.

CHAPTER 5
RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS II: ATTITUDES TOWARDS ELF AND COMMUNICATIVE NEEDS

This chapter presents the results and a discussion in line with the third research question (RQ3) of this current study: "What are different users' attitudes and communicative needs regarding the use of English as a lingua franca in the Thai university international relations office setting?" The first section of this chapter provides the results of the questionnaire about the attitudes of Thai international relations staff (TSs) and international visitors (IVs) toward the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF). The second section relates the findings concerning communicative needs with regard to the use of ELF in a Thai university IR office setting. The third section of this chapter discusses the findings. Finally, the last section summarises the chapter.

5.1 Attitudes of Thai International Relations Staff and International Visitors towards ELF

This section analyses the attitudes of TSs and ISSVs toward English as a lingua franca according to the findings from the questionnaire.

5.1.1 Attitudes towards English users and the use of English

To begin, regarding the users of English, a majority of the respondents (80%) remarked that English is not only used by native English speakers (NESs). Forty-eight percent indicated that English is often used among non-native English speakers. What is striking about the figures in Figure 5.1 is that 61% completely agreed that more and more non-native English speakers (NNESs) used English with people from different cultures.

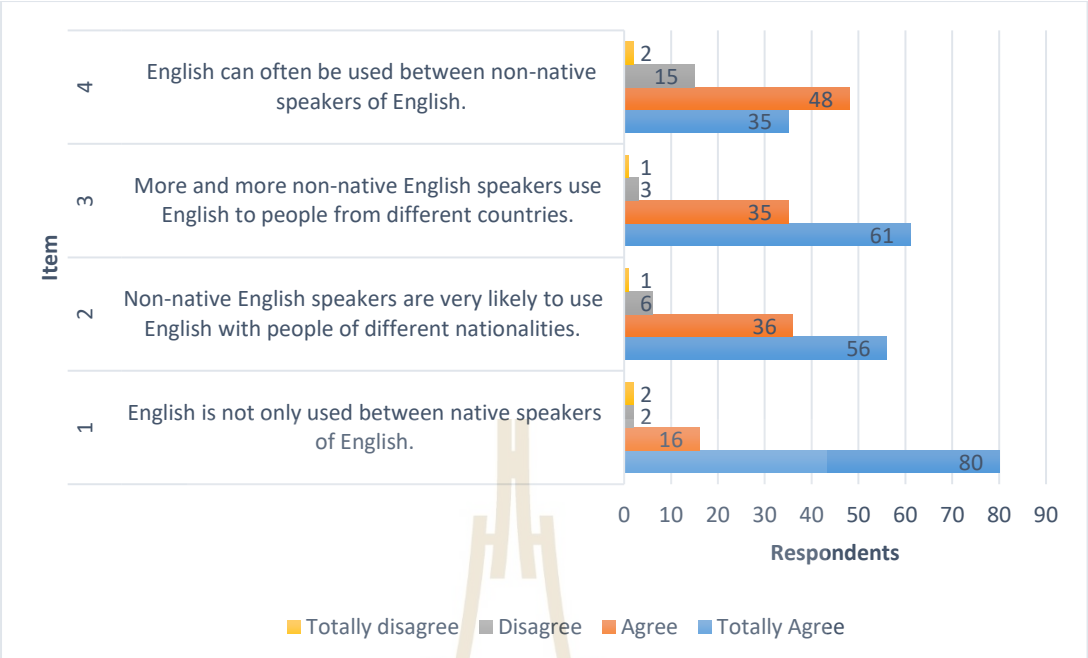


Figure 5.1 Attitudes towards English users

The interview data revealed participants' feelings when speaking English with TSs or with IVs. Fifteen out of 18 TSs felt happy when they used English with their IVs. One of them mentioned that because IVs were not native English speakers, just like the TSs, it was sometimes difficult to understand each other because of different accents. However, both tried to ensure that the message was understood correctly. They provided several reasons, as in the following example extracts.

Extract 5.1

...most of them are not native speakers. So, sometimes we have to like adapt to each other because my accent and their accent is different...So, that's why I feel happy. (TS1)

Extract 5.2

...better than we use Thai language or their language. I think it's easier to understand... (TS8)

In addition, twelve of the interviewees mentioned several reasons why they used Standard English. They mentioned that perfect English was not necessary. It was instead important to use simple English to better convey the meaning. One TS

explained that Standard English was enough for foreign students to get the message. Extracts 5.3 – 5.4 provide examples of TS explanations.

Extract 5.3

I think they are not from the native speakers... If we use perfect English, sometimes they don't understand that... **(**TS4)

Extract 5.4

I think the purpose is to communicate. If we understand, just fine... **(**TS7)

It can be said that although there are some difficulties in communicating in this ELF context, they managed to negotiate meaning using Standard English.

The next findings concern attitudes towards interactions with NESs and NNESs. When TSs were further asked about their level of comfort and confidence when they talked to an NES, half of them (nine TSs) stated that they felt at ease and confident because they could reply to statements and communicate even though they spoke imperfectly. They also selected only important words to say. They noted that it was easier to communicate with NESs because they spoke more clearly than NNESs. For those nine TSs who were not comfortable and confident using English with NESs, this was because they were mainly afraid of making mistakes. They were also afraid of using incorrect vocabulary or of making mistakes and losing confidence and feeling some pressure when repetition was requested. Sometimes, NESs spoke too quickly, which made it difficult to listen to them. Moreover, sometimes the British accent caused confusion because they were not familiar with some accents. Furthermore, infrequent use of English led to less confidence, such as a lack of opportunities to speak English daily. Extracts 5.5 – 5.6 illustrate TSs' perspectives on this issue.

Extract 5.5

Sometimes, I speak it's not perfect, but they can understand me, they try to understand me because it's their English. So, they understand me. So, I'm okay with this. (TS4)

Extract 5.6

I think I could be wrong with some words, so I'm afraid of that. Maybe, I lose my confidence when they ask me, "What did you ask?", "pardon", or something... (TS3)

Regarding the level of comfort and confidence when TSs were speaking English with NNESs, a majority of TSs (15) felt at ease and confident, for many reasons. TSs stated that NNESs use English the same way as they do or are of the same status, so they do not worry about making mistakes. They also mentioned that NNESs understood them well even when they were using incorrect vocabulary. The next extract shows how one TS felt when they interacted with NNES IVs.

Extract 5.7

I actually feel more comfortable when talking to the non-native speakers. Because when you talk to non-native speakers, they are like maybe they understand us more because I'm also the non-native speaker. (TS6)

Turning to the level of comfort and confidence of IVs when speaking English with NESs, 11 IVs expressed that they were at ease and confident while 10 lacked comfort and confidence.

The first group provided the following reasons for their stance:

- NESs' pronunciation is very clear and easy to understand.
- Just need to talk faster, the same speed as NESs
- No problems because English is my native language.
- Very comfortable, as long as the subject is understood.

The second group provided the following reasons for their position:

- NESs speak fast.
- NESs do not understand my pronunciation.
- A little hesitant to speak up.
- NESs use more vocabulary when they speak.
- Feel under pressure sometimes.

When IVs were asked about their levels of comfort and confidence when they interact with NNES, 20 of them stated that they felt at ease and confident. They noted that they felt relaxed and felt it was easy to communicate, although there were sometimes problems. One IV explained that their own personal experience, as well as being more mature, made them feel more confident and relaxed. The following extracts exemplify how IVs felt.

Extract 5.8

I'm confident. But the problem is the environment. Their fluency... (IV16)

Extract 5.9

I feel more relaxed because it's not my first language, so making mistakes is something that's tolerable... (IV18)

The level of comfort and confidence when ELF speakers were talking to NESs and NNESs might be an effect of factors like their familiarity with a particular NES accent. That is to say, some of them are frequently exposed to American or British accents when they learn the language from the learning materials typically employed in Thailand.

Regarding their ELF preferences, 8 out of 18 TSs (44.4%) affirmed that they preferred ELF to English as a native language (ENL). This gave rise to their stance on communication purposes. They explained that being communicable and understandable was enough; ELF was easy for them to understand and just to communicate. Moreover, they noted that they preferred ELF because with ELF, English was used to communicate with people of various nationalities around the world and because in their offices they do not have a native speaker.

For the IVs' views, 12 out of 27 (44.4%) of them preferred ELF to ENL. They provided several reasons for their preference, including that English was not the TSs' native language and that their English was not near the NESs' level. For them, ELF was used by a foreigner who could not speak or pronounce English like an NES. Sometimes, simple words and body language could also be used in ELF communication. Moreover, ELF was preferred because the most important purpose was understandable communication. Furthermore, ELF was easier to use when talking with other staff. In

addition, ELF usage was not too strict with regard to grammar and pronunciation, as long as it was understandable, because communication was more important than structure or form. ELF was thus preferred because it was a means of communication. Extracts 5.10 – 5.11 illustrate their responses.

Extract 5.10

> ...we can speak like (not too strict) with the grammar, pronunciation, something as long as we can understand each other. So, I think it's better for communication... (IV15)

Extract 5.11

> ...obviously I use this as a means of communication. So, for me, it's a lingua franca... (IV16)

However, three TSs and nine ISSVs stated no preference for either ELF or ENL. They provided several reasons for this. They mentioned that it depended upon specific situations. For instance, ENL and perfect English were needed at official events. For basic conversations, convenient English, i.e. English that was less strict about form, was needed, depending on the situation.

With respect to the attitude towards some specific features of English as a lingua franca, a majority of the respondents (55 or 57%) agreed that it was understandable not to use 3rd person –s, to misuse articles, and to use redundant prepositions. Figure 5.2 provides detailed information regarding these non-standard features. These aspects were derived from asking the research participants to confirm that most of the time lexicogrammatical aspects are not the main barriers to communicating in ELF.

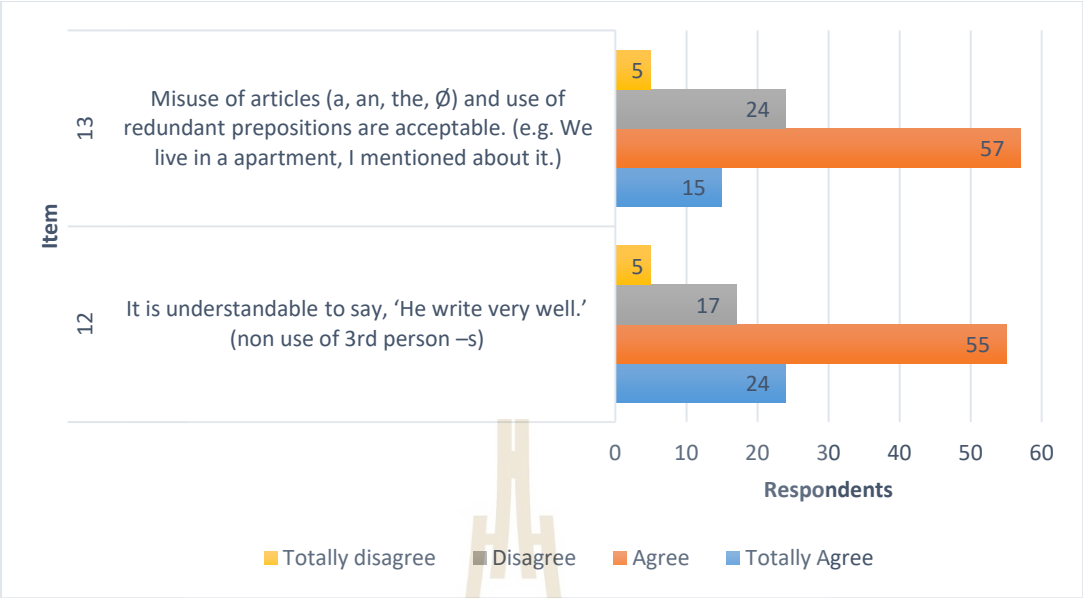


Figure 5.2 Attitudes towards ELF features (EFL Phase 1)

5.1.2 ELF acceptance and intelligibility (understanding)

Another important aspect of perceptions towards ELF is its acceptance. A slight majority of the respondents (52 or 51%) indicated that they did not mind if people used English with an accent and if they used a different variety of English from them. Also, 44% suggested that it was understandable when an NNES used a few other languages when speaking English. The findings regarding the acceptance of ELF are shown in Figure 5.3.

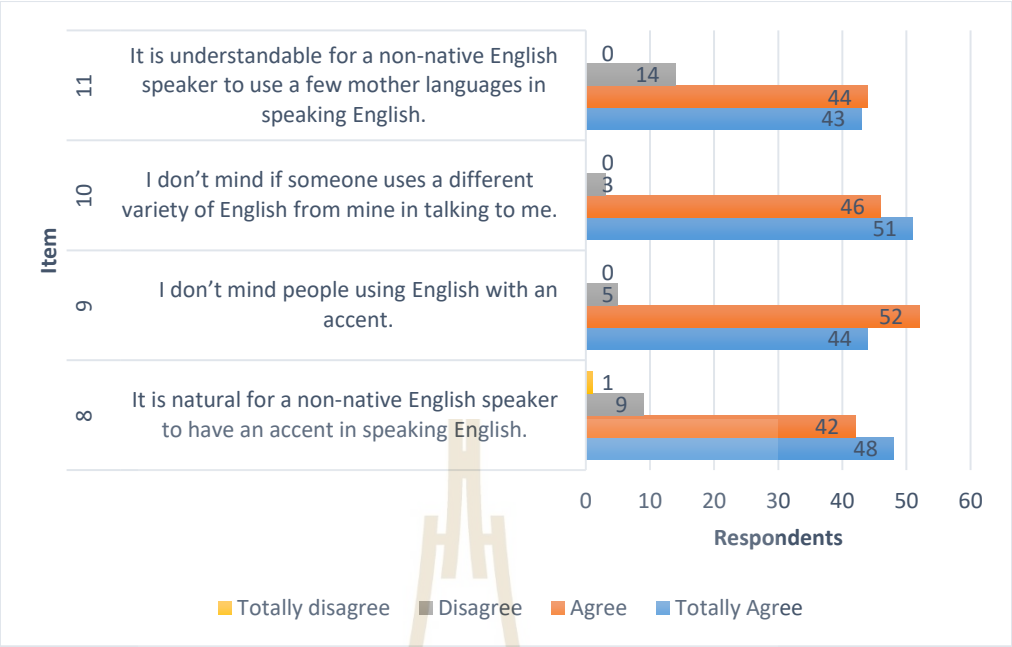


Figure 5.3 ELF acceptance

There are similarities between the attitudes expressed in this study and those detected by Wang and Ho (2013) and Zheng and Zhang (2019), who reported that the attitudes toward ELF held by their participants demonstrated a considerably positive attitude towards ELF. Moreover, the participants recognized the fact that English users are not limited to native speakers, acknowledged English as a lingua franca, and accorded high prestige to English; however, some international students also voiced concern over the dominant status of English in academic communication and expressed a desire to learn a local language.

With respect to intelligibility, 49% of respondents agreed that they had no problem understanding others, no matter what variety of English they used. However, 50% agreed that they had difficulty understanding others who used a different variety of English from them. Moreover, as can be seen in Figure 5.4, 49% agreed that they had difficulty understanding English spoken by people with accents.

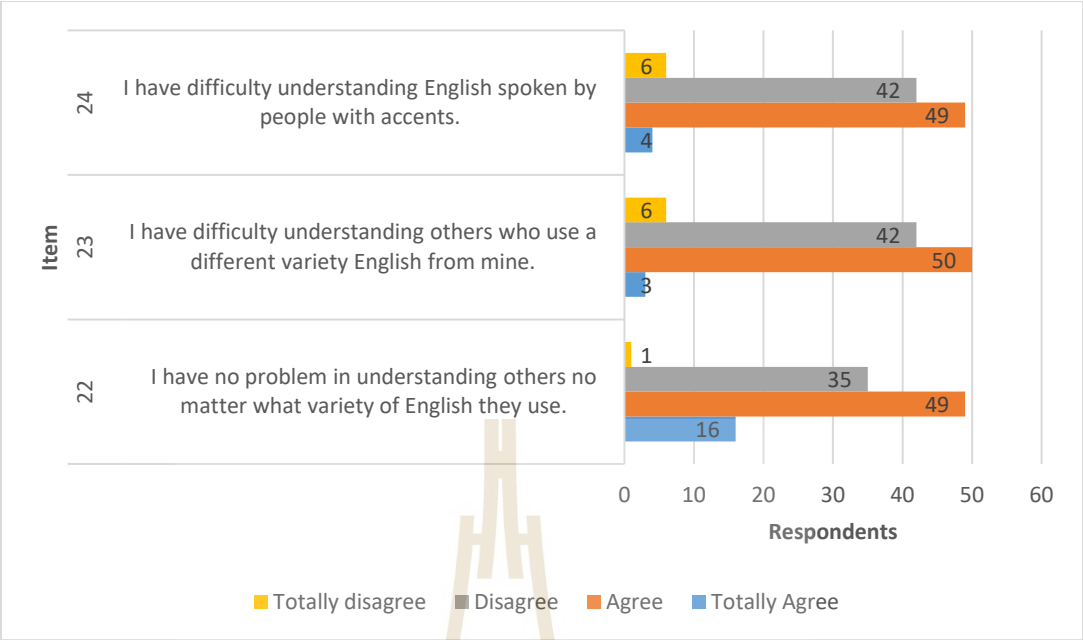


Figure 5.4 Intelligibility

This result probably accords with an earlier study by Pilus (2013), which showed that despite English learners' admiration of the native accent, particularly a British accent, they felt comfortable with their own Malaysian accent. Similarly, Chit Cheung's (2016) study found that exposure to different English accents was viewed considerably beneficial for learners, i.e. many participants seemed to be aware of the value of exposure to different native and non-native accents. However, there was less support for such exposure in practice (Chit Cheng, 2016). Apart from the aforementioned studies, most Thai undergraduate participants in a study by Kalra and Thanavisuth (2018) demonstrated negative attitudes towards Japanese and Burmese English accents and stated that they believed that a native-like accent was better than their English accents.

These TS participants somewhat already understood the ELF concept. Data from the interviews revealed that they noted that ELF speakers come from different countries but speak English to communicate with one another. One TS explained that ELF is used by non-native speakers and is basically the use of English for communication. Another TS described ELF as English used as the main language for communication. They defined ELF in various ways, as shown in the following example extracts.

Extract 5.12

...different English among people in other places that we use the same language; that is English to communicate, and we use different accents, different vocabulary sometimes, but we understand each other. It's the difference with using English to communicate... (TS7)

Extract 5.13

I think it's the combination of English language and the local language. Like in Thai contexts, we have we are usually familiar with the word "นะคะ" [/nɑkɑ/means yes, right] and we say it all the time because we think that it's polite. When it's used with other language, we also use it... (TS5)

Turning to IV's understanding of ELF, they explained that from their perspective ELF is English spoken by someone who is not a native speaker. In their opinion, ELF is a form of language used to communicate with people around the world and is a more function-based than form-based use of the English language. One IV also explained that ELF is a common world language. They provided various definitions, as in the following examples.

Extract 5.14

... is just communication, say your ideas to the other people whose primary language is different than English. (IV 6)

Extract 5.15

...English as a lingua franca is the use of English among non-native English speakers... (IV 8)

5.1.3 English varieties: World Englishes (WE) paradigm

As regards English varieties, Figure 5.5 reveals several insights. Unlike with the aforementioned figures, which mostly concern ELF, the data in this figure concerns World Englishes. It reveals that the respondents substantially agreed with the notion that English has developed into different varieties. Moreover, 53% of the respondents completely agreed that knowing the existence of different varieties of English would help with mutual understanding.

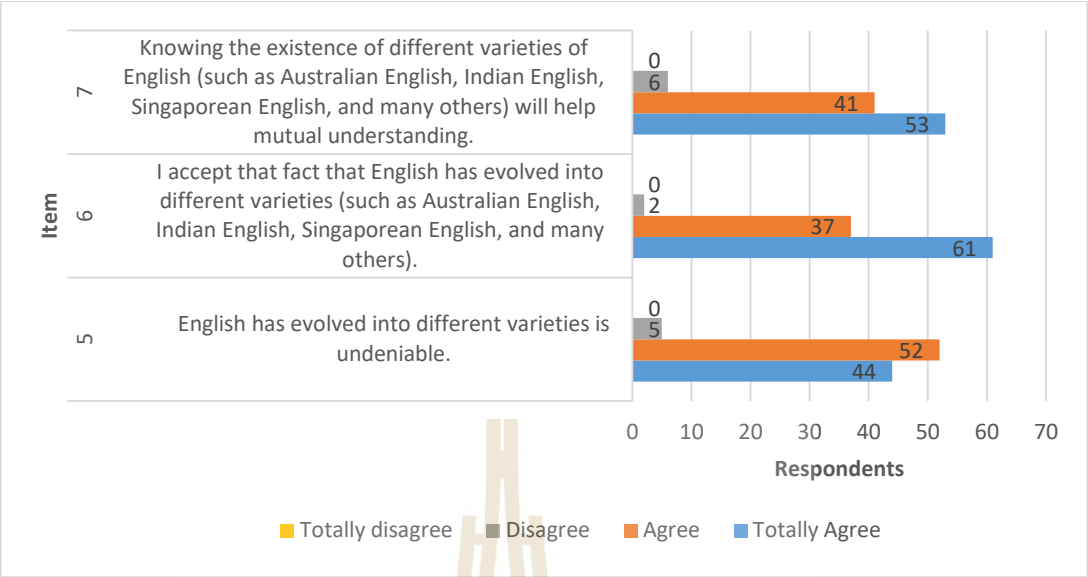


Figure 5.5 Attitudes towards English varieties

The next subsection provides the findings from the interview data and reveals more about participants' perceptions towards ELF. Firstly, their basic understanding of ELF was investigated. Secondly, their ELF or ENL preferences, i.e., attitudes towards to use of English and interactions with NESs and NNESs, were revealed.

5.1.4 Attitudes towards models for learning

With regard to models for learning, when the respondents were asked about the ideal English speaker model for learning, they agreed that the native-speaker model should be used for English learning. In addition, they felt that teaching materials had to be developed based on the English native-speaker model. In contrast, a slight majority of respondents (51%) disagreed with the statement that the English native-speaker model should be the only model for English language learners, while only 40% agreed that English is better taught by native speakers of English. Figure 5.6 illustrates their responses.

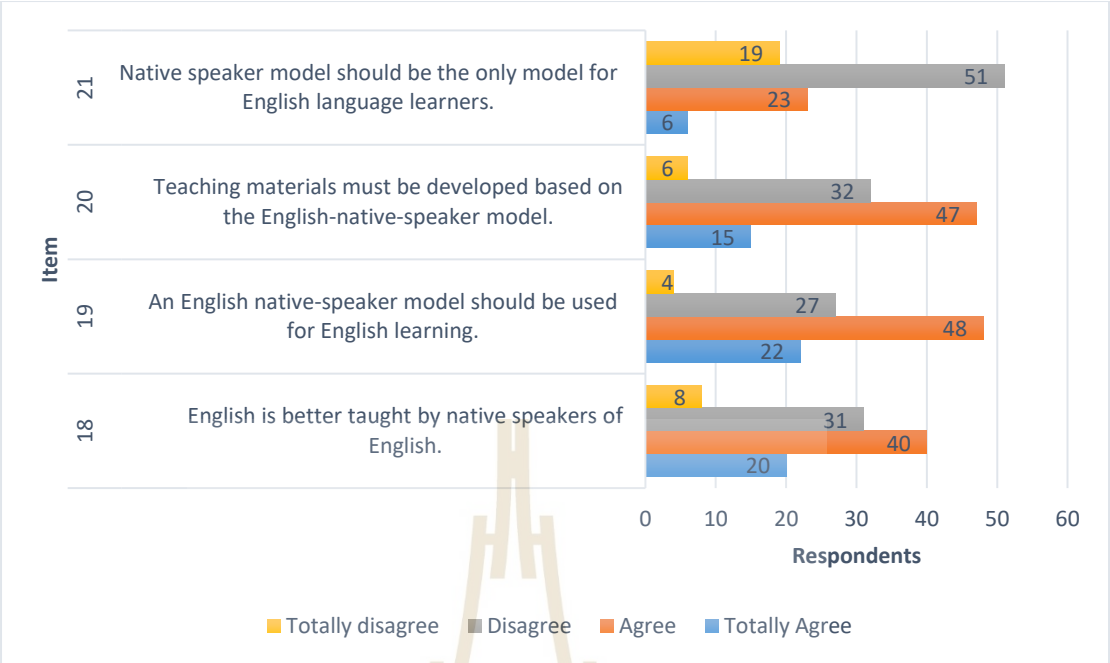


Figure 5.6 Attitudes towards the native English speaker as a model for learning

Hence, an obvious preference for ELF was demonstrated by the participants, even though some of them explained that it depended on the situation. Generally, ELF was preferred because speakers only need English as a communicable tool, which they explained did not always require the right formula, or perfect English.

5.2 Communicative Needs in ELF Interactions in Thai University International Relations Offices

Turning to the needs, in particular the communicative needs for ELF interactions in Thai university IR offices, this study obtained data from interviewing four research sites, involving both TSs and IVs. The findings are reported in the following subsections.

5.2.1 Barriers

Regarding barriers to interactions in IR office, 18 TSs remarked on various barriers. Some TSs noted more than one. These barriers covered accent, vocabulary, cultural aspects, and pronunciation. The details are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Barriers to interactions in international relations offices reported by Thai staff

	Barrier	Reason
1.	Accent (44%)	• unfamiliar accent (especially the Japanese accent) • specific or academic topics and words
2.	Vocabulary (32%)	• unfamiliar words and content • choice of word
3.	Cultural aspects (8%)	• insiders' information
4.	Pronunciation (4%)	• not provided • poor English communication skills
5.	Others (12%)	• English language causing unclear requests • speed of talking

The following example extracts illustrate TS barriers to comprehension, covering both accent and vocabulary.

Extract 5.16

...it might be pronunciation and accent. When we are faced with Covid-19, it is also like more difficult because I cannot read their mouths... (TS1)

Extract 5.17

If about non-native speakers like, because their accent and their word of choice, choice of word... (TS6)

When 27 international student and staff visitors (IVs) were asked about barriers to comprehension while interacting in IR offices in their universities, they noted that English competency was the most important issue. Table 5.2 details their responses.

Table 5.2 Barriers to interactions in IR offices reported by international visitors

	Barriers	Reasons
1.	English competency (58.3%)	• Poor English skills • Incorrect or poor pronunciation
2.	Confidence (16.7%)	• No confidence and shyness when speaking
3.	Accent (12.5%)	• Thai accent • Different ways of expressing selves
4.	Cultural aspects (12.5%)	• Underlying customs and cultural upbringing • Environment and cultural differences

Interview information reveals IV barriers on accent, English language skills, and cultural aspects, exemplified in the following extracts.

Extract 5.18

I have so many misunderstanding with my friend also because of this accent... IV14)

Extract 5.19

Mostly, I'm confused about pronunciation... (IV12)

Extract 5.20

I think the barrier is many of staff cannot speak English or may be just shy to speak with us... (IV15)

Extract 5.21

Some Thai staff cannot speak. Sometimes, it (gets) (difficult) to communicate, to convince something... (IV16)

Extract 5.22

Sometimes, imagine their job can be quite difficult, depending on the environment because a lot of foreigners, particularly if their (recent arrival) for whatever reasons they might be here. The cultural difference, they may not be aware of them... (IV11)

Both TSs and IVs indicated that the main problem was the English language. Evidently, both TSs and IVs raised similar issues concerning accents and cultural aspects. While TSs mentioned that the most frequently occurring barrier when

interacting with IVs was unfamiliar accents (44%), IVs raised the issue of TSs' English language competency (58.3%) as the most difficult part of having a conversation at IR offices.

5.2.2 Professional development needs

In terms of TSs professional development needs, which include orientation, training sessions and workshops, when interviewing 18 Thai IR staff, 13 of them mentioned that they had attended orientations and training sessions provided either by their university or by their own office prior to job commencement. Concerning the scope of, and topics covered by, those sessions, a majority of the TSs had been introduced to general rules and regulations and had reviewed some English communication skills which were relevant to their job. They explained that the scope covered a foreigner's contract, visa applications and the visa extension process, immigration issues, the memorandum of understanding (MOU) signing process, and coordinating with foreigners' skills. Some of the TSs explained that they later received some advice and guidance from their colleagues and from their deputy in charge of international affairs. For example, one TS explained,

> Because sometimes it's my first experience, I will ask it's like a sister or brother from the center to help... Because I work at this faculty, there is no person that knows about this position. I have to learn by myself and lonely... because the people around here they don't know nothing... (TS2).

5.2.2.1 Suggested topics for training sessions and workshops

While some Thai IR staff noted that they were supervised by colleagues, other TSs mentioned that they were learning by doing and by themselves. Therefore, on the matter of training sessions and courses they needed in order to help them work more efficiently, they described a variety of essential topics for professional development:

1. ***Language skills***: Five interviewees suggested further training in written English, covering formal letters, memoranda of understanding (MOUs), and speeches. Other language skills

suggested were daily life English conversations and understanding the different accents of English native speakers. Moreover, two TS interviewees noted that skills in languages other than English are also important.

2. ***Rules and regulations***: Five TSs specified visa application and extension processes, in particular updated rules and regulations related to visas. Others topics included dealing with the immigration office, the foreign expert recruitment procedure, and related laws.
3. ***Others areas***: These concerned the duty of being a professional master of ceremonies (MC), manners and etiquette in different countries, basic psychology, and necessary technological skills.

From the IVs' perspective, they noted that the following areas should be developed to ensure more effective TSs:

1. ***English communication skills***: Four IVs recommended this be improved, regarding types of greetings; dealing with complaints and suggestions; English use concerning cultural appropriateness, e.g. politeness in conversation; English reading skills; and translating academic documents.
2. ***More languages:*** This covers multiple languages skills. English was viewed as essential, but knowing other languages was viewed as beneficial.
3. ***Universal practices and cultural awareness***: This covers the issues of cross cultural understanding, dos and don'ts for a newcomer to a university, hierarchical practices, and body language in different cultures.

5.2.2.2 English skills

Although English speaking skills are crucial for TSs, on a regular basis English written skills are also essential. TSs expressed the communicative need for formal writing skills, which includes emails and responses to letters, together with MOUs and speeches. During the COVID-19 pandemic, in Thailand it is quite impossible

to talk in person with IVs. Moreover, employing a foreigner and bringing them into Thailand takes even longer than usual in terms of document preparation. Unavoidably, written communication plays an important role. It is therefore necessary for TSs to acquire good written English skills.

Regarding Thai IR staff's reflections, although they mentioned that knowing English and possessing skills in the English language are necessary in their work, other knowledge and skills are also crucial to managing their jobs in terms of making their services more satisfactory and effective.

Examples of specific TS needs can be found in Extracts 5.23 to 5.27, which show that English language skills, including in the spoken language, e.g. performing as the master of ceremonies or public speaking, as well as written language skills, e.g. writing speeches, emails, and formal letters, are crucial for their work.

Extract 5.23

I think, English MC. It's very useful because sometimes like normally I don't like being an MC, but sometimes [TSs] they have to do it because like nobody can speak English here. I'm not a good MC, but I have to be. Even like sometimes like Thai in Thai, but we have to do it. Also about the translation... (TS1)

Extract 5.24

...because actually currently I have to contact with the foreigner via email. Sometimes, we have to use the formal writing. I think that's my weak point for me sometimes. But for now, I try to use the Google to search for the formal word, something like that. Not Google translate... (TS2)

Extract 5.25

I'd like to update my English skills because I think sometimes about my work, I am (assigned) a lot of work; I think it's quite difficult every year. Because I have 14 years of experience, everyone expects me to be good or everything... (TS4)

Extract 5.26

When you write an email to a colleague at another university, you cannot just talk about the work and things. When you are in the field of new year or a vacation or something, you may wish them good luck or something like that. (TS6)

Extract 5.27

Face-to-face is important when they come to us to ask for help. So, we need to help them. So, speaking, spoken language is more important, I think. For written language, it's not impromptu, and we can find some information. And we can check before we click send. We can check before that. (TS7)

In terms of requisite knowledge and skills in addition to language skills, they suggested a need for knowledge of basic psychology and technology skills. The following extract, 5.28, provides an example.

Extract 5.28

Specifically for me only, I mean I need some training about consultant duties because sometimes students come with personal issues. If it's a regular request, normally we can do it, like a visa. But when it comes to personal issues like depression, something like that happens with the international students, graduate students, they are very tense. And, when they have a problem, they just want someone to consult, maybe other things. Even in Thai, I don't have any specific skill in that. So, when it comes to international students, it will be more complicated. They're far from home, far from their families, and a lot of problems, maybe financial problems. Maybe, some training about being a psychological consultant. (TS13)

This response explains that not only are communication skills necessary for TSs but that other knowledge and skills are essential in order to effectively implement IR services.

5.2.2.3 Essential qualities of Thai international relations staff

As regards IVs' viewpoints towards training topics, 9 out of 27 interviewees (33.3%) suggested that first and foremost language skills should be inculcated in the TSs. Moreover, these same interviewees were asked about other qualities and skills which TSs should possess.

Six TSs noted that being open-minded, service minded, patient, and kind and friendly to the IVs were important qualities for IR staff. Four TSs noted that a positive attitude was necessary for this position. Moreover, negotiation skills were important, as was enough confidence to speak English with both NESs and NNESs. Further, IR staff should possess good speaking skills and a large vocabulary.

Similarly, IVs suggested that attitude was important. The requisite qualities of IR staff include that they should be motivated, approachable in terms of personality, responsive, punctual, and able to act promptly, for example by replying to emails as soon as possible. In addition, IR staff should be confident and unafraid, and they should seek opportunities to talk to and practice with international relations staff. Importantly, they should keep learning, such as by learning about local and international cultures, i.e., by expressing curiosity about the world.

As regards language skills, IVs suggested that TSs should have proficient language ability and maintain the ability to speak a common language. Interestingly, one interviewee indicated the need for open communication. The following extracts illustrate their suggestions.

Extract 5.29

> Maintain common language e.g. English because it is a tool to communicate at work Learn local and international culture. So, IR don't make someone else misunderstand you. (IV7)

Extract 5.30

> ...should at least know basic English and at least English in what their duty like if they are academic consultant staff, at least they can explain what should students do if we got problems in education stuff. Or, maybe in another office also like that. So, or maybe they can provide English website like international relations

office website, and also maybe documents. I think it is better if they have English version of the documents. (IV15)

Extract 5.31

They're (punctual), attentive. So, I like that. I respect all, any kind. Maybe in online or in the office. So, we can contact them anytime, and they're responsive. So, I like that much...The most important thing is they're attentive, responsive. (IV16)

Extract 5.32

I like their attitude, they show their concern, and they try to help me as much as possible. And, I think that the attitude is very important. So, even though their English is not very good, but the attitude, you know, can make up for that. (IV18)

Extract 5.33

It is not that they cannot speak English, but they do not talk to us. It is not a language barrier, but it is a communication barrier, a lack of communication. Be more open... (IV23)

When asking some IVs about their own communicative needs when they visit an IR office, a Cambodian participant stated that for an IV, confidence is essential, while a British participant mentioned patience and the ability to understand Thai culture are somewhat necessary. In general, IVs were quite satisfied by TS services. They noted that TSs were friendly and helpful. Besides, their English and communication skills were generally satisfactory. For example, a Chinese participant noted that "...every time there was emergency thing, urgent thing happens, the staff would have the post on the Facebook, so we see. At the moment, so far so good" (IV13). However, it was reported that other staff, especially in other departments, could not communicate in English. For example, a Vietnamese participant mentioned, "...because if a university liked to attract more international students, it would be better if not only IR staff but all the staff could speak English well" (IV18). Moreover, a Pilipino participant noted that "...documents should be in English more..." (IV24). Regarding this issue, the below extract exemplifies this.

Extract 5.34

I think it's better if we have two versions. Because when I went to my scholarship something, all documents are in Thai. So, I ask Ajarn [teacher] to help me to tell to school secretary and my school secretary just make all documents, so I just sign. (IV15)

Prior studies have noted the importance of English language skills, which are important for both recruitment and promotion, with speaking and writing as the first and second most important language skills to possess (Goh & Chan, 1993). Furthermore, a study of engineers in multinational companies by Kassim and Ali (2010) suggested that informal work-related discussions and meetings; giving oral presentations; networking, which requires developing contacts for advice and information; the presentation of new ideas and alternative strategies; and situations which require the handling of external correspondence and instructing, as well as explaining and demonstrating to subordinates and fellow colleagues, were all useful experiences or skills.

5.3 Discussion

As mentioned in the literature review, there are about 380 million native speakers of English (NESs) and about 745 million non-native speakers (NNESs) in the world. That is to say, the NNESs considerably outnumber the NESs. The present results are in agreement with those obtained by Seidlhofer (2003), who noted that it is the NNESs who will be the main agents in the way English is used, is maintained, and changes. Moreover, according to Yadav (2018), only four percent of English conversations presently involve only NESs, while the rest involve at least one NNES. Consequently, as noted by MacKenzie (2015), many researchers expect ELF to have a major effect on ENL.

From the current findings regarding ELF features, MacKenzie (2015) points out these usages can simply be explained in terms of L2 transfer or grammatical replication, analogical levelling, simplification, generalization, reconceptualization, the reduction of tense and aspect distinctions, the reduction of redundancy and its opposite, and so

on. However, in ELF communication, formulaic correctness is irrelevant, and appropriateness is an important indicator of successful ELF performance (Wang, 2014). This study also supports evidence from a study by Kaypak and Ortactepe (2014) which found that exchange students' perceptions of the relationship between English and ELF culture, practice, and grammar were recast by their communication experiences in various ELF countries, forming in them new thoughts about the concepts of fluency and accuracy, thereby shifting their English learning focus from form to meaning, making them pay more attention to fluency, which was what was needed to have a successful interaction.

In general, what has plausibly been embedded in most English speakers is best described as an ideology which divides English speakers into two opposing camps, native and non-native English speakers. Consequently, this has involved assigning a set of stereotypical characteristics to each, and it positions one group as superior to another, which leads to a situation where those perceived as native speakers might be seen as culturally, pedagogically and linguistically superior to those perceived as non-native speakers (How to Tackle Native Speakerism, 2019). This is in fact an ELT perspective that plays an important role in the speakers of English mindset. These recent findings explicitly reflect the fact that English learners and users prefer an NES model for learning and materials design and development. Furthermore, although the research participants in the present study noted that the NES model should not be the only option, almost half of them still believed that English should be better taught by native English speakers. These results are supported by several research studies which have found that NNESs show a positive attitude towards the native speakers of English model (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Kaura & Ramana, 2014; Kaur, 2013).

As can be seen in the findings, about 40% of the participants said they had no problems speaking English in this context, while half of them insisted that they had difficulty understanding different accents. This result may be explained by the fact that they might have few opportunities to listen to various English accents. Hence, for pedagogical purposes, more exposure to different accents, not only British and American, should be introduced to English language learners; for example, listening

practice materials should be mixed with different typical accents, e.g., the English spoken by Indians, Spanish people, and Japanese.

Furthermore, the research findings indicate that the participants had some knowledge and understanding of the ELF concept. They mainly stated that ELF is the use of English among NNESs, which is quite correct, as, for example, Crystal (2003) stated that most ELF interaction takes place among NNES speakers of English. More recently, Seidlhofer (2011) noted that ELF speakers include NESs who, while minority users, also adopt ELF as an additional language for intercultural communication. In other words, the state of ELF research is that, while the vast majority of ELF researchers do not exclude NESs from ELF communication, the majority of ELF research, such as Jenkins's earliest ELF research (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011) is based more, and sometime exclusively, on NNES–NNES interactions.

Moreover, although most of the interview participants mentioned that ELF is used only by NNESs, they were basically aware that ELF is for communication purposes. These results reflect those of Mikeladze and Al-Hariri (2018), who also found that their NNES research participants had some knowledge of ELF, which they defined as a common language used for communication.

These results are also consistent with data obtained by Chan (2014), who reported that email was the most commonly used written communication for both external and internal communication, followed by reports. Moreover, both internal and external email messages were significantly more commonly used than other written communications in the workplace. Moreover, the results are in accord with a study on the needs of custom contact trainees conducted by Mussa and Wondie (2021), which found that all the respondents prioritized writing for academic purposes, while speaking was the second most needed skill.

Although the participants overwhelmingly agreed that English was crucial for communication and beneficial, they did not think it was necessary to impose a particular native model (e.g., UK or US) on their Englishes. The language was only regarded as a communication tool that local identity can be an integral part of. Most importantly, students wanted to learn English as a global language rather than to learn the UK or US native language variants (Erling & Bartlett, 2006).

ELF research findings have revealed the need to improve ELF to suit university international relations contexts; however, as reported by Jaroensak (2018), many studies indicate non-conformity to English as a native language (ENL) norms in ELF forms. To date, a number of studies have actually found that the ENL model is not applicable to ELF learners (Cogo & Jenkins, 2010). Therefore, it is challenging to specify a particular set of linguistic norms and to standardize the formal characteristics of ELF norms (Ferguson, 2009). Nevertheless, an optional model of ELF teaching has been developing since then. Jenkins (2011) has offered suggestions about how to implement ELF-related instruction, and although there are no exact guidelines for implementation, she believes that teachers themselves should decide how to incorporate an ELF approach in their particular context. Consequently, recent practitioners have developed and designed materials for so-called ELF-awareness courses, as reviewed by Corcoran (2016), with teacher education a likely starting point for the development of an ELF pedagogy, which in turn would affect the design of language teaching materials and the criteria used for evaluating achievement in language learning.

All in all, the findings regarding the attitudes of Thai international relation staff and international visitors towards ELF reported in this section are generally consistent with the data obtained by previous studies (Albl-Mikasa, 2009; Akkarkoson, 2019; Erling & Bartlett, 2006, Jenkins, 2007; Kaur, 2013; Kaura &Ramana, 2014; Mikeladze & Al-Hariri, 2018: Wang & Ho, 2013).

Additionally, the present research revealed a need for the knowledge of multiple languages, which agrees with a finding in Zheng and Zhang's (2019) study, in which one international student stated a need for a third language in a new social context where English could not completely satisfy people's need, and another expressed a similar concern when he recounted his job-seeking experience.

5.4 Summary

This chapter set out to discover two things. First, it sought to understand the attitudes of Thai international relations staff (TSs) and international visitors (IVs) towards English as a lingua franca. For the most part, the participants knew that English is used

not only among native English speakers but more widely. They have a general knowledge of English as a lingua franca (ELF), and they accepted people speaking with different accents and speaking different varieties of English. However, almost half of them mentioned that they had difficulty with different accents. In addition, although half of them mentioned that the English native-speaker model should not be the only model for learning, they insisted on the native-speaker model for English learning, and 40% stated that English is better taught by native speakers of English.

Second, this research found participants provided suggestions about what aspects should be included in the training of international relations staff, i.e., that training should cover contract signing, the visa application and extension process, immigration issues, the memorandum of understanding (MOU) signing process, and coordinating skills. Moreover, English language skills, both spoken and written, should be emphasised in their training. Other essential knowledge and skills are those related to a knowledge of basic psychology, negotiation skills, and technology skills. Apart from skills, the personal qualities of good international relations staff should include a positive attitude, together with being motivated, approachable, open-minded, service minded, responsive, punctual, patient, kind, and friendly to visitors. More importantly, being an IR staff means being confident and never being afraid to talk.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION

This chapter presents the conclusion of this research study on pragmatic strategies in the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) in international relations services in a Thai university context. The first section of this chapter restates the purpose of this research. Then, the second section summarises the main findings and possible explanations. The third section reiterates the scope and relates the limitations of the study. The fourth section recommends further studies and practical applications. Lastly, the final section summarises the chapter.

6.1 Research Purposes

This research intended to investigate the use of English as a lingua franca in an international relations (IR) office setting in a Thai higher education context. It set out to explore encounters between Thai IR staff (TSs) and international visitors (IVs), including international students and academic staff, and to reveal how pragmatic strategies can help negotiate understanding in this setting. It specifically aimed to find the answers to the following three research questions:

1. What pragmatic strategies do Thai international relations staff and international visitors use for meaning negotiation in a Thai university ELF context?
2. Do these pragmatic strategies vary according to whether or not the visitors are native English speakers?
3. What are different users' attitudes and communicative needs regarding the use of English as a lingua franca in the Thai university international relations office setting?

Hence, the research design was conducted by obtaining authentic conversations of TSs and IVs interacting at IR offices. The data was then transcribed and coded by adopting a pragmatic strategies analysis framework. Consequently, key themes

emerged. Further data was collected by surveying hundreds of TS and IVs from four research sites via an online questionnaire. This questionnaire mainly involved a Likert-scale approach aiming to seek answers to aspects of attitudes towards ELF. Moreover, interviews were arranged both online and face-to-face to gather data regarding their insights and views on particular pragmatic strategies and on barriers to communication in the Thai university context.

6.2 Summary of Main Findings

6.2.1 Pragmatic strategies in international relations offices in a Thai university setting

The findings clearly indicate that interactions in IR offices in a Thai university contain both interactional and transactional language. Both Thai IR staff and international visitors employ various types of pragmatics strategies to negotiate meaning. The research has shown that the backchannel is used the most frequently in this context. The present study has also revealed that Thai staff adopt code-switching most frequently when interacting with native English speaker (NES) visitors, while the backchannel is used most frequently with visitors from Asian countries. The research has also shown that the most common goals in employing the backchannel when having a conversation are to show understanding and to show attention.

6.2.2 Attitudes and communicative needs

The findings confirm the widely expressed view that ELF exists, and the research participants generally accepted different accents and varieties of English. The participants also showed a clear preference for the native-speaker model of English learning.

Another significant finding to emerge from this study is that communicative needs should cover both spoken and written skills in English language and in other languages. The participants suggested areas for improvements, covering contract signing, the visa application and extension process, immigration issues, the memorandum of understanding (MOU) signing process, and coordinating skills. Other essential recommendations regard a knowledge of basic psychology, negotiation skills,

and technology skills. Moreover, the informants noted that the personal qualities of good IR staff should include that they should have a positive attitude and be confident, motivated, approachable, open-minded, service minded, responsive, punctual, patient, kind, and friendly to visitors.

6.3 Limitations of the Present Study and Proposals for Future Research

6.3.1 Limitations of the study

This analysis has concentrated on discovering the pragmatic strategies used in IR offices in a Thai university setting and the attitudes towards, and communicative needs of, English as a lingua franca in this context. However, specific limitations should be noted and taken into account when considering further research.

1. Authentic conversations

The data collection process started a few months before the spread of COVID-19. Face-to-face interactions at international relations offices were rarely available. Similar to in other contexts, online communication has been rapidly and widely deployed to replace impossible face-to-face communication. Hence, the expectation of collecting a large quantity of conversational data in order for it to be analyzed was not met. While the research data was collected in restrictive circumstances, around six hours of recording were obtained. The results of the analysis, therefore, reflect the Thai university setting in these specific circumstances of COVID-19. It likely cannot be widely generalized except when compared with other similar settings, such as campus counselor services and tourist information centers.

2. Interview preparation and conducting challenges

Appointments had to be arranged a few weeks in advance, bringing with them time and platform complications. For overseas participants, time zone differences had to be taken into consideration. In many cases, intercontinental interviews were conducted. For the connection platform, there now exist many choices and preferences that might be appropriate for one participant but not for another participant, such as Line and Skype. A researcher must be flexible and learn how to use the technology of new communication platforms.

3. Accessibility and availability during the pandemic

The spread of COVID-19 made it more challenging to invite the interlocutors in the collected conversations to be interview participants. Therefore, the sample of interview participants was not limited to only those involved in the collected interactions but extended to other TSs and IVs who had similar experiences in nature, i.e. those who had interacted in IR offices in a Thai university were invited. Therefore, the researcher had to prepare to scaffold some concepts to the participants. For some participants who had recently and frequently paid visits to the offices, scaffolding and stimulating for memory recall was not all that necessary, whereas some interviewees who had no recent contacts or less experience on related interview questions needed elaborating examples to aid them in understanding the question and/or in recalling their interactions. For example, when were asked about the reason why they code-switch, the researcher had to provide a simple code switching definition and clarifying examples.

4. Number of research participants

The number of the research participants should have been better balanced, in particular from each research site and for each level of analysis. The present study obtained interview data from IVs who were mainly lecturers and postgraduate students, and there were no undergraduate student interviewees. Younger participants may voice views different from those from whom the data was obtained.

6.3.2 Proposals for future research

Despite the limitations of the present study that emerged, possible research areas for further studies include the following:

1.According to the review of related studies, no research works on pragmatic strategies in international relations office interactions in a Thai university context had previously been conducted. Therefore, several questions remain unanswered at present. To conduct research into other aspects and/or conduct deeper study, as suggested by Cohen (1998), all the research methods have both strengths and weaknesses, and adopting different approaches to carrying out future research in this particular context might be fruitful to the field of ELF. Regarding research methodology,

therefore, the further investigations needed to examine this specific context could consider conversation analysis, discourse analysis, and critical discourse analysis, and case studies could differ by the nature of the staff, i.e. international students, new staff, and experienced staff.

2.Further studies are also required to explore meaning negotiation mechanisms in different contexts, for example, business and services encounters, classroom (teacher-student) interactions, doctor-patient conversations, postgraduate supervisor consultations in different fields of study, and Q&A sessions in international conferences (online webinars). In doing so, the findings will contribute to the improving the breadth and depth of ELF research domain.

3.Further research might explore specific strategies in the Thai IR office context. The most interesting strategies may be backchannel, repetition, and laughter. In conducting further research on these particular strategies, in-depth and insightful understanding of the setting can probably be revealed. The resulting research findings could be of great help in better understanding this and other ELF domains.

4.More research on this topic needs to be undertaken, especially on the association between linguistic repertoire, linguistic resources and the pragmatic strategies used in ELF. For example, under certain assumptions, what can be construed as meaning negotiations in ELF generally exclude the formal English proficiency of a speaker. Further studies on interactions between high-high proficiency, high–low proficiency, and low–low proficiency interlocutors may explain why some pragmatic strategies are employed more frequently than others. As a result, this aspect of ELF communication will be more clearly understood.

5.At present, because of COVID-19, written communication via different channels is unavoidable. Written data is probably available and accessible for research. Studies relating to written communication, both formal and informal, between TSs and IVs could be a rich source of data for future research.

6.4 Recommendations for Practical Application

There have been considerable discussions among ELF researchers as to how to teach ELF. However, according to the findings on communicative needs in this environment, adapted by using the topics listed by Baker and Ishikawa (2021), together with a survey by the researcher of four recent course books for Business English by Cambridge University Press and Oxford University Press, a proposal for practical applications in the area of material development and design for an ELF-awareness training course for IR offices might usefully focus on what is outlined in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Suggested ELF-awareness training course for international relations staff

Lesson	Topic	Focus
1	Cross-cultural and intercultural communication	Attitude and etiquette
2	Culture and language in digital communication	Corresponding and managing digital connections
3	Awareness of English-within-multilingualism	Different accents and meaning negotiation

Many Business English course books share a main focus with regard to communicative ability when socializing, telephoning, presenting, taking part in meetings and negotiating. In fact, these are fundamental and required competencies of IR staff. They should not be excluded and are essential points to be acquired, revised, and revisited. More professional and profound aspects of communicative ability, i.e. the ability to speak at formal receptions, the ability to perform the master-of-ceremonies role, and the ability to speak in public, should be covered. Then, more specific knowledge and skills required in order to fulfill the IR job description should include contracts, immigration, the memorandum of understanding (MOUs), negotiation and necessary technological skills. Moreover, learners should be equipped with important soft skills such as a positive attitude and a knowledge of etiquette. Considering assessment methods for trainees attending this proposed course, assessment of skills can be done by adopting role-plays, stimulated prompts, and plays, and assessment of knowledge can be achieved by using presentations and quizzes (e.g., on laws and regulations).

Furthermore, when taking Business English as a lingua franca (BELF) into consideration, as presented by Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta (2011), there are important elements for effective speakers, which include business knowledge, competence in BELF, and multicultural competence. This model by Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta (2011) can be applicable to IR offices, where the staff should possess the aforementioned essential skills.

This proposal for practical applications within the IR university context challenges the notion of English language training as the sole essential skill. However, the present study suggests that IR staff do not need only language skills in order to satisfy their visitors and perform their duties. This combination of findings provides some support for the conceptual premise that ELF-awareness raising should be better taught in this setting.

6.5 Summary

Although the findings on the use of Thai staff and international visitors' pragmatic strategies showed that in actual practice they are multilingual speakers who use English as a lingua franca in this context, which is in line with their attitudes showing their acceptance of ELF, there is a tension between their language practice and their attitudes. They believe the converse to their practice. That is to say, they demonstrate a preference for the native English speaker teacher model of learning. However, the researcher has suggested a practical application for material design and development for an ELF-awareness training particularly for IR staff. By taking the interests of these ELF users into account, this application is expected to be better improve these multilingual speakers' awareness of ELF

It is now possible to state that the present study has contributed to the field of pragmatic strategies in terms of the specific setting investigated. The pragmatic strategies that were employed differently by Thai IR staff, i.e. code switching and backchannel, can be a stepping stone to further studies. Finally, the researcher has suggested a practical application in terms of the material design and development of an ELF-awareness training course particularly for IR staff. The researcher believes that with the study's proposals for future research, future researchers can obtain insights

into potential methods, research designs, and other important aspects of ELF in ways that are applicable to further studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire on Attitudes towards English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

This questionnaire aims to gather information on English as a lingua franca (ELF) attitudes in university international relations officials and international visitors. It also aims to identify the ELF features and learning models you have used in your work, study and daily life.

This research is being undertaken by Mrs. Phiphawin Suphawat Srikrai from the School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology for the Doctoral in English Language Studies at Suranaree University of Technology.

It is assumed that filling in the questionnaire implies your consent to participate. The information you provide will only be utilized for the purposes of the research, and any other publications or presentations arising from it. All information will be anonymous which will never be linked to you personally and should you provide your name this only be accessible by the researcher. If you have any questions or concerns regarding the questionnaire, please contact Mrs. Phiphawin Suphawat Srikrai (phiphawin@yahoo.com) or my thesis supervisor; Assoc. Prof. Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk (wannaruk@sut.ac.th)

Thank you very much for your contribution.

Link https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/VD7DLB9

QR Code

<u>Part A</u>: Personal Information

Provide your information in the following items.

1. Your highest degree if you are international relations staff, researcher, and lecturer: your field of study if you are a university student

   ☐ Bachelor's degree in _____

   ☐ Master's degree in _____

   ☐ Doctoral degree in _____

   ☐ Other qualifications (please specify) _____

2. Your nationality

   _____

3. Your first language (mother tongue) (e.g. Malay, Mandarin, Vietnamese)

   _____

4. If you speak other languages than your first language and English, please specify. (e.g. dialect, minority or other foreign languages)

   _____

5. How many months or years have you been in Thailand? (for foreign respondents)

   _____

6. How many months or years have you worked as an international relations official? (for Thai respondents)

   _____

<u>Part B</u>: English as a Lingua Franca recognition and acceptance

Choose your response using the scale.

No.	Item	Totally Agree	Agree	Disagree	Totally Disagree
	English users				
1	English is not only used between native speakers of English.				
2	Non-native English speakers are very likely to use English with people of different nationalities.				
3	More and more non-native English speakers use English to people from different countries.				
4	English is often used among non-native speakers of English.				
	English varieties (World Englishes paradigm)				
5	English has evolved into different varieties is undeniable.				
6	I accept the fact that English has evolved into different varieties (e.g. Australian English, Indian English, Singaporean English, and many others).				
7	Knowing the existence of different varieties of English (e.g. Australian English, Indian English, Singaporean English, and many others) will help mutual understanding.				
	ELF acceptance				
8	It is natural for a non-native English speaker to have an accent in speaking English.				
9	I don't mind people using English with an accent.				
10	I don't mind if someone uses a different variety of English from mine in talking to me.				
11	It is understandable for a non-native English speaker to use a few mother languages in speaking English.				

No.	Item	Totally Agree	Agree	Disagree	Totally Disagree
	English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) features				
12	It is understandable to say, 'He write very well.' (non-use of 3rd person –s)				
13	Misuse of articles (a, an, the, Ø) and use of redundant prepositions are acceptable. (e.g. We live in a apartment, I mentioned about it.)				

Part C: English learning models and communication difficulty

Choose your response using the scale.

No.	Item	Totally Agree	Agree	Disagree	Totally disagree
	Native speaker a model for learning				
14	English is better taught by native speakers of English.				
15	An English native-speaker model should be used for English learning.				
16	Teaching materials must be developed based on the English-native-speaker model.				
17	Native speaker model should be the only model for English language learners.				
	Intelligibility (Understanding)				
18	I have no problem in understanding others no matter what variety of English they use.				
19	I have difficulty understanding others who use a different variety English from mine.				
20	I have difficulty understanding English spoken by people with accents.				

<u>Part D:</u> Comments and Suggestions

Provide your further comments and suggestions here.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

If you would like to enter the draw, please provide your contact details here.

Name_____

Mobile phone _____ Or Email _____

You are also invited to participate as an informant in a 30-minute interview. If you would like to take part with the interview, please provide your contact details here.

Name_____

Mobile phone _____ Or Email _____

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation.

APPENDIX B

Interview Questions on English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in international relations services environment

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1. Ensuring a basic understanding of the concepts

1.1 How do you define English as a lingua franca (ELF)/ English as a native language (ENL)?

1.2 Do you prefer ELF or ENL? Why?

2. Exploring attitudes toward ELF

2.1 Are you comfortable speaking English with international relations staff/your international visitors?

2.2 Do you think you need to speak Standard English or perfect English with them?

3. Native English speaker (NES) vs. Non-native English speaker (NNES)

3.1 Are you comfortable and confident when you speak English with native English speakers?

3.2 Are you comfortable and confident when you speak English with non-native English speakers?

4. Barriers in interactions

4.1 What are the barriers that make it difficult to understand international relations staff/your international visitors?

4.2 What are your meaning negotiation strategies used when you want your message understood correctly?

5. Questions arisen from the initial analysis (pilot study) regarding pragmatic strategies

5.1 When you use backchannel such as "yeah", "uh-huh", "hmm", and "right", what is your purpose in doing that?

5.2 Is code-switching to your L1 (mother language) or L3 (other known languages) beneficial when you talk to non-native English speakers? Why?

5.3 What is your purpose in repeating key word or part of a word of another speaker when you have a conversation with him/her?

5.4 When you do not understand another speaker who is also a non-native English speaker, do you always tell him/her directly that you do not understand?

APPENDIX C

Table 3.3 Nationalities of the questionnaire respondents

No.	Nationality	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Indonesian	20	17.7
2	Chinese	17	15.0
3	Vietnamese	17	15.0
4	Thai	16	14.2
5	Myanmar	13	11.5
6	Cambodian	8	7.1
7	Bhutanese	3	2.7
8	Filipino	3	2.7
9	American	2	1.8
10	Japanese	2	1.8
11	Korean	1	0.9
12	Malaysian	1	0.9
13	British	1	0.9
14	Cameroonian	1	0.9
15	Canadian	1	0.9
16	Australian	1	0.9
17	South African	1	0.9
18	German	1	0.9
19	Nepalese	1	0.9
20	Russian	1	0.9
21	Tanzanian	1	0.9
22	Nigerian	1	0.9

APPENDIX D

Table 3.4 First languages of the questionnaire respondents

No.	Language	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Chinese	17	15.3
2	Vietnamese	16	14.4
3	Thai	16	14.4
4	Bahasa Indonesia	15	13.5
5	Burmese	12	10.8
6	Khmer	8	7.2
7	English	6	5.4
8	Tagalog	2	1.8
9	Javanese	2	1.8
10	Japanese	2	1.8
11	Dzongkha	1	0.9
12	Korean	1	0.9
13	Makassarese	1	0.9
14	French	1	0.9
15	Belitung	1	0.9
16	Nepalese	1	0.9
17	Russian	1	0.9
18	Swahaili	1	0.9
19	Kachin	1	0.9
20	Malay	1	0.9
21	Fulani	1	0.9
22	Ilocano	1	0.9
23	Brokpakha	1	0.9
24	Local dialect	1	0.9
25	German	1	0.9

APPENDIX E

Table 3.5 Spoken languages of the questionnaire respondents other than English

No.	Language	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Thai	18	27.7
2	Korean	4	6.2
3	Dzongkha	3	4.6
4	Chinese	3	4.6
5	Indonesian	3	4.6
6	Spanish	3	4.6
7	German	2	3.1
8	Malay	2	3.1
9	French	2	3.1
10	Burmese	2	3.1
11	Russian	2	3.1
12	Hindi	2	3.1
13	Japanese	1	1.5
14	Cambodian	1	1.5
15	Minangeese	1	1.5
16	Javaneese	1	1.5
17	Mandarin	1	1.5
18	Lithunian	1	1.5
19	Afrikaans	1	1.5
20	Bicolano	1	1.5
21	Dutch	1	1.5
22	Swahili	1	1.5
23	Hausa	1	1.5
24	Vietnamese	1	1.5
25	Napolean	1	1.5
26	Tharu	1	1.5
27	Other languages	5	7.7

APPENDIX F

Major field of study of the questionnaire respondents

Humanities and social sciences

No.	Field	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Arts	1	1.1
2	Business English	2	2.2
3	Curriculum and Instruction	3	3.2
4	Development Science	1	1.1
5	Discourse Analysis	1	1.1
6	Education Administration	1	1.1
7	Educational Technology	1	1.1
8	English	13	14.0
9	English Language Studies	5	5.4
10	Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics	1	1.1
11	Human Movement Science	1	1.1
12	International Affairs	1	1.1
13	Management of Science	1	1.1
14	Mekong Studies	2	2.2
15	Public Administration	2	2.2
16	Science Education	2	2.2
17	Society of UK and USA	1	1.1
18	Sociology	1	1.1
19	Tea Science	1	1.1
20	Teaching English as a Foreign Language	2	2.2
21	Thai Language	2	2.2

Science and technology

No.	Field	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Agricultural Engineering	2	2.2
2	Agricultural Extension	1	1.1
3	Animal Science	2	2.2
4	Biology	3	3.2
5	Biotechnology	2	2.2
6	Chemical Engineering	1	1.1
7	Civil Engineering	1	1.1
8	Computer	1	1.1
9	Computer Engineering	1	1.1
10	Crop Science	1	1.1
11	Data Science and Artificial Intelligence	1	1.1
12	Electrical Engineering	2	2.2
13	Epidemiology and Biostatistics	1	1.1
14	Food Technology	4	4.3
15	Geoinformatics	3	3.2
16	Information Management	1	1.1
17	Information Science	2	2.2
18	Physics	1	1.1
19	Remote Sensing and Geographic Information	1	1.1
20	Software Engineering	1	1.1
21	Structural Engineering	1	1.1
22	Technology	1	1.1

Medical science

No.	Field	Number of respondents	Percentage
1	Biomedical Science	1	1.1
2	Dental Science	1	1.1
3	Medical Microbiology	1	1.1
4	Medicine	1	1.1
5	Nursing	1	1.1
6	Pharmaceutical Science	1	1.1
7	Physiotherapy	1	1.1
8	Public Health Management	7	7.5

APPENDIX G

Thai staff interviewees' profiles.

TS No.	Affiliation	Experience	Degree
1	Faculty of Agriculture, KKU	2 years	BA (Business English)
2	Faculty of Education, KKU	2 years	BA (International Affairs)
3	Faculty of Engineering, KKU	10 years	MA (English)
4	Faculty of Engineering, KKU	14 years	BA (Social Development)
5	Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, KKU	4 years	MA (English)
6	Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, KKU	3 years	BA (English)
7	Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, KKU	10 years	MA (English for Careers)
8	Faculty of Science, KKU	1 year	BA (English)
9	Office of International Affairs, MSU	6 years	BA (English Communication)
10	Office of International Affairs, MSU	5 years	BA (English Communication)
11	Office of International Affairs, MSU	3 years	BA (English)
12	Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, MSU	3 months	BA (English Communication)
13	Center for International Affairs, SUT	5 years	BA (English)
14	Faculty of Liberal Arts, UBU	8 years	MA (TEFL)
15	Office of International Relations, UBU	10 years	MA (English and Communication)
16	Office of International Relations, UBU	20 years	BA (English)
17	Office of International Relations, UBU	4 years	BA (English and Communication)
18	Office of International Relations, UBU	6 years	MA (TEFL)

APPENDIX H

International visitor interviewees' profiles.

IV No.	Affiliation	Country of origin	Period of staying	Languages	Degree
1	KKU	Cambodia	5 years	Thai Chinese	PhD (Animal Science)
2	KKU	Cambodia	2 years	Thai Vietnamese	Msc (Civil Engineering)
3	KKU	Cambodia	2.5 years	English French Laos Thai	Msc (Civil Engineering)
4	KKU	Indonesia	1.5 years	English Thai French Arabic	Msc (Chemical Engineering)
5	KKU	Japan	12 years	English Spanish	PhD (Agriculture Engineering)
6	KKU	Myanmar	3 years	English Thai	PhD (Mechanical Engineering)
7	KKU	China	4 years	English Thai	MA (Teaching)
8	KKU	India	7 years	India Dialect Thai	Phd (Applied Linguistic)
9	KKU	Tanzania	2.6 years	Zukhuma English Thai	Msc (Agriculture)
10	KKU	USA	10 years	Thai	TESOL
11	KKU	Australia	12 years	Thai	BSc (Software Engineering)
12	SUT	Cambodia	1.5 years	English Thai	Msc (Food Technology)
13	SUT	China	2.5 years	English	MA (English Language Studies)
14	SUT	Indonesia	3 years	English Thai	Master (Geoinformatics)
15	SUT	Indonesia	4 years	English Thai	PhD (Physics)
16	SUT	Nepal	3 years	Hindi English	PhD (Electrical Engineering)
17	SUT	Vietnam	3 years	English Thai	Msc (Bio Technology)
18	SUT	Vietnam	4 years	English Thai	PhD (English Language Studies)
19	UBU	USA	2.5 years	Russian German Dutch Thai	PhD
20	UBU	England	5 years	Spanish Thai	Bachelor
21	UBU	Philippines	10 months	English Thai	MA (Applied Linguistics)
22	UBU	Indonesia	8 years	Fahali English Thai	MA (TEFL)

IV No.	Affiliation	Country of origin	Period of staying	Languages	Degree
23	UBU	USA	6 years	Korean Thai	Bsc (Geography)
24	UBU	Philippines	5 years	English Thai	MA (TEFL)
25	UBU	Cameroon	3 years	English French Dialects Thai	-
26	MSU	England	6 years	Spanish Italian German Thai	-
27	MSU	Canada	1 year	French English Thai	-

CURRICULUM VITAE

Phiphawin Suphawat Srikrai obtained her Bachelor degree in English from Prince of Songkla University, Pattani, Thailand, a Graduate Diploma in Business Systems from RMIT University, and a Master degree in Applied Linguistics from Macquarie University, Australia. She also holds numerous certificates including a Specialist Certificate in Curriculum and Materials Development from SEAMEO Regional English Language Center, Singapore, a Certificate in Integrating the Internet into the Classroom from Office of Public Affairs, Embassy of The United States of America, Thailand and a Certificate in Becoming Digital Literate from British Council, Bangkok, Thailand.

Apart from teaching, she was a manager of Ubon Ratchathani Self-directed Learning Center, Ubon Ratchathani University, Thailand. She was a secretary and a committee member of the BA in English Programme, and was a head of the BA in English (international) programme for the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University, Thailand.

Her academic interests are on computer-assisted language learning, material design and development, project-based learning, self-access learning management, and English as a lingua franca.