COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN ELF INTERACTIONS IN THE HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INDUSTRY IN THAILAND

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COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN ELF INTERACTIONS IN THE HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INDUSTRY IN THAILAND

ABSTRACT

English is used as a lingua franca (ELF) in many highly heterogenous hospitality and tourism (HT) settings worldwide. Hybridity and fluidity of the language, multiculturalism, and speakers' varied language proficiency levels might make international HT communication challenging. This study investigated the use of communication strategies (CSs) in ELF interactions in the hospitality and tourism (HT) setting in Thailand. Specifically, CSs which the participants used to preempt and resolve communicative problems were the focus of this study. The frequency and the use of CSs, the functions that CSs served in relation to enhancing communicative effectiveness, and the participants' awareness level of CSs were investigated. The data comprised authentic ELF HT conversations, which were audio recorded, and interviews conducted with selected ELF HT speakers. The data were collected from 3 HT sites, namely, an airport information counter, a tour service counter, and a hotel front office. The data was analyzed using Descriptive Statistics, Conversation Analysis, and Thematic Analysis. The findings of this study reveal that 1) the participants frequently used preemptive strategies to prevent possible communicative problems and resolving strategies when faced with difficulties in communication 2) the CSs were used in a number of ways in the ELF HT interactions. The participants employed preemptive strategies in various ways to avoid possible misunderstanding, mishearing, nonunderstanding, or HT misinformation. In addition, they used resolving strategies differently depending on the communicative problems that the speakers were facing 3) overall, the CSs functioned to enhance communicative effectiveness in international HT communication. Preemptive strategies served several functions such as to highlight the prominence of the key word, explain

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meaning, increase clarity, add detail, simplify a word or utterance, narrow the scope, ensure accurate information, and make misunderstanding or non-comprehension obvious. The preemptive strategies made positive contributions to the interactions by enhancing understanding, and preventing nonunderstanding, ambiguity, misunderstanding, HT trouble, and mistakes in HT service. Resolving strategies also served several functions, namely, to help the ELF speakers express non-comprehension, overcome difficulty in producing a word or utterance, and resolve listeners' problems of comprehension 4) the participants had varying levels of CS awareness and were categorized as follows: speakers who were aware of the need to use CSs, speakers who were aware of the need to use CSs to some degree, and speakers who were unaware of the need to use CSs and considered using reduction strategies, or giving up on the communication, and were ignorant of the ways to deal with communicative problems generally. The findings confirm that the ELF speakers' ability to use CSs takes precedence over their language accuracy in the HT setting. Local HT human resource departments should underscore the importance of CSs to their staff and ELF speakers in HT settings are encouraged to use CSs to enhance their communicative effectiveness. The findings also highlight the need for both preemptive and resolving strategies to be taught in language classes and HT training programs to help learners develop their communication ability when using ELF in the HT setting.

Keywords: English as a lingua franca, hospitality and tourism interactions, communication strategies, preemptive strategies, resolving strategies

STRATEGI KOMUNIKASI DALAM INTERAKSI ELF DALAM INDUSTRI HOSPITALITI DAN PELANCONGAN DI THAILAND

ABSTRAK

Bahasa Inggeris digunakan sebagai lingua franca (ELF) dalam pelbagai persekitaran hospitaliti dan pelancongan (HT) di seluruh dunia. Sifat hibrid dan ketidakstabilan bahasa, kepelbagaian budaya, dan penguasaan bahasa yang terhad oleh penutur mungkin menjadikan komunikasi HT antarabangsa menjadi lebih mencabar. Kajian ini mengkaji penggunaan strategi komunikasi (CS) dalam interaksi ELF dalam persekitaran hospitaliti dan pelancongan (HT) di Thailand. Secara khususnya, CS yang digunakan oleh peserta untuk menangani dan menyelesaikan masalah komunikatif menjadi fokus kajian. Kekerapan dan penggunaan CS oleh kakitangan HT Thailand dan pelancong antarabangsa dikaji. Di samping itu, fungsi CS dalam meningkatkan keberkesanan komunikatif telah diterokai. Terakhir, tahap kesedaran peserta terhadap CS telah dikaji. Data tersebut terdiri daripada perbualan ELF HT yang tulen, iaitu rakaman audio, dan temu bual yang dijalankan terhadap penutur ELF HT terpilih. Data dikumpul daripada 3 lokasi HT iaitu kaunter maklumat lapangan terbang, kaunter perkhidmatan pelancongan dan kaunter penyambut tetamu hotel. Data dianalisis menggunakan Statistik Deskriptif, Analisis Perbualan, dan Analisis Tematik. Dapatan kajian ini memperlihatkan bahawa 1) para peserta kerap menggunakan strategi primptif untuk mencegah kemungkinan masalah komunikatif dan strategi penyelesaian apabila menghadapi kesukaran dalam komunikasi 2) CS digunakan dalam beberapa cara dalam perbualan ELF HT. Peserta menggunakan strategi primptif dalam pelbagai cara untuk mengelakkan kemungkinan salah faham, salah dengar, tidak faham, atau maklumat salah HT. Selain itu, mereka menggunakan strategi penyelesaian secara berbeza bergantung pada masalah komunikatif yang dihadapi penutur 3) secara keseluruhan, CS berfungsi untuk meningkatkan keberkesanan

komunikatif dalam komunikasi HT antarabangsa. Strategi primptif mempunyai beberapa fungsi seperti menonjolkan kata kunci, menerangkan makna, meningkatkan kejelasan, menambahkan perincian, memudahkan sesuatu perkataan atau ujaran, menyempitkan skop, memastikan maklumat yang tepat, dan jelas menunjukkan salah faham atau ketidakfahaman. Strategi primptif memberi sumbangan positif terhadap perbualan dengan meningkatkan pemahaman, mencegah ketidakfahaman, kekaburan, salah faham, masalah HT dan kesilapan dalam perkhidmatan HT. Strategi penyelesaian juga mempunyai beberapa fungsi, iaitu membantu penutur ELF menyatakan ketidakfahaman mereka, mengatasi kesukaran untuk menyebut perkataan atau ujaran, dan menyelesaikan masalah kefahaman pendengar 4) para peserta mempunyai tahap kesedaran CS yang berbeza-beza dan dikategorikan sebagai berikut: penutur yang menyedari keperluan untuk menggunakan CS, penutur yang menyedari keperluan untuk menggunakan CS pada tahap tertentu, dan penutur yang tidak menyedari keperluan untuk menggunakan CS dan mempertimbangkan untuk menggunakan strategi pengurangan, berputus asa dalam komunikasi, dan tidak mengetahui cara-cara untuk menangani masalah komunikatif secara amnya. Keputusan mengesahkan bahawa keupayaan penutur ELF untuk menggunakan CS lebih diutamakan daripada penguasaan bahasa mereka dalam persekitaran HT. Jabatan sumber manusia HT tempatan harus menekankan kepentingan CS kepada kakitangan mereka dan penutur ELF dalam persekitaran HT digalakkan untuk menggunakan CS untuk meningkatkan keberkesanan komunikatif mereka. Hasilnya juga menekankan keperluan untuk kedua-dua strategi primptif dan penyelesaian untuk diajar dalam kelas bahasa dan program latihan HT untuk membantu pelajar mengembangkan keupayaan berkomunikasi mereka menggunakan ELF dalam persekitaran HT.

Kata kunci: Bahasa Inggeris sebagai lingua franca, interaksi hospitaliti dan pelancongan, strategi komunikasi, strategi primptif, strategi penyelesaian

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN   :   Association of Southeast Asian Nations

CA   :   Conversation analysis

CSs   :   Communication strategies

ELF   :   English as a lingua franca

ELT   :   English language teaching

ESP   :   English for specific purposes

HCIs   :   Human-computer interactions

HT   :   Hospitality and tourism

NNS   :   Non-native speaker of English

NS   :   Native speaker of English

S.D.   :   Standard deviations

SLA   :   Second language acquisition

TA   :   Thematic analysis

TAT   :   Tourism Authority of Thailand

WE   :   World Englishes

$\bar{x}$:   Means

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The tourism industry is one of the most important industries in Thailand. The country's warm hospitality, friendly locals, wonderful tourist destinations, and spectacular cuisine are prominent, thus attracting thousands of foreign tourists each year (Kuosuwan, 2016). Also, the success of the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) in promoting tourism has contributed to an increasing number of international tourists, as evidenced by a total of 40 million foreign visitors in 2019. Furthermore, this industry has produced the second highest revenue compared to other service industries whereby it generated revenue of about 1,930,000,000 billion baht in 2019 according to TAT (2021), besides providing over 145,000 jobs for Thai citizens (Prachanant, 2012).

In the hospitality and tourism (HT) setting in Thailand, international tourists are of diverse nationalities. It is a multicultural milieu composed of foreign tourists from around the globe. Statistics from TAT (2019) indicate that most of them are from Asia – i.e. about 30,359,801 Asian tourists visited Thailand in the whole of 2019 – and especially from East Asia (e.g., China and South Korea), South Asia (e.g., India and Bangladesh), and ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) countries (e.g., Malaysia and Singapore). This context also includes many tourists from various nations from Europe, such as France, Germany, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Italy, Hungary, and Finland, which adds up to a figure of about 6,719,114 international tourists from Europe in 2019.

Therefore, English oral communication plays a crucial role in the HT context in Thailand (Charunsri, 2011; Kuosuwan, 2016; Nomnian, 2014; Prachanant, 2012). Tourists who are non-native speakers of English (NNS) and speak different first languages have to interact with Thai local employees in the HT sector by using English as a lingua franca (ELF). Among the diverse non-native English speakers in this

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environment, the English language, which plays the role of a second or foreign language to them, is used as a 'common language' to fulfil particular tourism and service purposes, including accommodation reservation in hotels, tour management, food and product ordering as well as flight booking.

Due to this diversity of international tourists, the forms and use of English in this HT setting are different from the standard English that is used in Britain and the United States or the English that is taught in the classroom. English use here displays hybridity, fluidity, flexibility, and multiculturalism (Jenkins et al., 2011). ELF speakers of different nationality signal their respective identities in the language they use (Baker, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011). Thai HT employees have to deal with variability in the form and use of English daily. For example, ELF speakers often pronounce English words differently from native English speakers (Deterding, 2011, 2013; Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2004). They also use non-standard English forms (Björkman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Ranta, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004) or create words, phrases, or idioms that do not exist in the English native speakers' community (Hülmbauer, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2004). Alternatively, they may even mix their first language into their English conversation (Cogo, 2009, 2010; Deterding, 2013; Pitzl, 2013; Wolfartsberger, 2009).

Unlike English language teaching (ELT), which tends to rely on standard English norms, ELF focuses more on conveying meaning and mutual understanding (Jenkins, 2006). The most important aspect in this multilingual framework is not correctness by adhering to the language rules, but communication. The ability to communicate effectively is the priority rather than the observance of native speaker English norms (Nomnian, 2014; Sirikhan and Prapphal, 2011). To achieve communicative goals and avoid conversation breakdown, both international tourists and Thai HT employees need

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communicative competence and the ability to deal with difficulties in the multicultural interactions.

However, it is undeniable that cross-cultural communications are sometimes challenging. The diversity of accents (Deterding, 2013; Leyland, 2011; Pickering, 2006) and the different levels of language proficiency might cause difficulty in communication, and ELF speakers given these circumstances might display communicative problems in conversations. To have successful conversations and provide good service, such problems are better prevented by the language users. When communicative problems do occur, the meaning of the message needs to be negotiated until the problems are resolved and the communicative goals are achieved. Given the variability in the forms and use of English, ELF speakers in this setting need the ability to preempt and resolve communicative problems, maintain ongoing conversation, negotiate meaning, and enhance mutual understanding (Björkman, 2014; Firth, 1990; Kaur, 2011a; Mauranen, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004). Therefore, the use of communication strategies (CSs) is needed in ELF HT interactions, such as the strategy to reformulate utterances to prevent non-understanding, ask interlocutors for language help, use approximate words to convey meaning, or repair earlier ambiguous utterances. In the ELF context, the knowledge, awareness, and ability to deploy CSs play a crucial role in communicative effectiveness.

1.2   Statement of the Problem

One of the main factors inhibiting the success of English oral communication in Thailand is poor English language proficiency among its speakers. Numerous studies have concluded that Thai English proficiency is generally poor (Baker, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Kolmondin, 2006; Yusica, 2014). Kolmodin (2006) described Thais as being ill-equipped to deal with easy words or simple conversations despite holding university degrees. This supports the assertion by Baker (2012) and Yusica (2014) that Thais'

English proficiency is lagging far behind compared to other ASEAN countries and that English oral communication poses a huge problem for Thais. Kirkpatrick (2010) stated that low English proficiency among Thais can be attributed to Thailand's lack of colonial history. Having never been colonised by any European countries, Thai society has long been a monocultural and monolingual community. Most Thais have few opportunities to participate in English conversations. Almost all Thais use Thai as a first language while English merely plays the role of a compulsory subject in school (Kirkpatrick, 2010). Baker (2012) claimed that the education system in Thailand is one of the factors that impedes the English proficiency of Thais. He asserted that the Thai government failed to enact an effective policy to develop English language ability among Thai students. Meanwhile, on the part of English language teachers in Thailand, there is inadequate preparation for English classes, excessive responsibility, insufficient materials or equipment for classes, overlarge class sizes, and over-reliance on multiple-choice tests (Baker, 2012). These reasons cause Thailand's English language proficiency to rank behind that of her neighbours. Based on the problems above, it seems that improving and developing oral English proficiency in Thailand is rather difficult. This is the reason Thais have to be taught ways to enhance their oral communication ability in order to accomplish mutual understanding and to find solutions to ensure that ELF conversations are successful despite their low English proficiency.

With regard to the HT context in Thailand, while a study of foreign tourists' oral English ability has not yet been undertaken, the lack of English language competency among Thai HT employees has been widely observed (e.g., Charunsri, 2011; Inkaew, 2016; Kuosuwan, 2016; Nomnian, 2014; Prachanant, 2012). Charunsri (2011) explored the English language needs and problems of front office staff in Bangkok and found that English oral communication is the most inadequate skill among receptionists while also being the most necessary. This supports several studies affirming the existence of oral

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communication barriers in the HT context in Thailand. Prachanant (2012), for example, investigated listening and speaking problems in the tourism industry. In terms of listening, he found that most employees have comprehension issues when foreigners speak too fast in addition to difficulties in understanding foreign accents. As for speaking problems, the results showed that they have insufficient vocabulary to produce understandable English utterances. Kuosuwan (2016) examined the English communication ability of over 100 HT employees in Bangkok. The findings indicated that there is a need to develop their oral communication skills. Hiranburana (2017) discovered that listening and speaking skills are the biggest problems for Thai business communicators in comparison with other English language components such as reading and writing. In the HT industry, English oral communication ability is essential to raise the quality of service. A lack of English proficiency is indeed a huge barrier that affects mutual understanding in conversation and brings about a negative impact on the communicators' image (Kolmodin, 2006).

Notwithstanding the above, ELF HT conversations need intelligibility and achieving communicative goals is important. In these interactions, ELF speakers need to engage in successful conversations to fulfil particular tourism goals. When confronting unfamiliar English accents or other communicative problems, mutual understanding needs to be fostered. Judging by the aforementioned findings indicating the limited English ability of Thais and the shortcomings of language teaching in the Thai education system, the identification of language barriers and problems is insufficient to formulate suggestions and a direction for the improvement and development of English oral communication ability in this setting. Thus, it is imperative to identify effective techniques and strategies which ELF speakers could employ to promote better communication when confronted with difficult situations whilst communicating. In addition, it is crucial to determine how those strategies affect the quality of communication. For example, it is necessary to study how ELF speakers in these interactions convey unknown lexical items, preempt possible

problems in communication, maintain ongoing conversation when an English word or function is unknown, or deal with ambiguity and non-understanding in conversations. In addition, the impact of these CSs on the communicative effectiveness, the conversation goals, and the success of the communications should be investigated.

Although many researchers have studied the language barriers facing Thai HT employees, studies on the speakers' use of CSs when faced with communicative difficulties or to enhance the quality of utterances is rare. It has been found that most language studies in the HT context in Thailand were conducted by ESP (English for specific purposes) scholars who have emphasized the speakers' language problems and undertaken needs analyses. These studies provided suggestions and recommendations for occupation-related training such as 'English for hotel services' or 'English for tour guides' (see Charunsri, 2011; Kuosuwan, 2016; Nomnian, 2014; Prachanant, 2012; Sirikhan and Prapphal, 2011). However, it is evident that research pertaining to the speakers who use English as a lingua franca in their HT conversations is rare. It seems that the dimension of language for international use, multilingualism, and cross-cultural interactions in this setting have been largely ignored by the linguists. In fact, more variables need to be given consideration when studying the language in ELF conversations than only the speakers' language ability or needs. Given their different language proficiency and their bilingual status, the speakers' strategies to prevent possible misunderstanding or non-understanding (Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2006) and to overcome communicative problems (Björkman, 2014; Kwan and Dunworth, 2016) are also important. Jaroensak (2018) identified several pragmatic strategies used in ELF hospitality situations in Thailand. She found that ELF speakers in this setting used CSs such as repetition, paraphrasing, repair, comprehension checks, and clarification requests to, for instance, preempt communicative problems, clarify and simplify the message, and gain time. The CSs which were identified in her work were interesting and illuminating.

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However, some helpful CSs which can be applied to develop ELF speakers' communication ability were neglected in her paper, such as the use of approximation, explication, circumlocution, appeal for help, asking for repetition, code-switching and so on.

Last but not least, the ELF speakers' level of knowledge and awareness of CSs in the ELF hospitality and tourism context has also yet to be taken into consideration. Although it is widely proposed that raising awareness and increasing knowledge about the use of CSs could enhance language users' oral communication ability (see Jamshidnejad, 2011; Kaizhu, 2016; Ghout-Khenoune, 2012; Kuen et al., 2017; Lewis, 2011; Maleki, 2010; Nakatani, 2005; Ting and Phan, 2008; Yazdanpanah, 2011), there has been little study of ELF speakers' awareness of CSs in the HT context.

1.3   Research Aims

The study aims to investigate communication strategies (CSs) in the hospitality and tourism context in Thailand within the framework of English as a lingua franca (ELF). It focuses on the frequency, use, functions and awareness of CSs among the participants. There are 4 research objectives in this study, and they are as follows:

1. To investigate the frequency of CSs use in ELF interactions in the hospitality and tourism context in Thailand.

2. To study how the participants use CSs in ELF interactions in the hospitality and tourism context in Thailand.

3. To determine the functions of CSs that contribute to communicative effectiveness in ELF hospitality and tourism interactions.

4. To investigate the participants' awareness level of CSs.

To achieve the purpose of the research, this study identifies the various CSs used and

proposes categories of CSs. Descriptive Statistics were used to determine which strategies were commonly used and which were least used in Thai ELF hospitality and tourism settings. The question of how ELF speakers employ each CS was explored in order to uncover the nature and features of each CS occurring in ELF HT interaction. The functions that show the usefulness and the effectiveness of CSs in ELF HT communication was also determined. Lastly, the speakers' awareness of CSs was explored to determine the speakers' level of CS knowledge. The findings can be used to provide valuable suggestions and recommendations for the enhancement of English oral communication ability of ELF speakers in the HT setting in Thailand. The findings of this study are also beneficial to various parties such as curriculum or course designers and language teachers or trainers who are preparing their language learners for involvement in the ELF HT context (e.g., through courses on "English for Hotel Business", "English for Tour Guide", and "English for Tourism")

1.4   Research Questions

The research questions of this study were formulated based on the aforementioned objectives:

1. How frequently do ELF speakers use CSs in their interactions in the hospitality and tourism context in Thailand?

2. How do the participants use each CS in ELF interactions?

3. What functions do CSs serve in relation to communicative effectiveness in ELF hospitality and tourism interactions?

4. What is the participants' awareness level of CSs?

1.5   Significance of the Study

This research investigated CSs in ELF HT interactions. It focused on the frequency, the use, the impact, and the awareness of CSs. The categories of CSs were determined by

considering the functions of the CSs and the speakers' purpose in using them. This research does not just investigate how CSs are used in HT multicultural interactions (see Van, 2015; Jaroensak, 2018); it also identifies the concrete CS categories of preemptive and resolving strategies, provides statistical results relating to common, moderate, and rare CSs in the setting, presents empirical lists of the impact of CSs, and examines the aspect of participants' CS awareness levels.

First, this research has created concrete CSs categories which will be of benefit to ELF speakers in HT setting, HT language training, and pedagogy. CSs such as, 'preemptive strategies' and 'resolving strategies' have been categorized based on the CSs' functions and the speakers' purpose in using them. These CS categories will be useful to people in international HT settings, HT language trainees, and language learners as a tool to deal with difficulties in the multiparty interactions and enhance the effectiveness of the communication. The categories also feature preemptive strategies which have been identified by ELF scholars (Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2006) but neglected in other fields, including in English for specific purposes (ESP) and ELT. The strategies not only deal with communicative problems in ELF interactions, but when taught to HT language trainees or language learners they will enable those involved to gain an ELF perspective and prioritize the ability to enhance the effectiveness of the communication even when communication problems are not an issue. Second, the statistical results in this research revealed the frequency of CS use in the research setting. This is not only limited to CS percentages or total numbers in use: there are more detailed statistics such as the average level of use of each CS and its level of dispersion. The statistics indicate 'which CSs were common, moderate, or rare' and 'how they were distributed in the setting' and allow comparison of frequency of use among them. The statistical information can be used as empirical evidence to determine, for example, 'the CSs which were lacking in the setting' or 'the CSs which should be more or less emphasized in HT communicative training'.

Third, the results of this study show the strategic moves which ELF speakers in this setting adopted to prevent or deal with communicative problems. This includes the (non) lexical items, language forms, and language functions which ELF HT speakers used to formulate CSs. The issue of 'whether the speakers' way of producing CSs was effective or comprehended by the interlocutors' was also considered. Fourth, this research has identified the functions of CSs in relation to communicative effectiveness in ELF HT interaction. It provides empirical evidence showing the effectiveness and benefits of using CSs in multicultural conversations and can provide the empirical answer to the question of 'why the CSs should be taught in HT language training and pedagogy?'. Finally, this research presents the participants' level of CSs awareness in this setting. It allows the participants' level of knowledge and use of CSs to be determined. The investigation of CS awareness can be used to answer the question of 'how much CS awareness and knowledge should ELF HT speakers have'.

From the discussion above, it can be seen that the research findings can contribute to resolving English oral communication problems and promoting the quality of communication among the ELF speakers in the HT environment in Thailand. The findings can provide empirical directions for HT human resource management and HT course designers to enhance the knowledge, awareness, and ability of ELF speakers to employ CSs to further improve their English oral communication ability. Practitioners in HT or English for HT curriculum designers can create useful course syllabi for English communication and constructive activities by referring to the research results. The results of this study can be applied in language classes which prepare learners for communication in HT contexts through courses such as 'English for Hotel Staff' or 'English for tourism'. To enhance language users' communicative ability in ELF interactions, such courses should be designed on the basis of real data provided by this research.

More importantly, the results of this research will be key in improving Thai HT services. The tourism industry in Thailand is robust compared to that of other parts of Asia and provides many job opportunities for local Thais. Each year, many Thai graduates apply for jobs in this sector as it is a way to earn a higher income compared to working in the local agriculture sector or other service jobs. However, Thais' English proficiency is not highly regarded. Therefore, not only should their English language proficiency be enhanced, but they should also be equipped with the skills to employ CSs. Supporting Thai HT staff to use effective CSs is one of the potential ways to improve the quality of HT services. Finally, this research promotes the adoption of the ELF perspective among ELF HT speakers, HT language trainers or trainees, and language teachers or learners so that they can realize that they can use CSs regardless of language accuracy. The focus should be on meaning negotiation, flexibility, and communicative goals achievement rather than 'perfect English'. HT staff should dare to use English as their own, especially when facing communicative problems or difficulties.

1.6   Research Scope and Limitations

This research investigated CSs in the ELF hospitality and tourism sector in Thailand. The participants of this research were Thai employees in the HT industry and foreign tourists who were non-native speakers of English. The data were collected in tourist destinations in Southern Thailand. This research collected data from three tourism service sites – the information counter at an airport, a tour service counter, and a front desk in a hotel. Authentic oral conversations between Thai tourism staff and international tourists were recorded. In addition to that, 10 percent of the participants were randomly chosen for an interview. The data from the authentic conversations were transcribed before conducting the analysis. The frequency of CS use was statistically analyzed using SPSS program (version 25). The features and impact of CSs on communicative effectiveness were analyzed using Conversation Analysis (CA). The interview data were transcribed

and analyzed using Thematic Analysis (TA). The results of this study illustrate the frequency of use of CSs, their features, the functions that CSs serve in relation to communicative effectiveness, and the level of ELF speakers' awareness of CSs. The findings of this study provide directions on enhancing intelligibility or resolving communication difficulties. It is also about encouraging ELF speakers to focus on meaning and to take risks in using language to achieve communicative goals rather than succumbing to the fear of making mistakes. Suggestions for pedagogy as well as HT language training are also discussed.

As for the limitations of this research, to respect the privacy of foreign tourists and to avoid further disturbance to the guests, this study collected data using a tape recorder instead of a video camera. Since audio data cannot be used to analyse visuals, mimes, or the use of body language, it will not be possible to study these types of CS here.

1.7 Definition of Terms

Terms used in this study are defined as follows:

1) *English as a lingua franca (ELF)* refers to the use of the English language between non-native speakers of English who do not share the same first language.

2) *ELF speakers* refer to non-native speakers of English who use English as a common language to communicate with interlocutors who do not share the same first language.

3) *Communication strategies (CSs)* refers to the strategic moves that speakers make to prevent or resolve communicative problems in conversations.

4) *Preemptive strategies* refer to the strategic moves that speakers make to prevent possible communicative problems.

5) *Resolving strategies* refer to the strategic moves that speakers make to resolve communicative problems in conversations.

6) *Communication strategy awareness* refers to the speakers' knowledge of how to use CSs to preempt and overcome communicative problems.

7) *Communicative goal* refers to the goal of the conversation.

8) *Communicative success* refers to the situation in which communicative goals in the conversation are achieved.

9) *Effectiveness of communication* refers to the quality of the communication with an emphasis on mutual understanding between the interactants and the success of the communication.

10) *Conversation breakdown* refers to the breaking off of communication in mid-conversation without achieving the goal as a result of the speakers' communication difficulties.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA

This chapter examines current literature related to English as a lingua franca (ELF). An overview of ELF is presented and important definitions and concepts in ELF are discussed. Studies about language features, language use, and intelligibility in ELF are also reviewed. A discussion about ELF in pedagogy, including ELF in the hospitality and tourism setting, is provided. Finally, details relevant to ELF speakers and language use in the HT context in Thailand are also explained.

2.1   Introduction

The term 'lingua franca' originated in the south-eastern coast of the Mediterranean between the 15th and 19th centuries (Jenkins et al., 2011). It was used to refer to a language that Arabic speakers used to communicate with traders from Europe (House, 2003). In earlier times, terms such as 'trade language', 'trade jargon', 'contact language', and 'auxiliary language' were used in reference to this form of communication (Jenkins et al., 2011). House (2003) explains that the word 'lingua franca' originated from an Arabic word, 'lisan-al-farang'. Jenkins et al. (2011) and Seidlhofer (2011) add that a 'lingua franca' was a pidgin language based on certain Italian dialects and included Arabic, Greek, French, Persian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Turkish elements.

The English language began playing the role of a lingua franca in some parts of Asia and Africa during the colonial period from the 16th century onwards (Jenkins et al., 2011). Some countries in Asia (e.g., India, Malaysia, Singapore, and Hong Kong) and Africa (e.g., Nigeria and Kenya) were colonised by Britain, and the English language was brought into these countries and used by non-native speakers of English, colonials, and neighbouring countries alike.

It is worth noting that the original definition and emphasis of the term 'lingua franca' was different from the current ones. Its meaning has changed from a language of commerce or contact to a language used between speakers of different linguistic backgrounds. Nowadays, the term 'English as a lingua franca' signifies its role as an 'international language' or a 'shared language' used by non-native English speakers worldwide. Although ELF is of course often used between NSs and NNSs (Jenkins, 2007), some researchers focus on communications between NNSs as the presence of NSs can have an effect on the interactions. Nowadays, the use of ELF is increasing and expanding into various international domains, such as business, academia, hospitality and tourism.

The term 'English as a lingua franca' or ELF piqued the interest of German scholars Hüllen (1982) and Knapp (1985, 1987) back in the 1980s, who raised the subject of ELF and encouraged its application to English language teaching (ELT). The interest in English as a lingua franca then started growing among various groups of linguists and scholars in the mid-1990s (Kirkpatrick, 2010). One of the notable early empirical studies on English as a lingua franca was conducted by Firth (1990) who applied Conversation Analysis (CA) to ELF data to investigate the features of language used in the context of business telephone conversations that were obtained from an international trading company. In the study, he argued in favour of non-native English speakers' right to use English regardless of standard English norms. This argument subsequently became one of the core concepts of ELF. Additionally, Meierkord (1998) investigated the linguistic features of ELF small talk conversations of overseas students in Great Britain. She found that in spite of the participants' limited English proficiency, they were able to communicate successfully due to their cooperative behavior and use of various strategies including cajolers, back-channels, restatements and sentence completions. Another important stage in the evolution of English as a lingua franca was a study by Jenkins

(2000) who proposed a focus on a set of features of international pronunciation and a non-native speakers' 'phonology core' in studies of English as an international language. Seidlhofer (2001) then studied the lexical and grammatical features of ELF. She found that ELF is inherently different from standard English and argued that non-native English speakers should be acknowledged as legitimate users of English.

It appears that after 2000, interest in English as a lingua franca increased dramatically. Books on English as a lingua franca (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011) and the first ELF conference proceeding (Mauranen and Ranta, 2009) were published. Then, the journal of 'English as a lingua franca' was established in 2011. At present, numerous academic articles about ELF have been published. Scholars have examined the use of ELF in different parts of the world, such as Europe (e.g., Cogo, 2010; Dombi, 2011; Firth, 1990, 1996; Hynninen, 2014; Proshina, 2005 and 2008), Asia (e.g., Baker, 2009; Deterding, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Walkinshaw and Kirkpatrick, 2014; Walkinshaw et al., 2019), and Africa (e.g., Khokhlova, 2015; Onraët, 2011). One of the important developments in the field of English as a lingua franca has been the establishment of ELF corpora, presented as ELF corpus databases for researchers, such as the 'English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings' or ELFA corpus (Mauranen, 2008), the 'Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English' or VOICE (Seidlhofer, 2004), and the 'Asian Corpus of English' or ACE (Kirkpatrick, 2010).

Moreover, it is apparent that ELF scholars have examined various linguistic aspects in ELF data. Not only have they observed features of ELF pronunciation (e.g., Deterding, 2011; Jenkins, 2000), but they have also done so for language forms and idioms (e.g., Baumgarten and House, 2010; Beltrán, 2013; Pitzl, 2009; Ranta, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2009b), lexis (e.g., Hülmbauer, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Mauranen, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2004), language and culture (e.g., Baker, 2009; Kankaanranta and Lu, 2013),

misunderstandings and preemptive strategies (e.g., Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2006), communication strategies (e.g., Björkman, 2011, 2014; Firth, 1996; Kaur, 2011b, 2012, 2019; Kwan and Dunworth, 2016), translation (e.g., Bennett, 2013; Foley and Deocampo, 2014), fluency (e.g., Hüttner, 2009), and even laughter and humour (e.g., Kappa, 2016; Stark, 2009).

2.2   Definitions of English as a Lingua Franca

Definitions of the terms 'lingua franca' and 'English as a lingua franca' have been proposed by various scholars. A common noticeable characteristic is the focus on the role of language in defining these terms. Its speakers' different first language and English as a 'shared language' have always been included in the definitions. The definitions presented here are some prevalent ones proposed by prominent scholars.

Since any language can be used as a lingua franca, the definition of 'lingua franca' itself has to remain unspecified in terms of language. In fact, at the outset Samarin (1987) gave a notable definition of the term 'lingua franca' as "any lingual medium of communication between people of different mother languages, for whom it is a second language" (p. 37).

Then, when the term 'English as a lingua franca' gained currency among researchers, various scholars attempted to define the term. Initially, the predominant definition of 'English as a lingua franca' came from Firth (1996). He defined the term as "a 'contact language' between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication" (p. 240). It is noteworthy that the definitions proposed by both Samarin and Firth in the early days emphasised the role of language to its speakers and focused on the differences between speakers in terms of their first language. However, Firth's definition has the addition of a new variable which is denoted by the term 'difference of

national cultures. It can be assumed that Firth intended to highlight that the difference among ELF speakers is not merely in terms of their mother tongue, but also the fact that they come from different places or countries and have different cultures. Later, House (1999) defined the term 'English as a lingua franca' as "interaction between members of two or more different linguistic cultures in English, for none of whom English is the mother tongue" (p. 74).

From the ELF definitions above, it is apparent that in the early times, native speakers of English were excluded from the ELF community. From the definitions provided by Firth (1996) and House (1999), ELF speakers comprise only non-native English speakers, as evidenced by the phrases 'for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication' (Firth, 1996) and 'for none of whom English is the mother tongue' (House, 1999). However, Jenkins (2009) subsequently included native speakers of English in the ELF community, as is evident in her ELF definition. She delineated the term as "a specific communication context: English being used as a lingua franca, the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different linguacultural backgrounds" (Jenkins, 2009, p. 200). This definition of Jenkins is well-known and has been widely accepted. Another notable explanation of English as a lingua franca which also incorporates native speakers of English into the ELF community was by Seidlhofer (2011) who clarified the term simply as "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (p. 7). These interpretations by Jenkins (2009) and Seidlhofer (2011) had a significant impact on ELF research as they proposed a different approach whereby native speakers of English can be included as research participants.

This research focuses on the use of English in ELF conversations between international tourists and Thai HT staff. The messages conveyed in the conversations by both the staff

and the tourists are taken into consideration in the data analysis section. Although some English native speakers from Britain, the United States, or Australia participated in this ELF context, their conversations were excluded from the data. This was to ensure that the data is truly representative of 'English as a lingua franca' interactions, not English as a 'second' or 'foreign' language, or as a 'mother tongue' of any participant. Therefore, this research sets out the term 'English as a lingua franca' as 'the use of the English language between non-native speakers who do not share a same first language'.

2.3   Concept of English as a Lingua Franca

The concept of 'English as a lingua franca' emphasises the use of the English language as a 'mutual language' between non-native English speakers. Kachru (1985), a scholar in the World Englishes (WE) field, proposed the well-known 'circles' model representing the distribution of English, which included the relationship between the English language and its users around the world. The following diagram illustrates Kachru's three circles theory (1985).

	Inner circle English users
	Outer circle English users
	Expanding circle English users
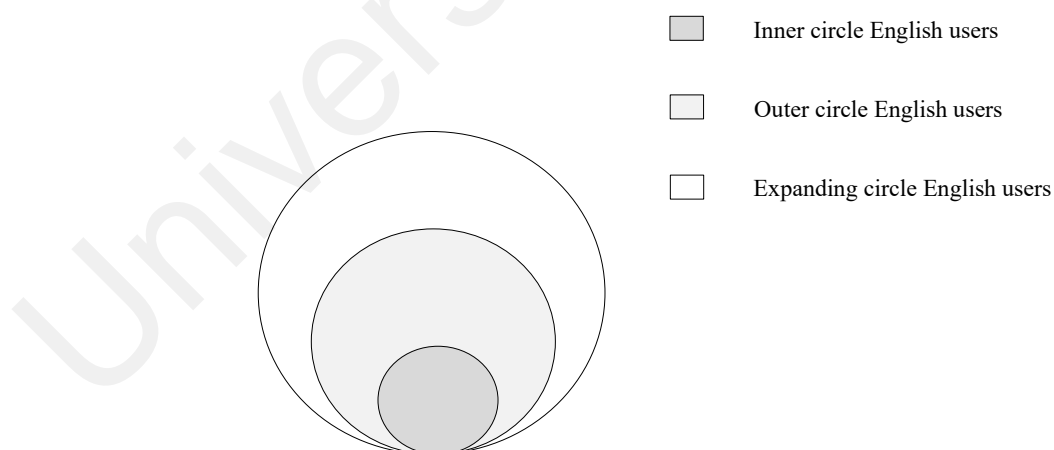
Figure 2.1: Kachru's Three Circles (1985) Diagram Explaining the Distribution of English Around the World

As shown in the diagram, Kachru divided English language users around the world into three groups. First, the 'inner circle' that represents English native speakers or speakers who use English as a mother tongue, such as those from Britain, the United States, or Australia. Next, the 'outer circle' that represents the speech community who employ English as an additional language or a second language as a result of a history of colonisation. The outer circle countries refer to nations that have been colonised by Britain or the United States, such as Singapore, India, Malaysia, and Nigeria. Last but not least, language users from the 'expanding circle' represent English speakers who use English as a foreign language, and to whom English plays a lesser role in intranational communications, such as China, Thailand, Saudi Arabia, Egypt, and Japan. Kachru (1985) focused on the "types of spread", "patterns of acquisition", and "functional allocation of English" (e.g., language of higher education or government) (Kachru, 1985, p.11-30). This model failed to mention anything about ELF or the international use of English.

According to the ELF definitions by Firth (1996) and House (1999), inner circle language users are excluded from ELF communications. However, Jenkins (2007) contended that inner circle speakers who may be British, American, or Australian can be included in the ELF context, albeit minimally and they should be excluded from data collection in ELF research. This statement by Jenkins (2007) also differentiates ELF from WE. While WE literature describes nativized varieties of English in terms of specific geographical locations, ELF tends to focus more on how non-native speakers of English use English in their interactions within multicultural communication; consequently, native speakers can be included in ELF conversations. However, WE and ELF do have some common ground, such as the concept of multilingualism and language variation (Cogo, 2012).

It can be concluded that English plays the role of a common language between speakers in ELF conversations. Speakers share their meaning using English with interlocutors who are from different backgrounds, have different first languages, have different cultures, and perhaps even have different language proficiency levels. This includes conversations or group discussions among international or exchange students in the academic context, oral discourses in international meetings, telephone conversations in multinational companies, and conversations between tourism employees and international tourists. House (2010) described English as a lingua franca as follows:

> "A major characteristic of English as a lingua franca then is its multiplicity of voices. English as a lingua franca is a language for communication, and a medium that can be given substance with different national, regional, local, and individual cultural identities. ELF has thus considerable potential for international understanding as there is no pre-fixed norm, and therefore lingua franca speakers must always work out a new joint linguistic, intercultural and behavioral basis for their communication in different communities of practice." (p. 365)

2.4   Language Features of English as a Lingua Franca

International communication between speakers of different first languages around the world and the use of ELF represent an important dimension in the development of English. People in every country across the globe have their own way of using English, and ELF communication highlights the variability and fluidity of the language. As ELF involves pluralistic and multicultural speakers, ELF interactions precipitate significant changes to the English language due to its diverse speakers around the world (Dewey, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Yano, 2009). For example, during the colonial period, the English language was brought to various countries and was used for intranational communication in each colonial country. Today, all postcolonial countries use English with their own independent identities, such as Singapore English, Malaysian English, Nigerian English, or Indian English (Seidlhofer, 2011). Furthermore, at present, many scholars contend that non-native speakers who use ELF are the largest number of English

users (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Jenkins and Leung, 2017). Meanwhile, the phenomenon of language change brought about by the ELF speakers "is never completed but always ongoing" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 106).

Due to the fact that ELF speakers are heterogeneous, the lexical, phonological and grammatical features of the English used in the ELF context are inherently different from those of standard English (i.e., the form of English which is by convention generally considered the most correct and acceptable (Oxford English Dictionary, 2023)) (Baker, 2009; Björkman, 2009; Deterding, 2011; Firth, 1996; House, 2003; Jenkins, 2000, 2002, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Mauranen, 2015; Ranta, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004; Yano, 2009). Findings show that the diverse ELF speakers reflect their own identities during interactions and produce English utterances that reveal the influence of their respective first languages. For example, ELF speakers might pronounce English words differently compared to native speakers' pronunciations (Deterding, 2011, 2013; Jenkins, 2000, 2002, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2004), create words that do not exist in standard English (Hülmbauer, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2004), use English regardless of the standard forms or adopt forms from another language (e.g., Björkman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Ranta, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004), and switch and mix their first language in the English conversation (Deterding, 2013; Cogo, 2010; Jenkins, 2006, 2012, 2015; Kankaanranta, 2005; Wolfartsberger, 2009).

Early ELF research focused on the investigation of the linguistic features of ELF. Many studies have been conducted to identify specific language characteristics of ELF. The examinations of the linguistic features of ELF were not focused on the analysis of grammatical errors, but rather they emphasized the identification of specific features of the English language used in multicultural communications. The language features of ELF in terms of pronunciation, grammar, lexis and morphology as well as idiom will be

discussed below.

First of all, the pronunciation features of ELF have been explored and described (e.g., Deterding, 2011, 2013; Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2004). It has been found that the diversity of ELF speakers has resulted in various accents that differ from British or American English in terms of sounds, word stresses, and intonations. Jenkins (2002) proposed the 'Lingua Franca Core' or LFC, embracing the flexibility and intelligibility in pronunciation among ELF speakers. She stated that, given the ELF milieu, the pronunciation rules are flexible and tend to focus on intelligibility, speakers' social interactions and communication success. It is common for ELF speakers to have different English accents, and it is important to admit that there is the link between speakers' accent and their identity. Subsequently, several studies have produced results that confirmed Jenkins' lingua franca core, including the study of language features and pronunciations of ELF ASEAN speakers by Kirkpatrick (2010) and the study of Chinese English speakers' pronunciation by Deterding (2011).

Moreover, it is evident that the English grammatical forms of ELF vary from standard English (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 2010; Ranta, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004). The initial work on the grammatical and lexical forms of ELF was done by Seidlhofer (2004) who examined the language features in the VOICE data and identified the forms that are considered as 'errors' by EFL teachers but are typically unproblematic and not an obstacle to the success of communication. The grammatical features of ELF proposed by Seidlhofer (2004) include the dropping of the third person present tense "–s", confusing the relative pronouns *"who"* and *"which"*, non-standard use of articles, non-standard tag questions, inserting redundant prepositions, overusing certain verbs of high semantic generality, replacing infinitive constructions with *"that"* clauses, and overdoing explicitness. Apart from that, many other fluid features as well as variation of forms and functions in ELF

have been identified, including the overuse of *"-ing"* (Ranta, 2006), differences in word order, usage of non-standard questions and negative sentences (Kirkpatrick, 2010), reduced marking of plurality for nouns, usage of double comparatives and superlatives (Bjorkman, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010), and non-standard countable and uncountable nouns (Jenkins, 2012).

In terms of lexis and morphemes, it is apparent that some ELF speakers use words or phrases that do not exist in standard English or even create words to convey meaning in conversation. Moreover, they tend to use approximation when the exact words are unknown. In fact, Kirkpatrick (2010) and Seidlhofer (2011) discovered that the forms of English words that are regularised by ELF users are mostly created by adding some form of suffix, such as *"boringdom"*, *"discriminization"*, *"forsify"*, *"levelize"* (Kirkpatrick, 2010), *"examinate"*, *"increasement"*, *"increasive"*, and *"mutualness"* (Seidlhofer, 2011). Furthermore, Hülmbauer (2009) found that when ELF speakers lack a particular word, they strive to use an approximate word or expression to negotiate meaning, such as the use of *"far away uncle"* in place of *"great uncle"*.

Lastly, the creativity of idiom in the ELF context was identified. According to Seidlhofer (2009), when conversing, speakers create their own idioms which are not used in standard native English, but are still intelligible in conversation. She also found that for English non-native speakers, it is difficult to convey the meaning of some native English idioms since they are driven by pragmatic knowledge. ELF users may understand some simple phrases or idioms, such as *"on time"* and *"by the way"*. However, when it comes to other native idioms, they may lack the experience or semantic knowledge required for comprehension (such as the use of *"in my book"* by native speakers of English to express opinion instead of *"in my opinion"* or *"I think"*) (Seidlhofer, 2009). Likewise, Pitzl (2009) examined the natural occurrence of idioms and metaphors in the

VOICE data. She claimed that idioms employed in the ELF context might be different from idioms used by native speakers of English (e.g., the use of *'we should not wake up any dog'* for *'let sleeping dogs lie'*, *'head and tail'* for *'head to tail'*, or other idioms influenced by their first language such as the use of *'put my hands into the fire for it'* by Dutch speakers when guaranteeing or vouching something), but they appeared to be employed successfully and did not lead to confusion or any sign of non-understanding. Although some idioms used by ELF speakers did not exist amongst native speakers of the English community, they served their purpose and could contribute to effective ELF communication (Pitzl, 2009).

These linguistic features of ELF occur naturally in real ELF conversations. From the ELF perspective, it is strongly believed that grammatical structure and language function can be flexible. Although EFL and ESL prefer to maintain native speakers' standard forms, for ELF, adhering to standard forms is not as important as intelligibility and the success of communication. In this view, variations of the English language in terms of pronunciation, form, lexis, idiom, or other elements are not perceived as 'errors', but as evidence of the 'hybridity' and 'fluidity' of the language due to the influence of its multicultural speakers (Firth, 2009; Jenkins, 2007). Most ELF researchers de-emphasize the focus on grammatical structure or phonological correctness and place more emphasis on intelligibility instead (Jenkins, 2007). ELF speakers who produce understandable utterances albeit ones which are differently constructed compared to NSs' standard norms are not perceived as 'failed English users' as it is argued that there is a link between language users and their identities (Baker, 2009, 2015; Jenkins, 2006). Subsequently, many scholars in the ELF field argue that ELF speakers have the right to produce English in their own ways (Firth, 1990; Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2000, 2004, 2011; Yano, 2009) and advocate that more flexible criteria be applied in their language ability assessment than is the case traditionally in ELT.

Since English is now used worldwide and ELF speakers make up the largest group, it is erroneous for native English speakers to claim 'sole ownership' of English and to judge English usage around the world (Jenkins, 2007; Kankaanranta and Lu, 2013). Traditional English language has played the role of the source of a world language, but not the world language itself (Jenkins, 2007) while English used in ELF interactions is an 'adaption' of standard English (Dewey, 2013), not the duplication of it. Seidlhofer (2000) stated that Englishes around the world grow independently and are not the distribution of the language from English native speakers or a franchised copy of English as a mother tongue. The number of native speakers of English makes up the minority compared to the group of people who are non-native speakers of English globally. Therefore, it is unjust that global Englishes are still based on native speakers' dictionaries or grammatical rules. Likewise, Yano (2009) asserted that English no longer belongs to native English speakers, but to the ones who learn and use it around the world. Thus, it can be concluded that "English is nowadays a truly international language" (Cogo, 2012, p. 97), and is not only limited to a small group of native English speakers in Britain, North America, or Australia. Therefore, the norm of marking language as inaccurate by that standard is questioned in the ELF field. Rather, it is deemed acceptable for ELF speakers to produce a different English or reflect their own identities in ELF conversations.

2.5   The Use of English as a Lingua Franca

The interest to identify specific language characteristics of ELF among ELF scholars has diminished. Recent research in ELF emphasises 'the use of English language' in interaction, as clarified by Jenkins (2015):

> "The original orientation to ELF communication focused heavily, if not exclusively, on form. In light of increasing empirical evidence, this gave way some years later to an understanding that it is the processes underlying these forms that are paramount, and hence to a focus on ELF users and ELF as social practice." (p. 49)

The shift in research interest in the ELF paradigm has been from the identification of specific grammatical or lexical features to the use of English in particular situations, such as language use to enhance intelligibility in conversation (e.g., Becker and Kluge, 2014; Hülmbauer, 2009), improve conversation fluency (e.g., Hüttner, 2009), make jokes or create humour (e.g., Kappa, 2016; Stark, 2009), and signal the speakers' culture and identity (e.g., Baker, 2015). Besides, the study of language use related to CSs in negotiating meaning and ensuring effective communication has recently garnered much interest from ELF scholars. Cogo (2012) asserted the following:

> "The main purpose of ELF research today is, of course, to reveal some of the forms that emerge in ELF interaction in specific communities, but more importantly to highlight the pragmatic strategies speakers draw on as they collaboratively engage in communication. Therefore, the aim of research in this field is to describe and make sense of the processes in operation in lingua franca talk and the strategies used by its speakers, not to uncover 'core' features." (p. 99)

Recently, a number of studies on how ELF speakers use language to ensure understanding in conversation have been carried out. For example, Kaur (2009, 2011b, 2012) posited that ELF speakers use interactional strategies such as paraphrasing, repair, clarification requests, confirmation checks, and repetition to preempt misunderstandings and avoid conversation breakdowns. Björkman (2010) examined interactions in the ELF academic context and concluded that ELF speakers use repetition to emphasise the importance of a particular item in the conversation. Also, Björkman (2014) claimed that to ensure effective communication, CSs such as comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and clarification requests are frequently used in ELF academic settings. Meanwhile, Kwan and Dunworth (2016) examined ELF conversations between airport staff and their employers in Hong Kong and discovered that ELF speakers in this context mostly use simple language and utterances to facilitate understanding. Apart from that, to ensure understanding in conversation, CSs such as clarification requests, repetition, and

direct questioning (appeals for help) are also utilised.

2.6   Intelligibility in English as a Lingua Franca

From the above discussion of the concept and features of ELF, it can be surmised that the core principle of ELF is not the correctness of language. Instead, the focus is on 'intelligibility' (Becker and Kluge, 2014; Hülmbauer, 2009; Jenkins, 2007). Intelligibility in ELF conversations needs to be co-constructed between speaker and listener (Pickering, 2006) and relates to mutual understanding between interlocutors, which affects the success of communication. Smith and Nelson (1985), scholars from WE, proposed a tripartite paradigm of understanding – intelligibility (language users' ability to recognise a word or utterance), comprehensibility (language users' ability to understand the meaning of a word or utterance), and interpretability (language users' ability to understand the meaning behind a word or utterance). Meanwhile, Munro and Derwing (1995) defined intelligibility as "the extent to which an utterance is actually understood" (p. 291). For them, intelligibility refers to an understandable message. Hülmbauer (2009) entitled her paper on intelligibility in the ELF context 'We don't take the right way. We just take the way that we think you will understand', where intelligibility means exactly that. For ELF speakers, the ability to create an understandable message takes priority over all else.

Intelligibility is the reason norm flexibility is permissible in lingua franca communication. The ability to enhance intelligibility in conversation in the face of limited language ability is the priority, not the ability to observe grammatical correctness. Hülmbauer (2009) found that some grammatically infelicitous words may be adequate to create an intelligible message. Many scholars have affirmed that the fluidity of the English language among ELF speakers brought about by multilingualism and multiculturalism does not induce misunderstandings or communication breakdowns

(Firth, 1996, 2009; House, 2003; Kaur, 2011a; Mauranen, 2006). While the diversity of linguacultural backgrounds amongst ELF speakers may bring about variability in the English language, it is not always an obstacle that leads to unsuccessful communication. In ELF, the variation in the language used by ELF speakers in conversation is acceptable if it is comprehensible.

Scholars in ELF have identified barriers to intelligibility in ELF conversations; these are the variables that cause misunderstanding in conversation (Firth, 1996; Kaur, 2011a; Mauranen, 2006). The dominant work on the source and nature of misunderstandings in ELF conversations has been carried out by Kaur (2011a). She identified the different sources of misunderstanding in the ELF academic context as "performance-related misunderstanding" (misunderstanding caused by the speakers' performance problems such as mishearing or inability to identify the phonological sequence of a word or utterance), "language-related misunderstanding" (misunderstanding caused by the speakers' language competence), and "ambiguity". She stated that most misunderstandings were caused by ambiguity (which possibly occurred when speakers produced problematic reference, ambiguous semantics, and underspecified utterances) in conversations (Kaur, 2011a). However, when the message is unrecognisable or unable to be precisely interpreted, speakers always use CSs such as repetition, paraphrasing, or clarification requests to increase intelligibility and maintain the conversation (Firth, 1996; Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2006). Furthermore, Deterding (2013) studied misunderstandings in ELF conversations in Southeast Asia and found that most misunderstandings in this context were caused by the unfamiliar accents of the foreign interlocutors. This relates to the study by Leyland (2011) who asked Japanese students to listen to the unfamiliar accent of Indian speakers. The results indicated that the unfamiliar English accent reduced their understanding, although intelligibility increased when the Indian speakers reduced their speech rate and spoke slowly. Likewise, Pickering (2006) also claimed that

unfamiliar accents contribute to unintelligibility in ELF conversations. She concluded that the major problem in this situation is that ELF listeners may have experience with only certain phonological representations of the language and are unable to deal with any unacquainted accents. Therefore, as language users' participation in multicultural conversations increases, they then store multiple representations of the phonemes which may lead to better intelligibility. Leyland (2011) and Pickering (2006) suggested that ELF speakers achieve greater intelligibility in conversation by using CSs. This study therefore also focused a great deal on the strategic moves of ELF speakers in negotiating and managing intelligibility in conversation.

2.7   English as a Lingua Franca and Pedagogy

Due to the spread of the English language and its important role as an international language, most countries around the world have enacted policies mandating English courses in schools (Kachru, 1985; Kirkpatrick, 2010). Despite the fact that non-native speakers of English are the largest group of people who use English and whose numbers seem to be increasing, it is startling that ELF has been overlooked by ELT professionals as English language instruction, teaching materials, and language assessment worldwide, even in outer and expanding countries (Kachru, 1985), still rely on the English standard of inner circle countries (Deniz et al., 2016; Dewey, 2014; İnceçay, 2014; Jenkins et al., 2011; Llurda, 2007; Mauranen, 2018; Tosuncuoğlu and Kırmızı, 2019). This outdated approach to ELT solely emphasises English native speaker norms (Jenkins, 2007; Kachru, 1991) instead of preparing learners to communicate among themselves, i.e., with other non-native English speakers. For example, Karakaş (2017) investigated a corpus of online Text-to-Speech (TTS) tools and software and found that American English (AmE) and British English (BrE) are the most widely represented varieties across 50 TTS tools and software. Thus, he concluded that these teaching tools cannot be used effectively to expose students to the global use of English.

Consequently, scholars such as Crawford (2005), Ur (2010), and Dewey (2014) recommended that pedagogy should shift its focus from the native English model to the broader, international context. With English as a lingua franca, its diversity, fluidity, and variability, together with the notions of multilingualism and multiculturalism, and the ways to enhance intelligibility should be promoted in pedagogy (Baker, 2015; Briggs and Smith, 2017; Cogo, 2010; Deterding, 2011; Dewey, 2013, 2014; Du-Babcock, 2013; Jenkins, 2012; Modiano, 2009; Sakhiyya, 2018; Sharma, 2008). Hence, the art of interaction or negotiation of meaning with both native and non-native communicators of English worldwide should be taught in class. House (2012) stressed that it is important to engage language learners in interactional phenomena, such as role-play scenarios, to enhance their communicative skills, develop their turn-taking competence, and provide them with an avenue to practise conducting smooth conversations while maintaining politeness, and ultimately, to achieve communicative goals. She asserted that conducting such activities in language classrooms helps in preparing learners to deal with ELF encounters and increases their confidence in handling real-world conversations. Likewise, Baker (2015) advocated instructing learners in multilingual cultures explicitly during the teaching process or indirectly by engaging learners in intercultural communication in both face-to-face and electronic settings. In conclusion, language teachers should be trained and made aware of the plurality of Englishes, cultural identities, and the value of multilingualism (Sifakis and Bayyurt, 2015). They should advocate language norm flexibility and place emphasis on language learners' communicative ability and communication strategies (Grazzi, 2017). Finally, it is suggested that they formulate activities or choose teaching materials, tools, books, or modern technologies that can develop learners' communication effectiveness in multicultural communication (Grazzi, 2017; Vettorel and Lopriore, 2015; Sifakis, 2009).

Also, ELF scholars argued that language teachers and evaluators should prioritise the success of communication and reduce the emphasis placed on the correctness of language (e.g., Björkman, 2011; Cogo, 2010; Dewey, 2013; Jenkins et al., 2011; Jenkins and Leung, 2017). For example, the criteria to assess language proficiency should be based on the ability to convey a message, attain mutual understanding, negotiate meaning, and achieve communicative goals, rather than the duplication of English native speakers' norms (Cogo, 2010). In preparing learners to be successful language users, it is vital for English teachers to provide them with guidelines or the means to cope with difficulties in conversation (Crowther and Costa, 2017; Kaur, 2019). When engaged in ELF conversations, English learners should have an awareness of strategies that can be employed to prevent misunderstandings and ambiguity, to deal with and overcome communicative problems, and to ultimately realise successful communication.

Incorporating ELF perspectives in ELT has been proposed, especially in settings where there is a high possibility that learners will be involved in ELF encounters. Since careers in the tourism industry in Thailand are attractive to Thai graduates due to the higher remuneration, exploring communication in this ELF context is essential to formulate suggestions and recommendations for English language instruction in Thailand.

2.8   ELF Interactions in Hospitality and Tourism in Thailand

Within the HT setting, English plays a crucial role (Charunsri, 2011; Kuosuwan, 2016; Nomnian, 2014; Prachanant, 2012; Sirikhan and Prapphal, 2011). International tourists of various backgrounds and different first languages interact with local tourism employees using English as the medium of communication. The English language, in the Thai HT context, is used to exchange or share messages with others who do not share the same mother tongue. By applying Conversation Analysis or CA (Hynninen, 2011; Sack

et al., 1974), ELF conversations in this HT context can be described as, first, conversations as social interactions which are motivated and driven by the tourism or service purposes of the communicators. The turns in the conversation are negotiated by the international tourists who come to the counters for HT purposes and the Thai staff who sit at the counter to fulfil the tourists' HT goals. Most of the tourists' turns are designed to request HT information or services. On the other hand, most of the Thai staff's turns are designed to provide such HT information or services. The distribution of talk or the turn size of each speaker seems to be equal because most of the conversations are interactions between two people (mostly question-and-answer interactions, i.e., interactions to ask for and provide HT information or services). The turns-construction unit in the conversation are varied. For example, a tourist might produce a sequence explaining his HT goal using only a few words, and the staff might provide the HT information in just thirty seconds of talk. Finally, mutual understanding between the ELF interlocutors in this context is important and they might use strategies to repair the conversation if they face communicative troubles (Schegloff, 1991).

2.9   ELF Speakers in Hospitality and Tourism Context in Thailand

Thai tourism-industry employees are expected to communicate with tourists who are of various nationalities and have different first languages. Therefore, they have to deal with various accents and users of the English language. The diversity of ethnic groups and the number of foreign tourists who travel to Thailand have been recorded by TAT by month and year. For example, in December 2019, the statistics recorded by TAT (2021) of the top five countries whose citizens visited Thailand in that particular month revealed that most foreign tourists were from China (851,385), followed by Malaysia (518,567), Russia (222,564), India (189,000), and South Korea (181,683). The bar chart below shows the number of international tourists who visited Thailand in the whole of 2019 by region of origin (TAT, 2020).
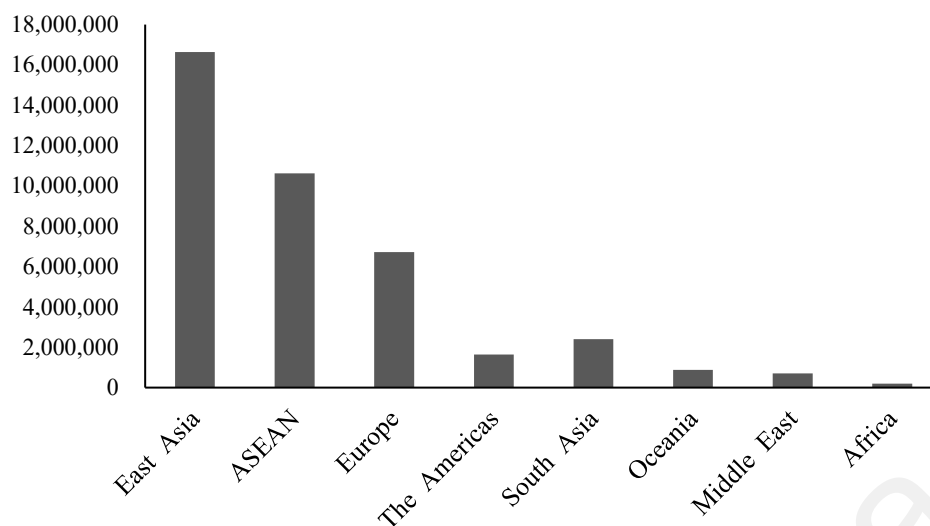
Figure 2.2: The Number of International Tourists From Different Regions Who Visited Thailand in 2019 (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2020, https://www.mots.go.th/)

The above bar chart and other TAT statistics confirm that foreign tourists to Thailand are diverse and are mostly non-native English speakers who come from Kachru's 'outer' and 'expanding' circle of countries (based on Kachru's Three-circle Model of World Englishes, 1985). Therefore, it can be surmised that most of the foreign tourists in the hospitality and tourism context in Thailand are 'ELF speakers' for the aforementioned reasons. These diverse foreign guests use English, which is their second or third language, as a 'common language' to communicate with Thai tourism employees, who typically use English as a foreign language. Also, it is noteworthy that English native speakers are fewer in number compared to non-natives (Jenkins, 2007). Looking at the number of English speakers in this setting, based on the regions they come from, supports Baker's claim (2012) that in the HT context in Thailand, English plays the role of a 'lingua franca'.

2.10   The Use of English in the ELF Hospitality and Tourism Setting in Thailand

Despite the fact that ELF hospitality and tourism interactions are one of the most valuable sources to look into the use of ELF in the real world, few studies have focused on ELF use from this perspective, even in Thailand. Most language-oriented studies only investigated language needs and problems (Charunsri, 2011; Inkaew, 2016; Kuosuwan, 2016; Nomnian, 2014; Pachanant, 2012), not the dimensions of international use or how successful communication is achieved. However, English language related to HT communications is briefly described here to highlight the types of English that are used. Most vocabulary and language functions in this setting are categorised under 'English for hospitality and tourism' which is a subset of 'English for specific purposes' (ESP). However, ESP itself tends to focus solely on the objectives of formulating valuable suggestions and recommendations for occupation training programs (e.g., 'English for hotel services' or 'English for tour guides'). Accordingly, research approaches in ESP are designed to investigate specific needs in this context, such as identifying discrete language functions, required language skills, language problems, and errors, or conducting needs analysis (Charunsri, 2011; Nomnian, 2014; Prachanant, 2012), rather than exploring the diversity of the language or its international use.

ESP researchers have noted that the most frequently-used skills in Thailand's hospitality and tourism industry are speaking and listening (e.g., Charunsri, 2011; Kuosuwan, 2016; Prachanant, 2012). Most of the time, international guests and Thai tourism employees exchange and share messages orally. Prachanant (2012) observed that the most relevant language functions in HT conversations in Thailand are the language functions of giving information, providing service, and offering help. Meanwhile, Sirikhan and Prapphal (2011) recommended that the English language functions foregrounded in Thai HT language training include English for apologizing, handling complaints, requesting, informing, and promising. Nevertheless, it is noticeable that the

HT English language functions suggested by both Prachanant (2012) and Sirikhan and Prapphal (2011) were only applicable to Thai employees. It seems that the investigation of language functions for international guests in this context has been neglected.

However, due to its broad context, there is little literature on the English language used in all HT services. Conversations in HT vary depending on the speakers' purpose in particular settings or services, as evidenced in the statement by House (2010) that "when English language as a 'virtual language' is employed in different contexts of use, for different purposes, by different people, it comes to fulfil very different functions and is changed (formally and functionally) accordingly" (p. 365). Huang (2008) designed a hospitality and tourism curriculum with a focus on English for food and beverage services, air flight services, hotel services, and tour management. Adapted from Huang's (2008) study, this research has listed the possible English language functions and situations in which ELF speakers may be involved:

1) *Hotel setting:* e.g., greeting and welcoming, hotel check-in and check-out, room reservation, requesting items, lodging and dealing with complaints, inquiring about and booking airport transfer services, inquiring about and explaining hotel facilities.

2) *Tour management setting:* e.g., advertising and selling tour programs, inquiring about and explaining tour details and price, negotiating the price or time, sightseeing explanation.

3) *Airport setting:* e.g., inquiring about and explaining flight details, flight check-in and check-out, inquiring about and explaining airport facilities (e.g., lost and found, wheelchair access, Wi-Fi, restaurants, restrooms, smoking area, VAT refund, airport transfer services, duty-free zone).

4) *Restaurant setting:* e.g., greeting and welcoming, asking for the menu, ordering and recommending food, informing of allergies, inquiring about and explaining the taste/ingredients/texture of the food, paying the bill.

5) *Others:* e.g., selling and buying products, renting vehicles, asking for and giving directions, selling/informing/inquiring about other tourism activities (e.g., rafting, rock climbing, kayaking, AGV racing, Thai boxing).

Unlike casual conversations in which speakers may let non-understandings pass and change or abandon topics more frequently as the conversations have little consequence, workplace conversations in this ELF setting are different. Meaning has to be conveyed, and strategies play an even greater role. Enhancing intelligibility and achieving communicative goals are the most important objectives of these conversations. To ensure the success of ELF communication in all the situations above, pragmatic competence is prioritised over linguistic competence (Nomnian, 2014; Sirikhan and Prapphal, 2011). The ability to convey intelligible messages and maintain smooth conversations is vital in this context. In fact, Nomnian (2014) suggested developing Thai tourism employees' communicative ability, stating that "They aimed to gain better fluency rather than accuracy because their customers were mostly from 'non-native' English speaking countries such as China and Myanmar" (p. 101).

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

This chapter provides an overview of communication strategies (CSs), their definitions, and the approaches to their study. CSs used in ELF contexts, their relation with the success of communication, their correlation with the speakers' language proficiency, their taxonomies, and the speakers' awareness of CSs are also discussed here.

3.1 Introduction

The term 'communication strategies' or CSs was introduced by Selinker (1972), a scholar in SLA. He proposed CSs as one of the 'five central processes' in second language learning. In early times, CSs were seen as behaviours related to language learners' interlanguage system (Selinker, 1972; Tarone et al., 1976). Although Selinker himself did not give an in-depth explanation as to the nature of CSs, it piqued the interest of several scholars during that period (e.g., Savignon, 1972; Váradi, 1973). Tarone et al. (1976) provided the first definition and taxonomy of CSs. In their paper, they described CSs as the systematic attempt of speakers to share meaning when the appropriate target language has not been developed. Their work subsequently became a prominent early work on CSs. Also, CSs gained more interest when they were perceived as an element that complements the language learners' strategic competence, one of the components of the 'communicative competence' model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980). Later on, Tarone (1981) proposed applying an 'interactional approach' to the study of CSs. She maintained that CSs have an interactional function, and held that the use of CSs is to negotiate meaning between speaker and interlocutor. In this approach, CSs are tools to bridge the gap between the speaker's language ability and his or her communicative needs in conversations. Shortly after, Færch and Kasper (1983) published the first book on CSs, 'Strategies in Interlanguage Communication', which is a compilation of significant

papers on CSs (e.g., Bialystok, 1983; Corder, 1978; Færch and Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1981; Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas, 1976; Wagner, 1979). In this volume, Færch and Kasper (1983) also presented a new approach to CSs, the psycholinguistic approach. They emphasised the speakers' consciousness and plan to use language and CSs. To them, CSs are viewed as the speakers' attempts to overcome language problems to achieve their communicative goals.

From the early 1970s until the present day, the interest in 'communication strategies' has gradually spread and increased, not only in SLA but also in applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, and the field of English as a lingua franca itself. Unlike in the early research, however, interest in the link between CSs and the speakers' interlanguage system has diminished. Today, scholars view CSs as tools to negotiate meaning, overcome communicative difficulties in conversation, and enhance the quality of conversation.

Nonetheless, CSs occur in oral communication. From the SLA perspective, CSs are problem-oriented (Færch and Kasper, 1983). They are communicative behaviours that speakers use to deal with their communicative problems in conversation (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). When difficulties, ambiguities, non-understandings, or misunderstandings occur in conversation, speakers apply selected CSs to deal with these obstacles. These behaviours are tools to bridge the mismatches between speakers' language knowledge and the target language (Tarone, 1981). For example, they use an approximate word when the target word is unknown, create a new word that does not exist in the target language to convey the intended meaning, mix words from their first language with the target language, ask interlocutors to repeat when they find the message unclear, or ask interlocutors for language assistance. They use CSs to negotiate meaning, resolve communicative problem, keep the conversation flowing, and achieve the conversation

goals.

Focusing on multilingual contexts, scholars in ELF view CSs in a broader way than those in SLA. In addition to studying CSs applications in language classes or in enhancing speakers' communicative ability, ELF scholars are also interested in how CSs are used to promote communication despite variability (e.g., in the context of the different accents or the different forms of English). Therefore, apart from the dimension of CSs for resolving communicative problems, ELF scholars also explore CSs as communicative behaviors that ensure intelligibility (Mauranen, 2006), preempt misunderstanding (Kaur, 2009), and enhance charity and explicitness of the message (Kaur, 2011b and 2012).

3.2   Definitions of Communication Strategies

There have been various definitions of CSs since the term was coined. The following are some noteworthy ones proposed by SLA scholars. Tarone et al. (1976) gave the earliest definition of CSs as "a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed" (p. 5). Corder (1978) described CSs as "a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty" (p. 16). He clarified that "difficulty in this definition is taken to refer uniquely to the speaker's inadequate command of the language used in the interaction" (p. 16). It is apparent that the definitions by Tarone et al. (1976) and Corder (1978) differ in terms of the speaker's language problems. While Tarone et al. (1976) attributed the speaker's communicative problem to his or her inability to form appropriate language rules, Corder (1978) provided a broader dimension of language problems in conversation. From Corder's definition, not only can CSs be used to deal with the inability to apply appropriate language rules, but also any conversational problems (e.g., lack of vocabulary or inability to understand the interlocutor's message). However, Tarone (1981) later came

to view her use of the word 'systematic' in her initial definition of CSs as vague and proposed that the use of CSs should be geared towards 'agreement on meaning' between speaker and interlocutor. Therefore, she proposed a new definition of CSs with a focus on the interactional process between speaker and listener when having a conversation as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared" (Tarone, 1981, p. 288). This definition of CSs subsequently became widely accepted. Shortly afterwards, Færch and Kasper (1983) explained CSs from the psycholinguistic perspective as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (p. 36). This interpretation by Færch and Kasper (1983) focused on the speakers' conscious use of strategies and their objectives for doing so. Another noteworthy definition of CSs is the one by Bialystok (1983), who put it simply as "all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication" (p. 102).

Definitions of CSs in recent times are not much different from the earlier ones. The term is still broadly defined as speakers' communicative behaviours in dealing with communicative problems resulting from limited language proficiency. Take for example Littlemore (2003), who defined CSs as "the attempts that language learners make to compensate for gaps in their knowledge of the target language" (p. 331), or Maleki (2010), who elucidated CS as "an individual attempt to find a way to fill the gap between their communication effort and immediate available linguistic resource" (p. 640).

SLA scholars generally defined CSs as tools to resolve speakers' lack of language ability. This is understandable as, from the SLA perspective, CSs are studied to enhance language pedagogy and learners' communicative ability. The interest in CSs among SLA scholars is caused by the role of CSs in helping learners bridge the gap between their

language deficiencies and their language needs in conversation. This is the reason most SLA scholars define this term in relation to the occurrence of learners' language problems in conversation.

While SLA emphasized the speakers' language problems when defining the term CSs, ELF takes a broader view. Although there is no apparent evidence of an ELF-oriented CSs definition, the examination of CSs in ELF research is noticeably geared towards a broader dimension of CSs. Focusing on multiculturalism and the varied uses of language, from the ELF point of view, CSs can be used to promote communication both in situations when the speakers confront language difficulties and when language is not the issue. It can be said that, for ELF, CSs are not always problem-oriented because they are not just employed for communicative problem-resolving; they are also used to support and enhance the quality of utterances in ELF conversations, such as the use of CSs to enhance understanding (even in the situation where there is no sign of communicative problems from interlocutors), to preempt misunderstanding and non-understanding (Jaroensak, 2018; Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2006; Pietikäinen, 2018), as well as to negotiate meaning which is influenced by the speakers' identity (the use of CSs which is due to the speakers' diverse linguacultural backgrounds and involves the use of code-switching (Wagner and Firth, 1997) or literal translation).

This research is interested in the use of CSs in an ELF context, which is broader than the language used in a classroom or in ESP training. This is motivated not only by an interest in the speakers' communicative ability development, but also to emphasize the enhancement of intelligibility in the international context. CSs which promote the meaning of the message and avoid possible communicative problems in conversations are also included in this study. Therefore, this study defines the term CSs as 'communicative means which the speaker employs to resolve or to prevent

communicative problems in conversation'. 'CSs to resolve communicative problems' refer to the strategic moves that the speakers make to address communicative problems which have occurred in conversation caused by, for example, the speakers' low language competency, message ambiguity, misunderstanding, or non-understanding. 'CSs to prevent communicative problems' refer to the communicative moves that the speakers make to enhance the meaning of the message and as a safeguard against possible communicative problems when communicative problems are not evident.

3.3   Approaches to the Study of Communication Strategies

Scholars regard CSs from different points of view, and this has led to the emergence of two approaches to CSs, the 'interactional approach' of Tarone (1981) and the 'psycholinguistic approach' of Færch and Kasper (1983). Wagner and Firth (1997) described the differences between these two approaches by stating that "an interactional approach defines CS as elements of the interaction, while psycholinguistic approaches defines CS as elements of the speaker's cognitive processes" (p. 325). These two approaches are further detailed below.

In the interactional approach, Tarone (1981) viewed CSs as tools to negotiate or co-construct meaning between speaker and listener. She asserted that CSs are not a part of the speaker's linguistic knowledge and that "…the communication strategies have an interactional function, as they are used for a joint negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer" (Tarone, 1981, p. 285). Thus, the interactional approach perceives CSs as tools to bridge the gap between the speakers' language repertoire and the target language. This approach also focuses on how speakers use their limited language knowledge to generate understanding in conversation. Therefore, from the interactional point of view, CSs are for negotiating meaning, enhancing understanding, and utilising limited language abilities to cope with various communication demands.

In the psycholinguistic approach, on the other hand, CSs are not viewed as behaviours to negotiate mutual understanding. Rather, they are regarded as individual plans of speakers to resolve difficulties in conversation. Færch and Kasper (1983) suggested that intellectual behaviours and mental procedures of language users are used to resolve communication problems and achieve communicative goals. They believed that CSs "are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching particular communicative goals" (p. 36). They explained that after communicative goals are formulated, speakers will retrieve the necessary structures from their interlanguage system to form the relevant utterances to convey the message. However, if they are confronted with unexpected language difficulties in the conversation and believe that their limited language knowledge does not allow them to produce the utterances, there are two choices available. The first option is to expand the resources or adjust the message until the communicative goals are achieved, while the second option is to avoid the topic or abandon the message. In this approach, CSs are said to be problem oriented. The consciousness of language problems and the awareness of adopting CSs are emphasised here.

ELF scholars have mainly aligned with the interactional approach (e.g., Firth, 1990; Wagner and Firth, 1997). Most researchers from the ELF field regarded CSs as the speakers' attempts to overcome or prevent communication problems and negotiate meaning rather than as a reflection of the speakers' cognitive processes. In line with this, the present research is based on the interactional approach as the research focused on the use of language to negotiate meaning in conversation and to achieve communicative goals. Furthermore, this study chose to look at how ELF speakers use their limited language repertoire to negotiate meaning, how CSs can bridge the gap between the speakers' language knowledge and their language needs in conversation, and how CSs enhance the effectiveness of communication and help speakers to achieve their

communicative goals when they have to interact with interlocutors who speak a different

first language.

3.4   Communication Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Context

CSs are commonly used in the ELF context (Björkman, 2014; Firth, 1996; Kaur, 2009,

2011a, 2012; Mauranen, 2006) to improve understanding in conversation. Cogo (2010)

explained the use of CSs by ELF speakers as follows:

> "As to the strategic use, speakers show that they can use ELF in their own ways
> by also drawing on their shared multilingual repertoires. They perform
> sophisticated strategic behaviour to enhance understanding, create supportive and
> cooperative communication and display community membership in discourse.
> Effective interactional work is carried out through various strategies in a supportive
> manner, so that meaning is explored, clarified and eventually understanding is
> promoted". (p. 309)

The interest in CSs in the ELF field was sparked by investigations of language use in

the ELF context when Firth (1996) studied the nature of telephone conversations in an

ELF business conversation. He initially looked at ELF speakers' behaviours in dealing

with misunderstandings and abnormalities in business conversations, and he also

identified the CSs used. In the study, he proposed the 'let it pass' and 'make it normal'

strategies. The 'let it pass' strategy is a strategy whereby the speaker allows the unknown

or unclear utterance of the interlocutor to pass on the assumption that it will be made clear

or become understandable as the talk progresses. The 'make it normal' strategy is a CS

whereby the interlocutor makes abnormality (in terms of language) in the conversation

acceptable usage to promote a more meaningful message (such as the use of the 'other's

repair'). It is apparent that the early CSs proposed by Firth (1996) were not adopted from

SLA, the area where CSs were coined. Later, Wagner and Firth (1997) examined CSs

from SLA in the ELF context. They both agreed with the interactional approach to CSs

(Tarone, 1981) and initially referred to the CSs from Tarone's CS taxonomy (1981) when

identifying CS use in ELF business conversations. CSs then gained prominence among

ELF scholars, although the amount of interest was not equal for every type of CS. Kirkpatrick (2010) argued that CSs in ELF conversations contributed to more effective communication. From ELF scholars' point of view, CSs were used to enhance the quality of the message, augment understanding, prevent misunderstandings, and maintain the flow of conversation. Therefore, CSs that ELF speakers use to clarify their message and preempt misunderstanding in conversation, such as repair, repetition, and paraphrasing, have received much attention (e.g., Cogo, 2009; Kaur, 2009, 2011b, 2012; Mauranen, 2006). In addition, CSs that are linked to the speakers' identity, such as code-switching, have also been investigated in the ELF field (e.g., Cogo, 2009; Deterding, 2013; Jenkins, 2012; Klimpfinger, 2009). Other helpful CSs to ensure the effectiveness of communication which have been examined by ELF scholars include 'appeal for help', 'repetition', and 'confirmation check' by Mauranen (2006), 'paraphrasing' and 'clarification requests' by Pitzl (2005), 'explication' by Konakahara (2012), and 'comprehension check' by Björkman (2014). The table below shows the investigation of CSs in the ELF context from early times to the present day.

Table 3.1: Studies of CSs in the ELF Context

Year	Scholar(s)	Context	Participants	Communication Strategies
1996	Firth	Telephone conversations in an international company in Europe	International company employees	- Let it pass - Make it normal
1997	Wagner and Firth	Telephone conversations in an international company in Europe	International company employees	- Code-switching - Repair - Formulation
2005	Pitzl	Conversations in international business meetings	International company employees	- Confirmation check - Asking for repetition - Reformulation
2006	Mauranen	ELFA corpus (academic context in Europe)	Academic personnel in Europe	- Appeal for help - Repetition - Confirmation check

Year	Scholar(s)	Context	Participants	Communication Strategies
				- Repair
2008	Watterson	A university in Seoul, South Korea	ELF university students	Repair
2009	Cogo	Academic setting in Europe	Teachers of foreign language at an institution of higher education	- Repetition - Code-switching
2009	Klimpfinger	Academic conference in Vienna	Academic personnel in Europe	- Code switching
2009 2011a 2011b 2012	Kaur	Graduate school in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia	International graduate students	- Repair - Repetition - Paraphrase - Confirmation check - Clarification request
2010	Kirkpatrick	Semi-formal conversations in a personal development course in Singapore	Teachers from ASEAN countries	CSs for listener - Lexical anticipation - Lexical suggestion - Lexical correction - Don't give up - Request repetition - Request clarification - Let it pass - Listen to the message - Participant paraphrase - Participant prompt CSs for speaker - Spell out the word - Repeat the phrase - Be explicit - Paraphrase - Avoid local/ idiomatic referents
2012	Konakahara	International university in Britain	International graduate students	- Restructuring - Appeal for help - Explication - Reformulation
2014	Björkman	Higher education setting in Sweden	University students	Self-initiated CSs - Repetition - Simplification -Signalling importance - Paraphrasing - Comprehension check - Word replacement

Year	Scholar(s)	Context	Participants	Communication Strategies
				Other-initiated CSs - Paraphrasing - Repetition - Overt question - Clarification request - Question or question repeat - Co-creation of the message - Word replacement
2015	Van	A hotel in Vietnam	Front office staff and international tourists	- Repetition - Reformulation - Requests for confirmation - Requests for clarification - Minimal queries - Backchannels - Lexical suggestion - Signalling importance
2016	Kwan and Dunworth	A domestic airport in Hong Kong	Hong Kong employees and Filipino workers	- Repetition - Clarification - Self-correction - Direct questions - Make it normal - Let it pass - Error repair
2018	Pietikäinen	Europe	ELF couples in Europe	- Direct clarification questions - Echoing - Paraphrasing - Self-repair - Code-switching - Extralinguistic means.
2018	Jaroensak	A tourism site on an island in Thailand	Thai HT employees and international tourists	Preempting strategies - Repetition - Reformulation - Linguistic repair - Comprehension checks Repairing strategies - Confirmation checks - Clarification requests

Year	Scholar(s)	Context	Participants	Communication Strategies
2018	Wilson	Tourism office in France	Tourism employees and international tourists	- Repetition - Reformulation

It is evident that the most popular setting for ELF data collection is the academic setting, followed by the business setting. The most popular approach for ELF researchers has been investigating ELF use among international and exchange students in situations such as group discussions, classroom debates, or class instruction (e.g., Becker and Kluge, 2014; Björkman, 2008, 2014; Glatz, 2015; Kaur 2011a, 2011b, 2012; Ke and Cahyani, 2014; Maiz-Arévalo, 2014; Schwaner, 2015; Shaw et al., 2009). As for the ELF business setting, most data were collected from interactions in international companies such as telephone conversations (e.g., Ehrenreich, 2009; Firth, 1990 and 1996), meetings (e.g., Du-Babcock, 2013; Stark, 2009; Wolfartsberger, 2009), and emails (e.g., Kankaanranta, 2005, 2006). The findings from both settings have been used to formulate suggestions for language pedagogy.

However, few studies have examined the use of CSs in the ELF hospitality and tourism context. Van (2015) studied the use of CSs in ELF conversations in hotel front offices in Vietnam. He found that CSs "occur throughout an interaction to ensure and facilitate guests' comprehension and to display cooperation to ensure the shared construction of meaning in the interaction" (p. 114). He also gave recommendations for pedagogy in the form of developing coursework for language use in the workplace. He suggested that ELT should enhance language learners' interactional skills rather than focusing on grammatical rules and that audio materials in class should include different varieties of English. Likewise, Wilson (2018) investigated the use of ELF in a tour office in France. He noticed that ELF speakers in this context use CSs, especially repetition and

reformulation, to construct and ensure understanding. Thus, he advocated the instruction of CSs for tourism language training.

The limited study of CSs in the ELF hospitality and tourism context makes it evident that the study of CSs in this domain should be furthered. Looking at the study of CSs by Van (2015) and Wilson (2018), it can be seen that both of them collected their data from just one site of the HT organization, a hospitality site in the case of Van (2015) and a tourism site in the case of Wilson (2018). Considering the nature and overall experience of international travelling, however, it is clear that foreign guests need to seek out more than one service and more than one organization to complete their HT goals (Haung, 2008), and the employment of CSs might occur not only in a limited setting such as at a hotel or tour service counter. Studying the phenomenon of CSs by tracking the various conversation contexts of the international travelers might result in broader and more refined suggestions and recommendations for enhancing effective ELF communications in the HT context. Therefore, the investigation of CSs in the present study at three sites, that is, the information counter at an airport, a hotel front office, and a tour service counter, is warranted.

Although Jaroensak (2018) collected her data from multiple HT sites, namely tour service counters, hostels, and cafes (see Jaroensak, 2018, p.105), some useful CSs that help ELF speakers to negotiate meaning and achieve communicative goals were neglected in her work. Similar omissions are seen in Van's (2015) and Wilson's (2018) publications. These works overlooked strategies such as repair, which helps ELF speakers enhance the quality of their message, circumlocution and explication, which help speakers to negotiate meaning, appeal for help, which aids speakers to signal their communicative difficulties, and code-switching, which is related to language variability and the speakers' linguistic background. In spite of the fact that the aforementioned CSs are also useful and can be

applied to enhance the quality of conversations in ELF hospitality and tourism context, linguists in the field have not explored how they are used in ELF HT conversations, and what their impact is on the interactions.

3.5 Communication Strategies and Language Proficiency

It has been proposed that speakers' language proficiency level and their use of CSs are related (Paribakht, 1984; Putri, 2013; Shahban, 2010; Ting and Phan, 2008). Scholars, mostly from the ELT field, have examined the link between language learners' proficiency and their behaviours in choosing or using CSs (e.g., Cenoz, 1998; Delamere, 1998; Garcés and Olivera, 2014; Sato et al., 2019; Taheri and Davoudi, 2016; Zhao and Intaraprasert, 2013). Moreover, the effects of using CSs on speakers' language proficiency have also been explored.

Scholars have found that speakers who have high English proficiency levels tend to use CSs more frequently compared to speakers who are poor at English (Delamere, 1998; Taheri and Davoudi, 2016; Zhao and Intaraprasert, 2013). When facing communicative problems in conversation, advanced English users are more inclined to resolve the difficulties, bridge the communication gap, and use their language repertoire to convey the intended meaning by adopting CSs. In contrast, English users who have low proficiency levels are less inclined to take the risk of employing CSs, lack self-confidence, have a smaller language repertoire to produce CS functions, and have more fear of making mistakes (Taheri and Davoudi, 2016).

Furthermore, it is claimed that learners' behaviours in employing CSs are linked to their 'strategic competence' (Kongsom, 2016; Lewis, 2011; Rababah, 2002; Tarone, 1983; Willem, 1987; Ya-ni, 2007). Strategic competence is one of the components of communicative competence proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), who defined strategic competence as "verbal and nonverbal strategies that may be called into action to

compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (1980, p. 30). Therefore, in ELT, the ability to use language is not the only skill language learners should possess. Rather, they should also acquire skills to resolve unexpected linguistic problems during communication to prevent conversation breakdowns. For Tarone (1983), communicative competence is "the knowledge of how to use one's language to communicate intended meaning" (p. 120). She stated that there are two factors serving as the criteria to assess learners' communicative competence – the skills to convey the message successfully, and the ability to use CSs. It can be concluded that scholars view CSs as an important component in developing language learners' communicative competence, and that they play a crucial role in enhancing the effectiveness of communication. Dörnyei (1995) noted that

> "Some people can communicate effectively in an L2 (second language) with only 100 words. How do they do it? They use their hands, they imitate the sound or movement of things, they mix languages, they create new words, they describe or circumlocute something they don't know the word for – in short, they use communication strategies. (p. 56)"

There is consensus that speakers who possess low English proficiency should be trained to use CSs in order to enhance their communicative competence (e.g., Lewis, 2011; Natakani, 2005; Rababah, 2002; Tarone, 1983). Although CS training cannot enhance the speakers' language knowledge, it is important to teach speakers who have a limited language repertoire the basics of CSs, as well as training them to take risks and be confident to employ CSs in conversation. In addition, they should be taught to prioritise communicative success rather than accuracy in conversation.

For ELF, the relation between language proficiency and CSs is not about enhancing speakers' English proficiency by increasing the frequency of CS use. Rather, it is about the role of CSs in helping ELF interlocutors (who might have different English proficiency levels) communicate effectively in a multilingual setting by adopting CSs.

Sato et al. (2019) investigated the use of CSs among low proficiency English speakers in Japan. They noted that users with low proficiency employ communication strategies to resolve existing non-understandings and misunderstandings in conversation, overcome the limitations of their linguistic repertoire, clarify messages, and prevent possible future non-understandings in conversation. They also found that, although low English proficiency language users deployed some CSs, other CSs identified by ELF scholars, though effective, were rarely used by the participants. They suggested that to enhance communicative effectiveness, low-proficiency language users should be encouraged to use effective CSs and avoid ineffective CSs which contributed to communication breakdown such as the use of message abandonment, topic avoidance (Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei and Scott, 1997), and the 'let it pass' strategy (Firth, 1996). More importantly, they suggested that low-proficiency English users should learn to employ CSs with which they are unfamiliar but have been found to be useful for resolving communicative problems in ELF contexts. Likewise, Shobeiri (2011), who examined communication difficulties in ELF conversations in the food service context in Malaysia, found that although foreign waiters have very low English proficiency levels, they try to use CSs such as all-purpose words, body language, code-switching, and appealing for help to overcome their language problems and achieve their communicative goals.

As ELF conversations in the HT context are goal-oriented, the English proficiency of speakers in such contexts is secondary. Rather, the ability to attain the goals of communication takes precedence. It is evident that when interacting with native speakers of English (e.g., American or British nationals), having good English makes it easier for NS interlocutors to understand the message. However, it is rather different in the ELF context. Kwan and Dunworth (2016) claimed that to achieve communicative goals in ELF settings, a high level of English proficiency (e.g., language accuracy and fluency) is not as necessary as strategic communicative competence. Likewise, Björkman (2010)

contended that success in communication in the ELF context depends less on the speakers' proficiency level than on the speakers' ability to employ CSs:

> "the speakers make use of a variety of pragmatic strategies which help them compensate for the wide range of levels of proficiency in ELF settings and help them convey the message to their listeners…the effectiveness of a speaker of English in similar ELF settings is determined primarily by the speaker pragmatic ability and less by his/her proficiency" (p.85)

In the ELF context, the speakers' ability in English does not guarantee the success of communication, especially when interlocutors are less proficient, due to the diversity in linguacultural backgrounds. An excellent command of English may not be sufficient since interactions with interlocutors from different linguistic backgrounds who may have different levels of English proficiency may prove to be more challenging than anticipated. For example, if an NNS tourist who has a very low level of English proficiency interacts with a Thai HT employee who has an average or high level of language proficiency using English, it would be very hard for the tourist to understand the staff's good English. In this sense, achieving communicative goals is not dependent on the staff's good English, but on how the tourist uses CSs to ensure that he or she understands the staff's utterance in the face of his or her own limited English skills. It also depends on the staff's strategic manner in conveying the message and ensuring understanding on the part of the international tourist.

3.6   Communication Strategies and the Success of Communication

ELF conversations in business contexts, including HT, need to be goal-oriented (Du-Babcock, 2013; Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen, 2010) to ensure successful outcomes. Before interacting, the communicative goals or objectives of the interaction are set (Færch and Kasper, 1983). Subsequently, the meaning of the message is negotiated and co-constructed until the communicative goal is achieved. The success of

communication in the ELF context refers to when the intended message is shared and responded to appropriately by the interlocutors to reach the goal of the conversation. Hence, the speakers' ability to arrive at shared understanding successfully is important, and CSs play a crucial role to help ELF speakers achieve communicative success in ELF interactions. In the sections below, the role of CSs which relate to intelligibility management and communicative success in ELF conversations is discussed.

3.6.1 Communication Strategies and their Role in Preventing Communicative Problems

The variability in the ELF context and limited language ability of ELF speakers may result in a high probability of communicative problems occurring (e.g., the difficulties caused by different English accents or other variability in language use and the low or different language proficiency levels). Moreover, it is undeniable that such problems might lead to unsuccessful communication. Therefore, it is common for ELF speakers to adopt CSs to prevent or pre-empt (Kaur, 2009) possible communicative troubles ahead to ensure successful outcomes. Although there may not be indications of any communicative problem in a particular conversation, the speakers may employ CSs to prevent the possibility of problems such as misunderstanding, non-understanding, mishearing or ambiguity. The use of CSs for such a purpose is caused by the "speakers' anticipation of difficulty in conversation" (Kaur, 2009, p.120). Mauranen (2006) investigated ELF speakers' communicative behaviours to prevent misunderstanding in an academic context. She described these speakers' communicative behaviours as the "prevention of misunderstanding" or "proactive work in talk" (Mauranen, 2006, p.135). In the study, she found that the participants spontaneously used CSs such as confirmation checks and conversation repair to prevent misunderstanding in conversations. Based on her findings, she drew the following conclusion:

"In all, these conversations manifested a strong orientation toward securing mutual intelligibility: frequent confirmation checks, self-repairs which include grammatical self-correction, and signaling of comprehension are all indications of attempts to ascertain a smooth flow of interaction, which is a prerequisite for a successful management of the discourse goals of the community. Lingua franca speakers thus appear to work hard to achieve mutual understanding, quite possibly on the basis of the natural commonsense assumption that it is not easy to achieve without special effort". (p.147)

Kaur (2009) is another researcher who has investigated how CSs are used to anticipate and ward off communication challenges in ELF environments. She described ELF speakers' communicative attempts to "preempt or avert problems of understanding" (p.108) in an ELF academic context in Malaysia. She observed that the participants used CSs such as repair, repetition, and paraphrase after interlocutor reactions such as prolonged silence, minimal response, and overlapping talk to forestall problems of understanding in conversations. She explained the success of communication in the ELF context with the aid of preemptive strategies as follows:

"Mutual understanding in ELF is therefore not perceived as a given but rather something that has to be jointly worked at and monitored on a turn-by-turn basis. However, the fact that ELF is being used with success by its non-native speakers for a multiplicity of purposes, in myriad situations all over the world bears testimony to their ability and competence in making strategic use of various interactional practices to avert problems of understanding and, in doing so, to arrive at mutual understanding in ELF" (p.120).

In addition to the use of confirmation check, repair, repetition, and paraphrasing (Mauranen, 2006; Kaur, 2009), this research has also considered other CSs which speakers used to prevent possible communicative problems in conversations such as the use of explication (Konakahara, 2012), circumlocution, and comprehension check (Björkman, 2014). Konakahara (2012) noted the use of explication (a communicative behavior in which speakers clarify a word or message by e.g., spelling or giving a definition) among ELF Asian speakers who were studying at a British university. She explained that explication is used to "confirm the meaning of the expression being used,

which gives a recipient(s) another chance to confirm their understanding" (Konakahara, 2012, p.209). Although Konakahara (2012) did not categorize explication as a CS to prevent communicative problems in conversations, her study acknowledged the effectiveness of its role in preventing possible misunderstanding. In this research, ambiguity or non-understanding in ELF conversations can also be prevented by the strategies of spelling and giving definitions or examples. When the speakers anticipate their interlocutors' trouble in comprehension of a particular word, they forestall that problem by giving an example, spelling, or defining the word to ensure understanding on the part of their interlocutors. Likewise, the use of circumlocution by speakers can also prevent non-understanding of a particular word as a result of describing things or actions. Preemptive circumlocution occurs when speakers use a particular word which they think their interlocutor might not comprehend and so actively describe it in order to enhance their interlocutors' understanding and avoid non-understanding of meaning. Finally, although the use of comprehension checks (speakers ask if their interlocutors understand them using clarifying phrases like *"do you understand?"* or *"you know what I mean"*) does not result in meaning clarity or explication, it is used to prevent communicative problems when speakers consider their interlocutors' comprehension. Speakers apply comprehension check to ensure that their interlocutors understand their message as a safeguard against unsuccessful outcomes. Therefore, in this research, comprehension checks are regarded as one CS that speakers might use to prevent communicative problems in conversations.

As discussed above, communicative problems in ELF interactions might be an important factor which leads to unsuccessful conversation. Thus, ELF speakers strive to avoid such problems by employing relevant CSs. Therefore, it can be concluded that CSs that avert communicative problems and the success of communication in ELF interactions are intertwined.

3.6.2 Communicative Strategies and their Role in Resolving Communicative Problems

CSs not only prevent conversation problems but also play an important role to help ELF speakers overcome communicative difficulties in conversations. When problems occur, CSs are used in order to flag the problems and ask for help, request clarification of an ambiguous utterance, convey the meaning of an unknown word, resolve comprehension problems, maintain ongoing conversation, avoid conversation breakdown, and achieve communicative goals. It can be said that when encountering communicative problems in cross-cultural communication, mutual understanding can be achieved by employing CSs. In this research, the focus will not be on the speakers' communicative problems. Rather, it considers the ways that ELF speakers enhance intelligibility when confronted with communicative problems, and how those behaviours impact the effectiveness of communication.

Communicative problems in ELF conversations may be attributed to factors such as lack of knowledge of lexical items, unfamiliar accents, inability to construct utterances, or poor English listening skills. However, when confronted with such difficulties in ELF HT conversations, successful communication can often be achieved if speakers attempt to maintain the conversations, resolve the problems, and avoid conversation breakdowns. In such matters, CSs play a crucial role as attested to by diverse scholars both in SLA (see Bataineh et al., 2017; Dörnyei, 1995; Kongsom, 2016; Kuen et al., 2017; Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh, 2014; Nakatani, 2005) and in ELF, who have identified the usefulness of CSs in resolving communicative problems. Wagner and Firth (1997), working from an ELF interactional perspective, stated that the use of code-switching allows ELF speakers to negotiate their intended meaning when the lexical item is unknown; Mauranen (2006) asserted that ELF speakers use CSs such as appeal for help and repetition to signal misunderstanding in conversation, and Björkman (2014)

maintained that ELF speakers used clarification requests to ask for explanations from interlocutors when they do not understand their interlocutors' message. It is undeniable that these ELF speakers' use of CSs to resolve communicative problems can lead to the success of communication.

3.7   Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

CSs are categorised differently depending on the scholars' research paradigm. It is evident that CSs' taxonomies have been proposed by researchers in both SLA and ELF. The history of CS categorizations from both perspectives is briefly described below. Also, the CS taxonomy adopted in this research is presented in this section.

As previously noted, the term CS was coined in SLA, and the first CS taxonomy was established by an SLA scholar. Although Selinker (1972) coined the term CSs, he did not explain the features of CSs comprehensively or categorise the types of CSs. The first taxonomy of CSs was proposed by Tarone et al. (1976) who classified CSs into five types based on the perspective of second language acquisition and with a focus on language learners' interlanguage system. The table below shows the initial CS categories proposed by Tarone et al. (1976).

Table 3.2: First Taxonomy of Communication Strategies Proposed by Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas (1976, p.6)

Item	Communication Strategy	Description	Example
1	Transfer from native language	"The utterances that speakers directly transfer from their native language"	The use of *"the book of Jack"* for *"Jack's book"*
2	Overgeneralisation	"The inappropriate application of target language rules to target language forms or contexts"	The use of *"He goed"* for *"He went"*

Item	Communication Strategy	Description	Example
3	Prefabricated pattern	"The inappropriate use of regularly-patterned segments of speech due to the lack of knowledge of its underlying structure"	The use of *"What do you doing?"* for *"What are you doing?"*
4	Overelaboration	"The utterances that are stilted and inordinately formal due to speakers' attempts to produce careful target language utterances"	The use of *"I would not have gone"* or *"The people next door are rather indigent* (poor)*"*
5	Avoidance strategy		
	a. Topic avoidance	"The attempts to totally evade communication requiring the use of target language rules or forms that learners do not know very well by changing topics or giving non-verbal responses"	Avoiding engaging in or responding to a conversation about one's work due to the lack of technical vocabulary
	b. Semantic avoidance	"The attempts to evade the communication of content for which the appropriate target language rules and forms are not yet available"	*"I like to swim"* in response to *"What happened yesterday?"*
	c. Appeal to authority	"The speakers ask their interlocutors for help in terms of language"	*"How to say 'staple' in French?"*
	d. Paraphrase	"The rewording of the message in order to avoid more difficult language including the use of high covered word, low frequency word, word-coinage, and circumlocution"	- The use of *"tool"* for *"wrench"* - The use of *"labour"* for *"work"* - The use of *"airball"* - *"a thing you dry your hand on"*
	e. Message abandonment	"The production of unfinished messages due to language difficulties"	*"What you…"* (stoppage)
	f. Language switch	"Transporting the native word or expression into the target language conversation"	*Je ne pas go to school*. (English is the mother tongue and French is the target language)

As Tarone et al.'s (1976) taxonomy was created based on the traditional SLA and ELT

perspectives, some categories of CS obviously contained aspects of language norm (e.g.,

overgeneralisation and prefabricated pattern). Nevertheless, Tarone (1981) herself subsequently argued that CSs have interactional functions. She then proposed a new CS categorization focusing on strategic behaviours used to negotiate agreement on meaning between speaker and listener. Since there was less emphasis on language correctness as the focus was turned to meaning negotiation, CSs that involved language rules in Tarone et al.'s first CS taxonomy (overgeneralisation, prefabricated pattern, over-elaboration, and semantic avoidance) were excluded from Tarone's second CS taxonomy (1981). Furthermore, she added 'approximation' and 'circumlocution' as new CS categories (1981). The table below shows Tarone's (1981) new CS taxonomy.

Table 3.3: CS Taxonomy by Tarone (1981, p.286)

Item	Communication Strategy	Description	Example
1	Paraphrase		
	a. Approximation	"Use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is incorrect, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker"	*"pipe"* for *"waterpipe"*
	b. Word Coinage	"The learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept"	*"airball"* for *"balloon"*
	c. Circumlocution	"The learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure"	*"She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of."*
2	Borrowing		
	a. Literal translation	"The learner translates word for word from the native language"	*"He invites him to drink"* for *"They toast one another"*

Item	Communication Strategy	Description	Example
	b. Language switch	"The learner uses the native language (NL) term without bothering to translate"	The use of *"balon"* for *"balloon"* (Turkish is the first language)
3	Appeal for assistance	"The learner asks for the correct term"	*"What is this? What called?"*
4	Mime	"The learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action"	Clapping one's hands to illustrate applause
5	Avoidance		
	a. Topic avoidance	"The learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known"	-
	b. Message abandonment	"The learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops mid-utterance"	-

It can be said that the later CS taxonomy presented by Tarone (1981) is the prototype of the modern CS model in SLA and ELT. It has been adopted more widely than the earlier one by Tarone et al (1976). All CSs proposed by Tarone (1981) in this CS categorisation have been widely cited and used. Scholars subsequently proposed new CS taxonomies by mostly adapting this initial CS classification by Tarone (1981). For example, Bialystok (1983) re-categorised the CSs in Tarone's taxonomy (1981) according to their source. She claimed that generally there are two sources of CSs, the speakers' mother tongue and the target language itself. Then, Færch and Kasper (1983) divided CSs into 'reduction strategy' and 'achievement strategy'. In their taxonomy, CSs are categorised based on speakers' behaviours in dealing with problems in conversation. The speakers' strategic behaviours of avoiding language problems and reducing the goals of communication due to language difficulties were grouped under the category of 'reduction strategies'. In contrast, the speakers' strategic behaviours of taking risks and using their limited language repertoire to resolve communication problems to achieve

conversational goals were grouped under 'achievement strategies'. Additionally, they also included restructuring strategy (repair) under this category. The table below shows the CS taxonomy proposed by Færch and Kasper (1983).

Table 3.4: CS Taxonomy by Færch and Kasper (1983, pp. 52-53)

Item	Communication strategy	Description
1	Reduction strategy	
	Formal reduction strategy a. Phonological avoidance b. Morphological avoidance c. Syntactic avoidance d. Lexical avoidance	"Learner communicates by means of a 'reduced' system, in order to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances by realizing insufficiently automatized or hypothetical rules/items"
	Functional reduction strategies a. Actional reduction b. Modal reduction c. Reduction of prepositional content: topic avoidance, message abandonment, meaning replacement	"Learner reduces his communicative goal in order to avoid a problem"
2	Achievement strategy Compensatory strategies: a. Code-switching b. Interlingual transfer c. Inter-intralingual transfer d. IL based strategies: (i) Generalization (ii) Paraphrase (iii) Word-coinage (iv) Restructuring Retrieval strategies	"Learner attempts to solve communicative problems by expanding his communicative resource" (*expanding communicative resource* is speakers' move of expanding their resource of language after failing to retrieverelevant language in their repertoire, mostly by using some CSs. For example, when the target word is unknown, speakers expand their communicative resource by using their communicative skills to describe the object to convey its meaning)

Later, Willems (1987) added 'asking for clarification', 'asking for confirmation', and 'comprehension check' under the category of achievement strategy. He referred to these strategies as intralingual strategies, or strategies that do not help speakers expand their language repertoire but are commonly used in interactions and help speakers become more proficient at using the language abilities they already possess.

One of the best-known CS taxonomies is from Dörnyei (1995). Like Færch and Kasper (1983), Dörnyei categorised CSs into reduction strategies and achievement strategies. However, the sub-CSs in Dörnyei's typology (1995) were taken from Tarone's CS taxonomy (1981). He categorised 'topic avoidance' and 'message abandonment' under reduction strategies. The other CSs in Tarone's classification (1981), except for the two avoidance strategies, are all considered achievement strategies. He also added a new CS under the category of achievement strategy which he named 'use of all-purpose words'. The following table shows Dörnyei's CS taxonomy (1995).

Table 3.5: CS Taxonomy by Dörnyei (1995, p.58)

Item	Communication Strategy	Description	Example
1	Reduction strategy		
	a. Message abandonment	"Leaving a message unfinished due to language difficulties"	-
	b. Topic avoidance	"Avoiding topic areas or concepts that pose language difficulties"	-
2	Achievement strategy		
	a. Circumlocution	"Describing or exemplifying the target object or action"	*"the thing you open bottles with"* for *"corkscrew"*
	b. Approximation	"Using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible"	*"ship"* for *"sail boat"*
	c. Use of all-purpose words	"Extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking"	The overuse of *"thing", "stuff", "make", "do"*
	d. Word-coinage	"Creating a non-existent L2 word based on a supposed rule"	*"vegetarianist"* for *"vegetarian"*
	e. Use of non-linguistic means	"Mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation"	-
	f. Literal translation	"Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1	-

Item	Communication Strategy	Description	Example
		(first language) to L2 (target language)"	
	g. Foreignising	"Using an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically (i.e. with an L2 pronunciation) and/or morphologically (e.g., adding an L2 suffix)"	-
	h. Code-switching	"Using an L1 word with L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with L3 pronunciation in L2"	-
	i. Appeal for help	"Turning to the conversation partner for help either directly or indirectly"	- *"What do you call . . . ?"* - Rising intonation - Pause - Eye contact - Puzzled expression
3	Time-gaining strategies	"Use of fillers/hesitation devices: using filler words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think"	*"well", "now let me see", "as a matter of fact"*

The classification of CSs by Dörnyei is widely accepted and used, especially in pedagogies for language learners. Later, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) included the strategy of 'asking for repetition'.

Since the reduction strategies outlined in Dörnyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy relate to CSs awareness (research question 4), this type of CS is briefly explained here. Reduction strategies, which were initially introduced by Tarone et al. (1976), are also known as 'passive strategies' (Kwan and Dunworth, 2016) or 'avoidance strategies' (Dörnyei, 1995; Jamshidnejad, 2011; Maleki, 2010). They comprise speakers' behaviours in avoiding engagement in conversations or giving up on conversations due to language difficulties, i.e., not producing utterances or ignoring interlocutors' messages. For example, when speakers think that they cannot deal with communicative problems (e.g., the English word is unknown, they lack the ability to form utterances, or they are unable

to understand the interlocutors' utterances), they choose to keep silent, stop speaking, maintain long pauses, respond less, or change the conversation topic. Tarone (1981), Færch and Kasper (1983), and Dörnyei (1995) divided reduction strategies into 'topic avoidance' and 'message abandonment'. These two strategies are distinguished based on the speakers' actions when employing them. Topic avoidance strategy refers to the speakers' behaviour of avoiding getting engaged in or bringing up certain topics because they seem too difficult for the speakers to produce the necessary utterances to convey the message (Dörnyei, 1995; Tarone, 1981). Message abandonment is different from topic avoidance in terms of the speakers' participation in the conversation. It is a strategy in which speakers initially participate or respond to interlocutors in the conversation, but they stop mid-utterance when they are unable to continue the utterance (Corder, 1978; Dörnyei, 1995; Tarone, 1981). Both topic avoidance and message abandonment are proposed as CSs which hinder the success of communication (Dörnyei, 1995; Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1981).

All the CSs taxonomies above were created based on the SLA perspective which informs language teaching and learning in the classroom. Consequently, they were created without consideration of language in international use, multilingualism, and cross-cultural communication. However, Kirkpatrick (2010) examined the use of CSs in ELF conversations among teachers from different countries of ASEAN. In his paper, he categorized CSs into "listener strategies" and "speaker strategies". Although he did not define the terms clearly, his analysis section shows that listener strategies were CSs which speakers used after the interlocutor's turn of talk in order to display non-comprehension and ask for help, smooth the conversation, or assist the interlocutor in terms of language (in the absence of a request for help from the interlocutor such as repairing the other's choice of lexical items), while speaker strategies were 'third position repair' (Schegloff, 1991) which the speakers themselves used after realizing the listeners' problems of

comprehension in order to resolve the problems. The table below shows the categories of CSs by Kirkpatrick (2010).

Table 3.6: Categories of Communication Stragegies by Kirkpatrick (2010: p.141)

Listener Strategies	Speaker Strategies
- Lexical anticipation - Lexical suggestion - Lexical correction - Don't give up - Request repetition - Request clarification - Let it pass - Listen to the message - Participant paraphrase - Participant prompt	- Spell out the word - Repeat the phrase - Be explicit - Paraphrase - Avoid local/ idiomatic referents

Björkman (2014) argued that it is vague to use the terms "listener" and "speaker" in ELF communication analysis. She proposed applying the terms 'self' and 'other', which are borrowed from conversation analysis (CA), and categorised CSs into 'self-initiated CSs', which refer to CSs the speaker himself or herself initiates or employs for communicative purposes, and 'other-initiated CSs' which refer to CSs the interlocutor employs to enhance his or her own understanding of the speaker's utterances. The table below shows Björkman's (2014) classification of CSs.

Table 3.7: Categories of Communication Strategies by Björkman (2014: p.129)

Self-initiated Communication Strategies	Other-initiated Communication Strategies

1. Explicitness strategies
  a. Repetition
  b. Simplification
  c. Signalling importance
  d. Paraphrasing
	1. Confirmation checks
	  a. Paraphrasing
	  b. Repetition
	  c. Overt question

2. Comprehension check	2. Clarification requests

Self-initiated Communication Strategies	Other-initiated Communication Strategies
3. Word replacement	3. Questions or question repeats
	4. Co-creation of the message/anticipation
	5. Word replacement

This research is particularly interested in the communicative behaviours that ELF speakers in the HT setting in Thailand adopt to enhance intelligibility in conversations by preventing and resolving communicative problems in multicultural conversations. Therefore, this research examines the role of CSs and the speakers' purposes in using them. Drawing on the CSs taxonomies proposed in ELF and SLA, and the preemptive strategies identified by Mauranen (2006) and Kaur (2009), this research categorizes CSs as "preemptive strategies" and "resolving strategies" as indicated in the table below.

Table 3.8: CS Taxonomy Proposed in This Study

Preemptive Strategies	Resolving Strategies
- Repetition - Reformulation - Self-Repair - Explication - Circumlocution - Confirmation check - Comprehension check	- Self-Repetition - Self-Reformulation - Repair - Explication - Circumlocution - Approximation - Appeal for help - Use of all-purpose word - Code switching - Literal translation - Word coinage - Clarification request - Asking for repetition

Preemptive strategies in this study are the strategic moves speakers make to prevent possible communicative problems, whereas resolving strategies are the strategic moves speakers make to resolve communicative problems in conversations. The criterion for

categorizing the two types of CSs is the occurrence of a communicative problem in the interaction. If the participant uses a CS to resolve a communicative problem that occurred in a previous turn or utterance, the CS is considered a resolving strategy. On the other hand, if a CS is used in the absence of a communicative problem but employed to avert possible communicative difficulties, the CS is considered a preemptive strategy. Dividing the CSs into these two categories illustrates the two major functions of CSs, namely, to prevent communicative problems and to resolve communicative troubles in conversations. Also, the CSs taxonomy proposed in this research has been designed to cater for CS training to enhance speakers' communicative ability and intelligibility in ELF hospitality and tourism conversations. This is because there is a gap between CSs training conducted by ELT instructors and the use of CSs in the real world. Future HT employees are likely to communicate with not just native speakers of English, but also with non-native speakers of English, especially in countries which welcome numerous international tourists from around the world, such as in the HT context in Thailand. This means they must deal with not only varying levels of English proficiency but also unfamiliar accents and different forms of English in conversations. Therefore, teaching only CSs to resolve communicative problems is inadequate to enhance the quality of the messages in cross-cultural communications. Rather, in interactions with people who do not share the same mother tongue, strategies to prevent possible misunderstanding, non-understanding, or ambiguity are also necessary. However, it appears that in most CSs training or teaching, only CSs which are used to resolve communicative problems were highlighted (e.g., Faucette, 2001; Kongsom, 2016; Maleki, 2010; Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh, 2014; Natakani, 2005). It seems that CSs which are useful from the ELF perspective such as preemptive strategies are ignored by curriculum developers. It is therefore noteworthy that this research has proposed a taxonomy that combines CSs for problem resolving which are popular in SLA with CSs for preventing troubles in

communications put forward by ELF scholars. Applying this CS taxonomy in oral communication courses will allow trainees to gain an ELF perspective, develop their communicative skills to preempt and resolve the problems in conversations, and enhance their own communicative ability in ELF interactions. The two sets of CSs that make up this taxonomy are described in greater detail below.

3.7.1   Preemptive Strategies

In this research, ELF speakers' communicative behaviours to prevent possible communication problems in conversations are called "preemptive strategies". As stated in the section on CSs and the success of communication (section 3.6), these strategies are normally employed due to the speakers' anticipation of communicative problems. In multilingual conversations, speakers might confront not only language problems, but also unfamiliar accents, different forms of English, and interlocutors who have different levels of language proficiency. Therefore, using CSs only to resolve problems in conversation might not be adequate to enhance intelligibility and maintain smooth conversations. It can be said that in cross-cultural communications, communicative behaviours to anticipate possible communicative problems in advance are needed. As stated above, an outcome of this research will be to propose these kinds of CSs for HT training so that future HT employees are able to apply these helpful CSs in any ELF setting (Jaroensak, 2018; Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2006). Each preemptive strategy of the proposed taxonomy is described below.

3.7.1.1 Repetition

Repetition has been of great interest to scholars in ELF. It was first categorised under the 'make it normal' strategy (the CS that speakers use to make abnormal talk appear normal, such as repeating interlocutors' 'non-standard' use of a word) in Firth's (1996) work. Interest in repetition among ELF scholars has persisted, especially in ELF academic

settings (Björkman, 2010 and 2011; House, 2010; Kaur, 2012; Lichtkoppler, 2007; Mauranen, 2006). Repetition is the speakers' behaviour of repeating words or segments that occurred earlier in an ongoing turn. This strategy consists of 'self-repetition' and 'other-repetition' (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Seidlhofer, 2011). Self-repetition refers to the speakers repeating or restating their own utterance immediately after the utterance has been produced, while other-repetition refers to the interlocutors repeating the utterance the speaker has just produced.

In this study, preemptive self-repetition is defined as when a speaker repeats a previously produced word or utterance to enhance the clarity of the message (Kaur, 2012) and prevent the possibility of misunderstanding, non-understanding, or mishearing. Preemptive other-repetition occurs when the interlocutor repeats the speaker's word or message from the previous turn in order to display their understanding to the speaker and ensure that their comprehension is not flawed. Lichtkoppler (2007) explained that other-repetition serves to ensure the accuracy of understanding. House (2003) clarified that this kind of repetition is also call 'echoing', 'mirroring', or 'shadowing'. She stated that this is the communicative behavior to "represent the previous speaker's move in order to aid the present speaker's working memory in both his/her comprehension and production processes, to provide textual coherence, to signal uptake, to request confirmation, or to indicate to the previous speaker that there is no intention to steal his/her turn" (House, 2003, p. 568).

3.7.1.2 Reformulation

'Reformulation' or 'paraphrasing' is the strategy used by speakers to paraphrase previous utterances. Tarone et al. (1976) defined reformulation as "the rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable, target language construction, in order to avoid a more difficult form or construction" (p. 10). Meanwhile, Björkman (2014) described this

strategy as "providing same content by modifying the previous utterance or ongoing utterance" (p. 131). This strategy is one of the most researched CSs among ELF scholars (Björkman, 2014; Cogo, 2010; Kaur, 2009). It is claimed that ELF speakers commonly use reformulation in conversation to negotiate meaning (Cogo, 2010). Kaur (2009) posited that "paraphrasing allows the speaker to address the inadequacies of the prior utterance so that meaning is clarified" (p.120). Seidlhofer (2004) observed that lacking paraphrasing skills in ELF conversations may lead to communication problems and misunderstandings. Speakers paraphrase messages to enhance understanding in conversation because it can prevent ambiguity and avoid conversation breakdowns (Kaur, 2009). As such, this study will examine both self-reformulation and other-reformulation. Self-reformulation to prevent communicative problems refers to the speakers' communicative behaviour to paraphrase their own utterance to enhance their interlocutor's understanding. Björkman (2014) included self-paraphrasing under the category of "explicitness" strategies, which means that this CS is used to explicate the message in conversation. On the other hand, other-reformulation to prevent communicative problems refers to the interlocutor's behaviours to paraphrase the speaker's utterance in the previous turn in order to signal their understanding. Björkman (2014) categorized this CS under "comprehension checks" which are CSs that the interlocutor uses to check their understanding with the speaker.

3.7.1.3 Self-repair

Repair is an action taken by speakers to adjust their message (Willems, 1987), and 'self-repair' specifically is the situation in which speakers modify their own previous utterance. In this research, the features of self-repair are different compared to self-repetition, as the former is not a repetition of the previous utterance. Also, it is not a self-reformulation since it is not a rewording of the message. In this research, preemptive self-repair is employed when speakers adjust their previous message to increase its clarity and

avoid ambiguity. Although the initial message might be understandable to the listener, repair provides increased quality of utterance through more transparent word-choice, greater specificity, or narrower or clearer meaning. Mauranen (2006) asserted that self-repair is regarded as a preemptive strategy that speakers use to reduce ambiguity and ensure mutual intelligibility in conversation. Kaur (2011b) indicated that ELF speakers use self-repair for "raising explicitness and enhancing clarity" (p.2707-2712). She highlighted that repair is used as a tool to make meaning clearer when there is ambiguity.

3.7.1.4 Explication

The use of explication to prevent communicative problems occurs when the speakers clarify a previous word or utterance, for example by spelling it out or defining it (Konakahara, 2012), in order to stave off communicative problems in conversation. The speakers employ this strategy to enhance the understanding of the message and help their interlocutor to grasp the meaning of the message with ease.

3.7.1.5 Circumlocution

'Circumlocution' is the strategy used when "describing or exemplifying the target object or action" (Dörnyei, 1995, p. 58). Tarone (1981) explained this strategy as the strategy of the speaker who "describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure" (p. 286). It centres around the speakers' description of, for example, general physical properties, specific features, and interactional or functional characteristics (Bialystok, 1983). When employing circumlocution, after producing a word, the speakers describe the characteristic(s) of the thing or action related to that prior word to enhance their interlocutors' understanding. This means the speakers know the word in English but use this CS to simplify its meaning and prevent the problem of non-understanding on the part of their interlocutors (e.g., "you will go there by the shuttle bus, the big bus") Although

there is no indication of non-understanding on the part of their interlocutors, the speakers use this CS to ensure their interlocutor's comprehension.

3.7.1.6 Confirmation check

Confirmation check is the CS that ELF speakers use to prevent communicative problems in conversations (Björkman, 2014; Mauranen, 2006) through checking and confirming their comprehension of the interlocutors' utterances. It can be a minimal check such as the use of "yeah" with a questioning intonation at the end of the sentence (Mauranen, 2006, p.136) or other phrases such as "you mean…", "you said…" (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Dörnyei and Scott (1997) defined it as "requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly" (p. 191). Likewise, Natakani (2005) stated that this strategy is "used to confirm that the speaker has understood something correctly" (p. 81). Meanwhile, Jamshidnejad (2011) surmised that this strategy is used by speakers to provide an 'interpretive summary' for interlocutors and is a way for speakers to express their own understanding. Björkman (2014) included it in her 'other-initiated' category and examined its use in ELF academic settings.

3.7.1.7 Comprehension check

'Comprehension check' is the CS whereby speakers ask questions to check whether interlocutors understand the message. This is the CSs which speakers employ to ensure that their interlocutors are not faced with non-understanding or other communicative problems. The use of this CS is motivated by the speakers' attempt to avoid interlocutor non-understanding. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) defined it as "asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you" (p. 192). Likewise, Björkman (2014) clarified that "comprehension checks generally seem to be questions that the speaker asks to see if the partner can follow the speaker" (p. 131).

3.7.2 Resolving Strategies

Resolving strategies are CSs which speakers use to address existing communicative problems in conversations (see Björkman, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Kwan and Dunworth, 2016). In conversation analysis (CA), these kinds of strategies are called 'repair' (Schegloff, 1991; Schegloff et al, 1977). It is obvious that the term 'repair' is not used identically in CA and SLA. Repair in SLA refers to the modification of a prior utterance to address, for example, problematic words such as the repair of language mistake(s) or inappropriate word-choice (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Willems, 1987). However, by focusing on 'shared understanding' between interactors or the 'intersubjectivity' in social interaction (Schegloff, 1991), 'repair' from CA's point of view also includes strategies to resolve troubles in comprehension (e.g., misunderstanding, mishearing, non-understanding, or ambiguity) (Schegloff, 1991; Schegloff et al, 1977) and in speaking (e.g., the inability to continue a preceding turn) (Schegloff et al., 2002).

This study uses both terms. To prevent reader confusion, it refers to the speakers' move to modify earlier utterances as 'repair' and to the overall action of resolving problems in communication (e.g., misunderstanding, mishearing, non-understanding, ambiguity, or difficulty in producing utterance) as 'resolving strategies'. The use of resolving strategies here relates to the resolution of communicative troubles in conversation which are caused by the speaker's or listeners' problems of language competence or difficulty in communicating with interlocutors from different linguistic backgrounds, for example, when a particular lexical item is unknown, when they cannot formulate the utterance to be conveyed, when they do not understand or are unsure about their interlocutors' meaning of a word or utterance, or when they have trouble understanding their interlocutor's accent. The resolving strategies that will be examined in this study are described below.

3.7.2.1 Self-repetition

Not only is repetition employed to prevent misunderstanding, it is also commonly used in ELF conversations to facilitate understanding and overcome communication difficulties (Cogo, 2010; Jenkins et al., 2011; Kaur, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Lichtkoppler, 2007). Speakers employ this strategy in conversation for various purposes, such as to plan a new utterance or to gain time to recall the next lexical items (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Lichtkoppler, 2007; Rababah, 2013), to couch it as an indirect question asking for more information or explanation (Jamshidnejad, 2011), or to request for message clarification (Jamshidnejad, 2011; Kaur 2011b, 2012; Mauranen, 2006). Furthermore, Lichtkoppler (2007) noted that ELF speakers use repetition to develop previous utterances and make a word more prominent "in order to make the listener think about words or phrases that the speaker cannot reformulate in a more intelligible way" (Lichtkoppler, 2007, p.55).

3.7.2.2 Self-reformulation

In this research, self-reformulation is another tool to resolve communicative problems (Björkman, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 20120). It is used after signals of interlocutors' comprehension problems and causes speakers to paraphrase previous utterances to enhance interlocutors' understanding and resolve the problem. The purpose of reformulating words or utterances is to clarify unknown or unfamiliar words or utterances and thus reduce misunderstanding and ambiguity.

3.7.2.3 Repair

It is noted that repair consists of 'self-repair' and 'other-repair' (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Self-repair is the repairing of the speakers' own utterances, while other-repair is the repairing of a speaker's utterance by the interlocutor. In this research, both self-repair and other-repair are categorized as resolving strategies. Resolving self-repair is used

when speakers resolve their own earlier language mistakes (Kaur, 2011b) or incomprehensible message by reproducing the utterance. This kind of self-repair is different from preemptive self-repair in terms of the speaker's purpose. While the purpose of preemptive self-repair is to enhance message clarity and avoid miscomprehension, resolving self-repair is used to resolve speakers' difficulties in producing an utterance such as to modify earlier mispronunciations, inaccurate lexical items, false starts (repeating the preceding word over and over due to difficulties in retrieving the intended lexical item or in forming the utterance), or non-understandable utterances. Other-repair occurs when listeners help speakers modify a problematic utterance, for example, when speakers mistakenly employ inaccurate words or ambiguous or incorrect pronunciations, express difficulty in producing intended utterances, or employ false starts. This assistance is provided by listeners to allow speakers to overcome their difficulty in producing utterances and smoothen the conversation.

3.7.2.4 Explication

The use of explication to resolve communicative problems is when the speaker perceives the interlocutors' misunderstanding, non-understanding, or misperception of their previous utterance and clarifies the problematic word or utterance by spelling, defining (Konakahara, 2012), or giving examples, in order to enhance the understanding of the interlocutor and address the non-comprehension.

3.7.2.5 Circumlocution

Circumlocution is used when speakers face lexical problems in conversation, such as situations in which the lexical item is unknown to the listener or speaker but is relevant to the intended meaning or the conversation topic. Therefore, speakers decide to use strategies such as describing, illustrating, or exemplifying the properties of the target object or action (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997) to convey its meaning and facilitate

understanding on the part of interlocutors. This CS is used when speakers realize that interlocutors are unable to understand the meaning of a word and they describe it to help interlocutors grasp the meaning of that word.

3.7.2.6 Approximation

'Approximation' is the CS whereby speakers use words that are close in meaning to the intended word when the target words are unknown or cannot be retrieved. Dörnyei (1995) defined this CS as "using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible" (p. 58). Tarone (1981) further described this strategy as the "use of single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speakers" (p. 286). Using this strategy relates to the speakers' intention to convey meaning in the face of a lack of lexical items. This is a method by which speakers produce expressions that are close to the intended meaning, but are not quite the equivalent. In the ELF context, this strategy is one of the most effective CSs that helps speakers enhance understanding in conversation. Mauranen (2015) explained that "approximations that are sufficiently close to their target may not pose too much difficulty for a hearer to construct the meaning from the elements that are there" (p. 11).

3.7.2.7 Appeal for help

'Appeal for help', which is also known as 'appeal for assistance' (Tarone, 1981), is the strategy by which speakers ask interlocutors for assistance when confronted with language difficulties. This strategy is grouped under the 'help seeking' category of CSs by Nakatani (2005). Dörnyei and Scott (1997) divided appeal for help into 'direct appeal for help' and 'indirect appeal for help'. Direct appeal for help refers to the behaviour of "turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap

in one's L2 (target language) knowledge" (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997, p. 191), for instance, the question "What is this called in English?". Indirect appeal for help refers to the behaviour of "trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 (target language) item either verbally or nonverbally" (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997, p. 191), for instance, the use of "I don't know how to say this in English". Tarone (1981) clarified that appeal for help is used when speakers ask interlocutors for the most appropriate language term. Shobeiri (2011) suggested that the appeal for help strategy is used for 'asking meaning'. For Færch and Kasper (1983), appeal for help is a 'problem indication' strategy. They explained that this strategy is used when a speaker "decides to signal to his interlocutor that he is experiencing a communicative problem and that he needs assistance" (p. 51). Likewise, Nakatani (2005) claimed that this strategy is for "seeking an interlocutor's assistance in solving problems caused by the lack of target language knowledge" (p. 81). To achieve a successful outcome, the appeal for help strategy requires cooperation. Interlocutors must attempt to resolve speakers' communicative problems. Corder (1978) claimed that the appeal for help strategy is convenient as it requires the least amount of risk-taking among the CSs.

3.7.2.8 Use of all-purpose words

'Use of all-purpose words' is the use of general terms when specific words are unknown or cannot be retrieved. Dörnyei (1995) defined this strategy as "extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking" (p. 58). It is vital to differentiate this strategy from the use of words that are close in meaning. In this case, when speakers lack knowledge of certain words, they replace the words with simple or general words instead of seeking words that are close in meaning or synonyms. To illustrate how this strategy is different from approximation, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) gave the example of the overuse of "thing", "stuff", "make", and "do" as part of an all-purpose words strategy, as in the sentence "I can't work until you repair my… thing" (p.

188). The speaker replaces the word for the object to which he or she lacks knowledge of the specific term in English and replaces it with "thing". Although the specific word is not mentioned, the interlocutor may be able to understand the meaning of "thing" from the context. Therefore, "the use of all-purpose words affords them the opportunity to keep the communication going in spite of their limited vocabulary size" (Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh, 2014, p. 62)

3.7.2.9 Code switching

'Code-switching' is the switching of code to the speakers' first language in English conversations. It is the mixing of two languages in interactions (Klimpfinger, 2009). Bialystok (1983) defined code-switching as "the insertion of a word or phrase in a language other than the target language" (p. 106). Code-switching may involve the switching of a single word, phrase, sentence (Klimpfinger, 2009), or even a complete turn (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). However, there is an ongoing debate among linguists about the effectiveness of this strategy. In the classroom, the use of code-switching is common among language learners with low proficiency levels (Bialystok, 1983). Coder (1978) and Jamshidnejad (2011) concluded that the use of code-switching is the riskiest enterprise because its effectiveness depends on the interlocutors' knowledge of that language. Unlike scholars in ELT, scholars in ELF view the use of code-switching as a common occurrence in conversations between ELF speakers (Firth, 1996) and do not perceive it as a contributor to miscommunication. Instead, the use of code-switching is brought about by speakers' bilingual competence (Cogo, 2009) or their plurilingual resources (Hülmbauer, 2009; Jenkins et al., 2011). It is seen as a way by which speakers overcome communication problems in conversation, negotiate message meaning (Cogo, 2010; Jenkins, 2007), and express their identities (Cogo, 2009, 2010; Jenkins, 2012; Klimpfinger, 2009). Furthermore, ELF scholars argue that the use of code-switching can lead to the success of communication (Cogo, 2009). Wagner and Firth (1997) conclude

that "By switching from one code to another, speakers can negotiate meaning and identity. In this sense, code-switching is a contextualization cue for the speakers' intended meanings" (p. 333). This statement affirms the results of the study by Deterding (2013), who maintained that code-switching in ELF conversations resulted in fewer misunderstandings compared to other sources of misunderstanding, such as pronunciation problems.

3.7.2.10 Literal translation

'Literal translation', which is also known as 'transliteration' (Bialystok, 1983) or 'interlingua transfer' (Faerch and Kasper, 1983), is the CS whereby speakers translate word for word from their native language (Tarone, 1981). The utterances produced generally do not exist in standard English. Bialystok (1983) defined literal translation as "the use of L2 lexicon and structure to create a (usually non-existent) literal translation of an L1 item or phrase" (p. 106). Dörnyei and Scott (1997) defined literal translation as "translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 (first language/third language) to L2 (second language)" (p. 189). Unlike code-switching, the first language does not appear in a literal translation since the whole utterance is produced in English. The use of literal translation is however influenced by the speakers' first language and its system of constructing utterances. To convey meaning, speakers think in their mother tongue (Blum-Kulka and Levenston, 1983) and formulate utterances based on their first language, then translate them in their mind, word for word, before expressing them to their interlocutors in English. Like code-switching, SLA scholars and ELF practitioners view literal translation as a strategy commonly used by speakers with low language proficiency (e.g., Bialystok, 1983; Garcés and Olivera, 2014).

3.7.2.11 Word coinage

'Word-coinage' is the CS whereby speakers create words which do not actually exist in standard English. Tarone (1981) defined this strategy as the situation in which "the

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learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept" (p. 286). Similarly, Dörnyei (1995) described word-coinage as "creating a non-existing L2 word based on a supposed rule" (p. 58). This relates to the rules of English morphology, such as adding a prefix or suffix to a single word (Mauranen, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011) to convey an intended meaning. From the ELF perspective, word-coinage is a process of lexical innovation rather than morphological error (Björkman, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Mauranen, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011). Inventing new words in conversation is a language solution which "helps solve immediate communication problems, often successfully" (Mauranen, 2015, p. 36).

3.7.2.12 Clarification request

'Clarification request' is the strategy that speakers employ to request elucidation from their interlocutors when there is ambiguity in the interlocutors' previous utterance. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) defined it as "requesting explanation for an unfamiliar meaning structure" (p. 191). Similarly, Natakani (2005) affirmed that this strategy is used to "ask for an explanation when the speaker does not entirely comprehend something" (p. 81). Björkman (2014) claimed that it is a strategy by which "speakers ask for explanations or more information on something they have not fully understood" (p. 113).

3.7.2.13 Asking for repetition

'Asking for repetition' is the strategy whereby speakers ask their interlocutors to repeat words or utterances. It is categorised under the category of achievement strategies by Dörnyei and Scott (1997), but under the category of help seeking CSs by Natakani (2005). The strategy is used when listeners are unable to hear or understand clearly what their interlocutors have said, and thus request that their interlocutors repeat the message to resolve non-comprehension (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Natakani, 2005). Asking for repetition can manifest itself in the form of complete questions soliciting repetition (e.g.,

"Could you say it again please?") or indirect signals of non-understanding, such as minimal non-comprehension signals (e.g., "hm?" or "Ah?") (Mauranen, 2006).

3.8   Communication Strategy Awareness

It has been proposed in SLA that non-native speakers who have higher levels of CS knowledge and awareness are better able to communicate (e.g., Faucette, 2001; Kongsom, 2016; Maleki, 2010; Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh, 2014; Natakani, 2005), especially in situations where they face communicative problems. While CS knowledge refers to how much speakers know about CSs, CS awareness is about speakers' understanding and ability to choose appropriate and helpful CSs to enhance the effectiveness of communication (Dörnyei, 1995; Færch and Kasper, 1983; Natakani, 2005).

CSs are tools which help speakers maintain conversations, avoid communication breakdowns, and achieve conversation goals. However, from the SLA perspective, not every CS is useful. As stated in the section on CSs taxonomy (section 3.7), reduction strategies (where speakers avoid the ongoing topic or abandon the unfinished message) have been identified by SLA scholars as the factors which hinder the success of communication. Færch and Kasper (1983) claimed that non-native speakers enhance the effectiveness of their communication by employing achievement strategies (the helpful CSs which assist speakers in achieving conversation goals) instead of reduction strategies (topic avoidance and message abandonment). Although reduction strategies allow speakers to avoid difficulties in conversation, they can lead to ineffective communication, since communicative goals are reduced when using these CSs. Therefore, in the language classroom, reduction strategies are the CSs which language learners are encouraged to avoid. For example, Natakani (2005) used metacognitive strategies to raise Japanese learners' CS awareness and avoid reduction strategies in conversations to enhance their oral communication ability, and the result showed that their communicative ability was

significantly increased after minimising the use of reduction strategies. In conclusion, encouraging speakers to use helpful CSs to achieve the conversation goals instead of giving up on conversations when confronted with communicative problems can enhance the speakers' communicative ability.

In ELF-related literature, minimal attention has been given to language inaccuracies and communicative difficulties, and reduction strategies are rarely mentioned. However, there is some common ground between SLA and ELF in that both consider the role of CSs in supporting speakers to negotiate meaning and enhance the effectiveness of communication. It is undeniable that raising ELF speakers' awareness of the available CSs from which to choose to resolve communicative problems can enhance the effectiveness of conversations in multilingual environments so that messages can be produced effectively and responded to appropriately. Employing reduction strategies alludes to communicative decisions which do not contribute to meaning negotiation and might even lead to communication breakdown. Such strategies encompass avoiding communicative problems by abandoning the unfinished message in multicultural conversations or responding with silence or long pauses. These are the strategies which do not support effective communications and might lead to unachieved HT goals. Raising ELF speakers' level of CS knowledge, encouraging them to be aware of appropriate CSs, and supporting them to focus on intelligibility rather than seeking to avoid mistakes and therefore keep silent are necessary components of training to develop ELF speakers' oral communication ability. Thus, a CS approach from ELF was adopted in this study to explore the CS awareness level of the ELF speakers in HT setting. The purpose of the investigation was to provide concrete evidence of the level to which the speakers in this multiparty HT context understand and employ CSs. This can lead to invaluable suggestions and recommendations concerning which CSs and how much CSs awareness should be incorporated in training in order to enhance the oral communication ability of

participants in ELF HT contexts. In this research, CS awareness refers to the speakers' awareness of CSs and ability to maintain conversation, take risks to enhance intelligibility, and attempt to achieve conversation goals when encountering communicative problems by employing relevant CSs. CS unawareness refers to speakers' lack of awareness and knowledge of CSs which leads to abandoning messages or avoiding topics and encompasses speakers' lack of options for dealing with communicative problems in multicultural interactions.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology of this research by outlining the research theorical framework, research conceptual framework, research design, and research procedure. The research setting is also detailed to shed light on the research sites in which this research was conducted. Apart from that, information about the research participants is also presented in this chapter. The processes of obtaining research material and conducting data collection, data transcription, analytical approaches, and data analysis are also clarified.

4.1   Research Theorical Framework

This research investigates the frequency, features, functions, and awareness level of CSs in ELF HT interactions in Thailand. It was conducted based on an ELF perspective of language and language use. The theorical framework of the research was driven mainly by ELF core concepts. This research emphasizes the interactions of speakers with different first languages who use English as a medium of communication (Jenkins, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2011) to fulfil HT goals. Specifically, it focuses on communication between Thai staff who work in HT sites and international tourists who travel to Thailand for HT purposes. Also, this research focuses on communication rather than language accuracy (Jenkins, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2004). It emphasizes communicative ability and communicative effectiveness instead of speakers' grammatical correctness. In addition, this research accepts variation, hybridity, fluidity and flexibility of language and holds that the international tourists and Thai staff have the right to use English in their own ways, which includes the right to focus on conversation goal achievement rather than producing native-like English. The ability to avoid or deal with communicative problems is the focus of this study. As such, this research not only recommends communicative ability enhancement for pedagogy, but also describes the nature and the features of CSs

which specifically occur in ELF HT communication. This investigation aims to make suggestions specially for ELF HT speakers or training institutions preparing language learners to engage in ELF HT interactions.

4.2   Research Conceptual Framework

CSs from both ELF and SLA are examined in this research. Preemptive strategies commonly identified by ELF scholars (e.g., Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2006) are one of the subjects of analysis in this study. This research holds that ELF speakers should have the ability to enhance their communicative effectiveness in multicultural interactions by employing CSs to prevent possible communicative problems. This is because preemptive strategies play a crucial role in driving ELF HT interactions towards their communicative goals smoothly, and can help speakers avoid HT miscommunication and poor service. In addition, by paying attention to the communicative problems which are caused by the low English proficiency of Thais (Baker, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Kolmondin, 2006; Yusica, 2014) or other challenges faced in ELF interactions, this research also focuses on CSs which help ELF HT speakers resolve communicative problems. Resolving strategies which have been identified by ELF scholars such as repair, asking for repetition, clarification request, reformulation, code-switching, and word coinage (see Björkman, 2014; Cogo, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Klimpfinger, 2009; Konakahara, 2012, Kwan and Dunworth, 2016; Pietikäinen, 2018; Van, 2015) are also the subject of analysis in this study. In addition, since this study also relates to ELF speakers' communicative ability enhancement and ELF HT language training, the CSs which have been proposed in SLA, such as circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, use of all-purpose words, and literal translation (see Dörnyei, 1995; Færch and Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1981) are also investigated. All CSs in these categories are approached from the ELF perspective. CSs which might be regarded as inaccurate language from the standard English viewpoint are not seen as language errors in this research. For example, this research holds that the

creation of new English words (not used in native speaker contexts) does not constitute a lexical error but rather a lexical innovation (Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2011). ELF speakers who switch to their mother tongue are not failed language users but communicators using strategies to negotiate meaning (Deterding, 2013; Wolfartsberger, 2009). Speakers who appeal for language assistance are not weak communicators but persons recognizing and addressing non-comprehension. This research holds that the different ways of using language to produce CSs effectively relate to the identification of the features of CS use. The benefits of using CSs should be acknowledged by those associated (or soon-to-be associated) with such settings.

Finally, this research adopts the term 'CSs awareness' from SLA (Dörnyei, 1995; Færch and Kasper, 1983). In spite of the variability of ELF speakers' language competence and the different forms of English used in the setting, this researcher believes that high awareness of CSs among ELF HT speakers will enhance the effectiveness of communication. The ELF HT speakers' high level of CSs knowledge and awareness plays an important role in helping them achieve their conversation goals. This is because when communicative problems occur participants are motivated to use CSs, and know how to use them effectively to resolve problems. This researcher believes that ELF HT speakers who have low CS awareness levels or lack knowledge about how to use CSs effectively should be trained to increase their CS awareness and knowledge in order to improve their oral communication ability. The figure below illustrates the research theorical framework of this study.

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          │   ELF Interactions in HT    │
          │                             │
          │     Setting in Thailand     │
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          │     ┌───────────────────────────┐         │
          │     │  Communication Strategies │         │
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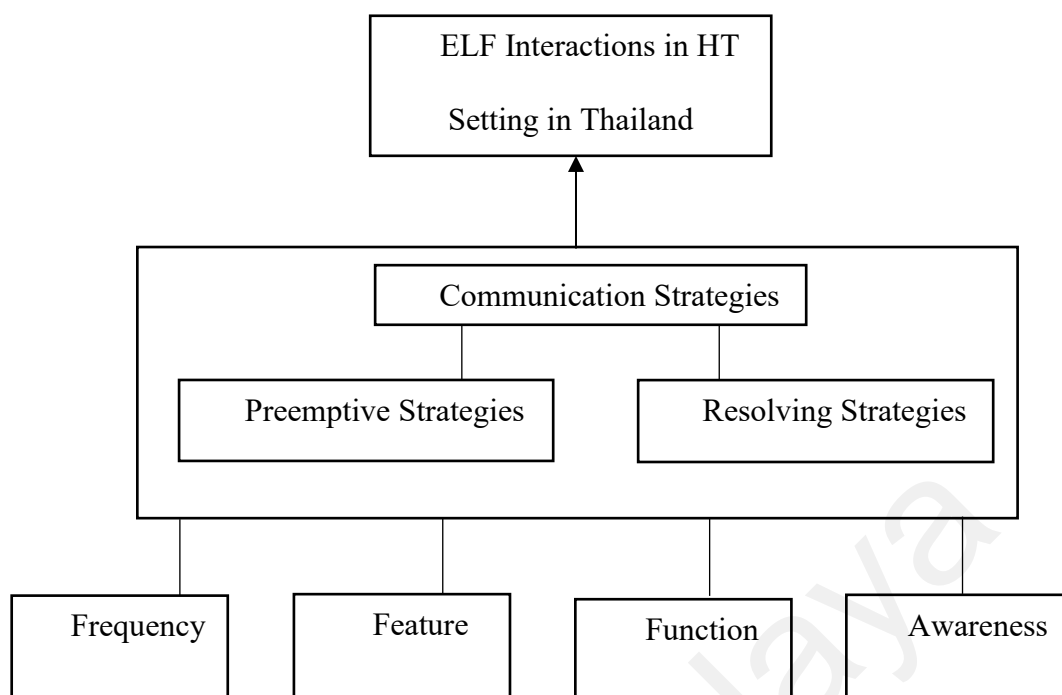
Figure 4.1: Research Conceptual Framework

4.3   Research Design

This research is interested in the CSs used in ELF HT interactions in Thailand. The frequency, use, impact, and level of CS awareness was examined in this research. To answer research question 1 (the frequency of use of CSs), each type of CS used was counted, then analyzed to obtain respective means and standard deviations using SPSS (version 25). To answer research questions 2 and 3 (the features of CS use and the impact of CSs), authentic conversations between ELF HT speakers were recorded and transcribed. The data were examined using conversation analytic procedures to describe how CSs were used in the interactions (research question 2) and the impact of using CSs on the effectiveness of communication (research question 3). Lastly, to answer research question 4, interviews were conducted, and the participants' answers to the interview questions were recorded and transcribed. The content of the interviews was analyzed using Thematic Analysis to uncover the participants' perspectives, knowledge, opinions, and awareness of CSs.

The research methodology was designed to obtain results which demonstrate the use of CSs, their impact on the effectiveness of communication, and the participants' awareness of CSs in the ELF HT setting. The results can be used to explain how ELF speakers in this setting use CSs to enhance intelligibility in conversations. Also, the results will provide valuable insight for developing the oral communication ability of ELF speakers in similar environments. The figure below presents a visual illustration of the study design.
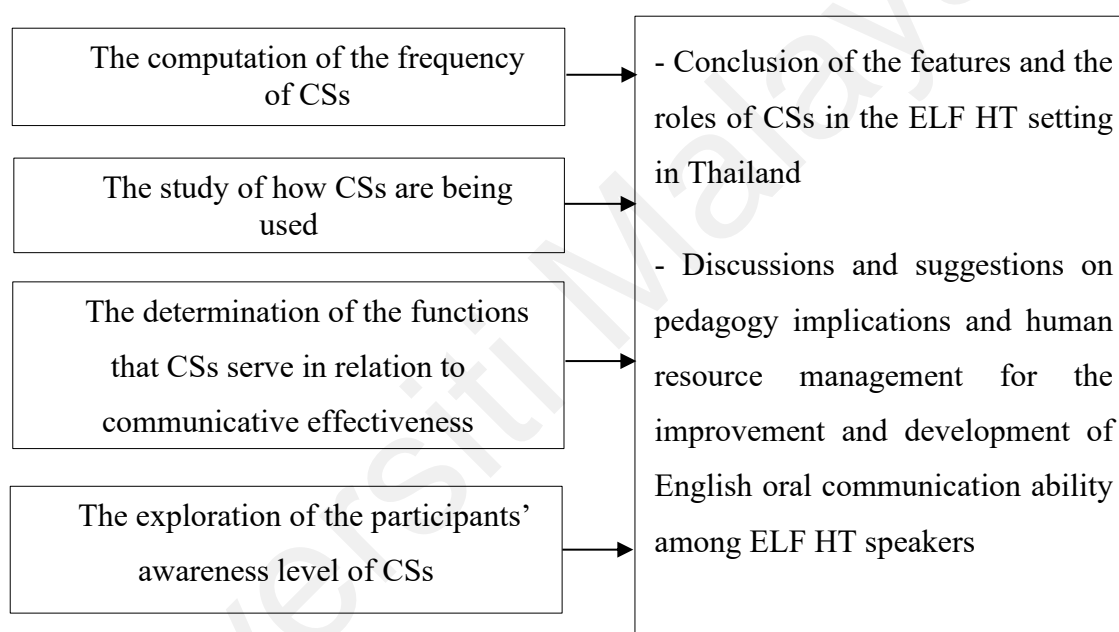
Figure 4.2: Visual Illustration of the Research Design

4.4 Research Procedure

This research began with the process of obtaining research materials. The interview questions and the tape recorder device were prepared before the process of data collection. Then, the researcher sent a permission-seeking letter and a summary of the research proposal to the hospitality and tourism companies to seek permission to collect data at their HT sites. After permission had been granted by the organizations, the researcher visited the HT sites to collect the data. This involved recording ELF conversations

between Thai employees and international tourists in addition to interviewing randomly selected participants about their awareness of CSs. After the data collection process, all the information was transcribed from the audio files into the written form. Finally, all data were analyzed according to each research question. The figure below shows the visual representation of the research procedure for this study.
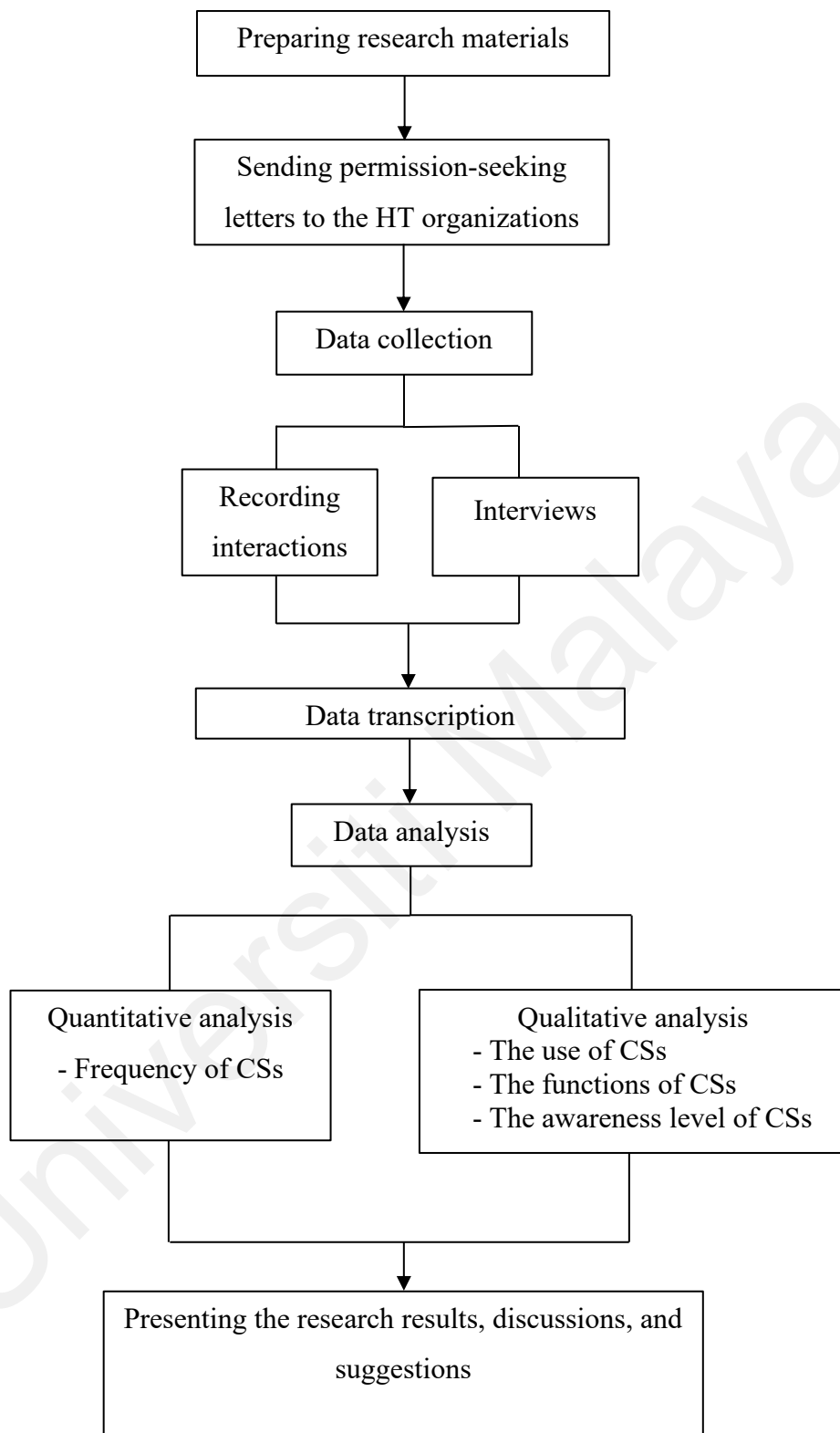
Figure 4.3: Visual Representation of the Research Procedure

4.4.1 Ethical Considerations

All processes in this research were subject to ethical considerations (Code of research ethics of the University of Malaya, 2023). Before collecting the data, letters (Thai version) to request permission were sent to the HT organizations: the airport, the tour service company, and the hotel (see appendix A). To the letters were attached brief details of the research methodology (Thai version) (see appendix B), the confirmation letter which confirmed that the researcher was a Ph.D. student who was engaged in data collecting (see appendix C), and the documents that verified the researcher's identity (i.e., identity card and student card). The data collection was carried out with the permission of the HT organizations. It started after the consent of the director of the airport, the owner of the tour company, and the manager of the hotel had been secured. The Thai front-desk staff at the three research sites were briefed about the project and their consent obtained to record their service encounters. During the data collection, the researcher abided by all restrictions and rules imposed by the organizations. For example, the researcher was not allowed to disturb the international tourists by asking them to fill in questionnaires, go behind the tour and airport information counters (allowed only to stand or sit in front of the counters), or interact with hotel guests if they had not yet finished their business with the receptionist (e.g., the process of checking in or checking out had to be completed before asking the guest for their nationality or permission to be interviewed). Although the researcher was not allowed to engage with the tourists until after service delivery, the tourists were aware that a recording of the interaction was being made as the recording device was placed conspicuously on the service counter. To avoid the feeling of being coerced, the collection of the interview data and eliciting the participants' nationality was done only with their consent. The participants who were not willing to participate in the interview or disclose their nationality were not forced to do so. Finally, to respect the privacy of the people and the organizations involved in the data collection process, the

anonymity and confidentiality of the participants, HT organizations, and brands and places mentioned in the recorded conversations were not disclosed in the writing process.

4.5 Research Setting

This research involved the investigation of the CSs used in the ELF hospitality and tourism context in Thailand. The data were collected at well-known tourist areas in Southern Thailand. This research chose to collect the data in the southern parts of Thailand because there are many tourism companies located in these areas, providing a multitude of diverse tourism services and activities, thus attracting numerous foreign tourists of various nationalities who speak different first languages. Taking into account the real elements of international travel and in order to make valuable suggestions and recommendations in the broader HT context in Thailand, the data collection for this research was carried out at three different sites, namely, an airport information counter, a tour service counter, and a hotel front office. The details of these three sites are further elaborated below.

4.5.1 Airport Information Counter

The first site of data collection was an information counter at an airport located in a southern province of Thailand. It served international outbound passengers in an international airport building. The information counter was manned by a few Thai employees who were responsible for providing information to international passengers, for example, flight details, flight check-in, and airport facilities (e.g., lost and found, wheelchair and Wi-Fi information, and information regarding restaurants, restrooms, smoking areas, VAT refunds, airport transfer services, and the duty-free zone).

4.5.2 Tour Service Counter

Data was also collected at a tour service counter located at the most attractive landmark of the Krabi province, Aonang beach. Only one Thai employee was stationed there daily

to sell tour programs and boat tickets to international tourists. The tour programs were mostly centred on ferrying tourists to the islands around Krabi or other attractive places in Krabi such as temples, caves, or emerald pools. The tour counter service also sold tour tickets to transport tourists from Aonang beach to other provinces such as Samui island and Phuket, as well as to the airport in Krabi and Phuket, respectively.

4.5.3   Hotel Front Office

The data on ELF hotel conversations was collected from a front office in a hotel near Nopparat Thara beach in the province of Krabi. Although the beach here is not as attractive as Aonang beach, the location is famous because it is an area full of night markets, Thai massage parlors, and restaurants specializing in seafood, Thai food, and other international food (especially Indian and Chinese food). A few Thai receptionists were posted at the front office of the hotel and were responsible for greeting and serving international guests, for instance, when they checked in and out of the hotel, enquired about the facilities of the hotel, or needed information about rooms, rates, and amenities nearby.

4.6   Research Instrument

To investigate the type and frequency of CSs used, how CSs were used, and the functions that CSs served in relation to communicative effectiveness (research questions 1 to 3), the instruments comprised tape recorders and conversation transcriptions. To explore the participants' awareness of CSs (research question 4), semi-structured interview questions were employed to collect interview data (see appendix D). The interview questions were formulated by the researcher and adopted the term 'CSs awareness' after Dörnyei (1995), Færch and Kasper (1993), and Natakani (2005).

4.7   Data Collection

The researcher collected data using a Sony recorder. The recorder was turned on and placed on the counters, close to the participants in conversation. The researcher usually stood or sat near the counters and noted the tourists' nationalities. The recording was stopped by the researcher after an hour before it was resumed an hour later. Thus, they became one-hour files that the researcher could transfer to a laptop before determining the number of conversations, the date and time of recording, and the length of each conversation. The one-hour recordings also facilitated the researcher in matching each conversation with the speaker's nationality. Finally, the researcher used a recording application on a Samsung cell phone to record the tourists' nationality and interview them about their awareness of CSs. The recording application was turned on before the question about their nationality and each interview. Then, it was stopped upon receipt of the response to the question on nationality or at the end of the interview. Therefore, the researcher created interview files for each interviewee and response files for each tourist concerning their nationality.

The data collection started in 2019. The data from the airport information counter was collected between the middle of May and the beginning of June 2019. Every single day over that period, the researcher went to the counter and collected the data during the busiest period of the day (1.00-8.00 p.m.), when there were numerous flight departures, to collect as much data as possible per day. The data from the tour service counter was collected in July 2019. As with the airport counter, the researcher arrived at the tour service counter routinely in the morning of the days concerned and sat there until noon because this was the period when numerous tourists came to buy boat tickets or tour programs to travel to the islands or beaches. The data from the hotel front office was collect in November, 2019. The researcher chose to sit at the hotel front office routinely from just before noon until the evening every day because that was the usual time for

guests to check out (around noon) and check in (afternoon until evening). In all the three sites, there were two parts to the data collection, which were recording the conversations and conducting the interviews. First of all, the naturally-occurring interactions between the Thai employees and foreign tourists who were non-native English speakers were recorded. Furthermore, international tourists' nationalities were noted. However, to avoid disturbing the international guests or tourists, the researcher was not allowed to collect data using a questionnaire. The information about the tourists' nationalities was collected, mostly, via the researcher's oral questions asking them directly where they were from, ascertaining the information from the Thai staff, or other means such as noticing their passports or unobtrusively eliciting background information during the course of the conversations. To ensure that they were valid ELF interactions, conversations between Thai staff and native speakers of English and conversations where tourists were not willing to disclose their nationalities were excluded from the dataset of this research. There were 15 hours of conversation recording (see also Björkman, 2014; Kaur, 2011b, 2012) which amounted to five hours per site.

It was found that most conversations in this context tended to be brief. The data recording of 15 hours of dialogue was made up of 1,346 conversations, which comprised 605 (45%) conversations from the information counter at the airport, 479 (36%) conversations from the tour service counter, and 262 (19%) conversations from the hotel front office. Conversations which could not be transcribed due to ambient noise were excluded from the data analysis. Although there were five hours of conversations recorded in each site, the nature and length of conversations in each place made a significant difference to the number of conversations per site. It was observed that most conversations from the information counter at the airport were shorter compared to the conversations from the other sites ($\bar{x}$ = 49 seconds per conversation). In contrast, most conversations from the hotel front office were longer ($\bar{x}$ = 87 seconds per conversation);

this was because of the nature of the conversations, which involved explanation of hotel facilities, etc. which took more time. Meanwhile, conversations at the tour counter service had a moderate length of time ($\bar{x} = 63$ seconds per conversation), presumably because conversations involving price and time negotiation and tour program selling or advertising took more time than those at the airport information counter.

Finally, 10 percent of Thai employees and international tourists were chosen randomly to participate in an interview. The researcher was the interviewer for this part of the data collection. To recruit 10 percent of the participants in the interview, the researcher randomly asked tourists to participate in an interview after every 10 recordings of the ELF conversations. Overall, 140 ELF speakers participated in researcher interviews (nine Thai employees and 131 foreign tourists). During the interview, the participants were asked questions to elicit answers describing how they deal with communicative problems or difficulties in ELF HT conversations, including their perspective about ways to overcome communicative problems and difficulties (see appendix D). The content of the data (the answers to the questions) indicates the participants' experience in dealing with communicative problems, and reveals their knowledge and awareness of CSs.

4.8   Research Participants

The participants in this research were ELF oral communicators in the hospitality and tourism sector in Thailand. The participants included HT employees, who were all Thais, and foreign tourists who were non-native English speakers and were in Thailand for tourism purposes. This research aimed to collect data from three different sites whose employees varied in terms of job scope, namely, the staff members at the information counter in an airport, desk staff in a travel agency, and receptionists in a hotel. At the airport information counter, the Thais were there as HT employees who were responsible for giving information to outbound passengers who were mostly non-native speakers of

English. At the tour counter, a Thai employee manned the counter by acting as a retailer of tour programs and tickets, mostly targeting non-native speakers of English who wanted to rent or hire boats to the islands around Krabi and other tourist locations. Finally, at the hotel front office, Thai employees functioned as receptionists who provided services to hotel guests.

The data from the three sites shows that there was a total of 1,446 ELF speakers who were from 39 countries around the world. There were 835 male and 610 female ELF speakers who participated in the data collection. The number of research participants, their gender, nationalities, and first languages are indicated below.

Table 4.1: The Number, Nationality, First Language, and Gender of the Research Participants

Item	Country	Nationality	First Language	Male	Female	Number
1	China	Chinese	Mandarin	209	145	**354**
2	France	French	French	103	89	**192**
3	India	Indian	Hindi/ Gujarati	140	39	**179**
4	Russia	Russian	Russian	53	61	**114**
5	Germany	German	German	53	11	**64**
6	Arab Emirates	Arab Emirates	Arabic	37	21	**58**
7	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	17	36	**53**
8	Norway	Norwegian	Norwegian	14	34	**48**
9	Italy	Italian	Italian	28	15	**43**
10	Sweden	Swedish	Swedish	18	24	**42**
11	Austria	Austrian	German	18	22	**40**
12	Singapore	Singaporean	Chinese	26	12	**38**
13	Canada	Canadian	French	17	20	**37**

Item	Country	Nationality	First Language	Male	Female	Number
14	Malaysia	Malaysian	Malay/ Chinese	19	15	**34**
15	Qatar	Qatar	Arabic	14	7	**21**
16	Denmark	Danish	Danish	14	2	**16**
17	Netherlands	Dutch	Dutch	6	9	**15**
18	South Korea	South Korean	Korean	13	1	**14**
19	Poland	Polish	Polish	2	8	**10**
20	Thailand (HT Staff)	Thai	Thai	2	7	**9**
21	Belgium	Belgian	Dutch/ French/ German	5	2	**7**
22	Finland	Finnish	Finnish	5	2	**7**
23	Japan	Japanese	Japanese	5	1	**6**
24	Hungary	Hungarian	Hungarian	1	5	**6**
25	Romania	Romanian	Romanian	1	4	**5**
26	Bulgaria	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	2	3	**5**
27	Ukraine	Ukrainian	Ukrainian	3	2	**5**
28	Vietnam	Vietnamese	Vietnamese	2	2	**4**
29	Philippines	Filipino	Filipino	1	3	**4**
30	Sir Lanka	Sir Lankan	Sinhala	1	2	**3**
31	Bangladesh	Bangladesh	Bengali	2	1	**3**
32	Nepal	Nepalese	Nepali	0	2	**2**
33	Turkey	Turkish	Turkish	1	1	**2**
34	South-Africa	South African	Afrikaans	1	0	**1**
35	Greece	Greek	Greek	0	1	**1**
36	Indonesia	Indonesian	Bahasa Indonesia	0	1	**1**
37	Egypt	Egyptian	Arabic	1	0	**1**
38	Portugal	Portuguese	Portuguese	1	0	**1**
39	Cambodia	Cambodian	Cambodian	1	0	**1**
Total				**836**	**610**	**1,446**

4.9   Data Transcription

To investigate what CSs were used and how each CS was employed in this context, the audio recordings were repeatedly listened to and transcribed into the written form using the transcription symbols developed by Gail Jefferson. This is the process of translating speech into language (ten Have, 1999) turn by turn in order to note the features and details of each conversation. The transcribed data shows the order and the sequences of talk, the length of each sequence, and other non-lexical items in the interactions such as laughter, overlapping, pause, time gap, intonation, and emphasis (see appendix E). The transcribed data helped the researcher to notice features of the talk, attend to detailed aspects of the talk (Liddicoat, 2011), replay the data conveniently, and take note of the situations in which ELF speakers used CSs in the HT conversations. Extracts from the transcribed data also allows the reader to observe how the CSs were used when the research results are presented and discussed. Also, the data from the ELF speaker interviews was transcribed into the written form. This was a preparatory step before the process of analyzing the ELF speakers' awareness of using CSs in the HT setting.

4.10   Data Analysis

This research adopts a mixed method approach. Both quantitative and qualitative data were examined in this research. First, this research used statistical methods to ascertain the frequency of use of CSs. This was done to determine which CSs were common, moderate, or rare in ELF HT settings. In addition, this research investigated the use, functions, and awareness of CSs using a conversation analysis approach and an ethnographic perspective. A detailed discussion of the research methodological approaches of this study is presented below.

4.10.1 Statistical Analysis

It is common for research which is focused on the frequency of use of CSs to adopt statistical methods of analysis (e.g., Demir et al, 2018; Nakatani, 2005; Rabab'ah, 2013; Zhao and Intaraprasert, 2013). Statistical analysis using IBM's SPSS program allows researchers to determine the frequency of use of CSs by indicating means ($\bar{x}$) and standard deviations (S.D.). The statistical information helps researchers to ascertain how frequently CSs were used by the participants, which CSs were in the high, moderate, or low categories of use, which CSs were preferred or little used by participants, the level of use of each CS in the setting, or the comparative use of CSs between or among the categories.

This research adopted statistical methods to answer research question 1. This approach helped the researcher to determine the means, standard deviations, and percentages of CSs used in ELF HT interactions. Björkman (2014) used sum (Σ) in her work to present total numbers of CSs used by ELF speakers in an academic context (p.134). However, adopting a statistical approach using SPSS provides for additional evidence about the frequency of use of CSs, not just the total number of CSs used. Adopting this approach allows the researcher to look at the average use and the dispersion of each CS. The statistical analysis also leads to empirical findings regarding how frequently each CS was chosen by the ELF HT speakers and how each CSs is distributed in the HT setting.

To analyse the frequency of CS use in conversations in this context (research question 1), the frequency of each CS strategy was counted and analyzed statistically using SPSS (version 25). The mean ($\bar{x}$) and standard deviation (S.D.) of each CS in both categories, namely preemptive strategies and resolving strategies, were calculated. While the $\bar{x}$ shows the average use of each CS, the standard deviation indicates the dispersion of use of each CS among the participants (i.e., how the use of each CS was distributed among the

participants). Applying statistical analysis, CSs which were popular and commonly used, as well as those CSs which were moderately and rarely used by ELF speakers in the ELF HT interactions, were determined.

4.10.2   Conversation Analysis

This research examined the use and functions of CSs using conversation analysis (CA) procedures. CA was developed in the fields of sociology and ethnomethodology, which focus on social structures of everyday activities and social interaction (Heritage, 1989; Liddicoat, 2007). Sacks et al. (1974) published a seminal paper about the organization of turn-taking in naturally-occurring conversations. They noted that interactants' organization of turns in conversation is a fundamental feature of speech-exchange systems. In the paper, they discussed aspects of turn organization during interaction such as turn overlapping, transition of turns, turn order, turn size, distribution of turns, turn allocation, and repair of turn-taking errors. Since the 1970s, analysis has focused on turn order, sequence of talk as applied to both formal and informal conversations such as interactions in institution settings (e.g., conversations in courtroom or classroom), human-computer interactions (HCIs), interview interactions, and the interactions of deficient speakers (Arminen, 1999). CA is a well-known qualitative research method which has been adopted to examine naturally-occurring conversations in various fields including conversations in health care settings (e.g., Maynard and Heritage, 2005; Robinson, 2014), online interactions (e.g., Belkaroui et al., 2014; Stommel, 2008;), and ELF conversations (e.g., Jaroensak, 2018; Kaur, 2011b and 2012; Van, 2015; Wagner and Firth, 1997).

CA can be defined simply as the study of talk in naturally-occurring interaction (Chalak and Karimi, 2017; Goodwin and Heritage,1990; Heritage; 1989; Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008; Liddicoat, 2007; Schegloff, 1991). CA does not focus on how people use language in semantic units, but more on how language is used to negotiate real-world

conversations. Liddicoat (2007) noted that "CA studies the organization and orderliness of social interaction" (p.5). From a CA perspective, talk-in-interaction is organized and ordered systematically by its interactants (Wooffitt, 2005), and such systems can be described and analyzed to understand some features of talk. For example, CA allows the procedures, production, competencies, and machinery of conversation to become visible.

CA analyzes conversation turn-by-turn (Albert, 2017; Arminen, 1999: Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008; Schegloff et al., 2002; Sack et al., 1974). It studies how turns and sequences of talk are organized among interactants. Therefore, the turn-taking system which includes turn transition, turn allocation, turn distribution, turn size, and turn construction units (TCUs) are concerns of conversation analysts. For example, CA analyzes how speakers organize and design exchanges in talk, distribute opportunities to talk, allocate turns of talk (current speaker chooses next speaker or next speaker self-selects to formulate a turn), recognize the completion of a turn and determine the appropriate moment to take the floor, and produce language to construct turns. Furthermore, Arminen (1999) noted that "CA is not to pre-determine irrelevant details of talk, but to find order in all points" (p. 253). CA captures every small detail in every turn and between turns including non-lexical items (e.g., *"er"*, *"erm"*, or *"ah"*), pauses, silences, overlaps, gaps between sequences, or laugher. In CA, such small details can perform delicate interactional tasks. For example, Liddicoat (2007) explained that the producing of *"mhm"* might indicate that an interactant is listening to a speaker and that *"uh"* or *"uhm"* might show his or her search for lexical items. Sacks et al. (1974) observed that the minimization of gaps and overlaps between turns might indicate interactors' localizing or addressing of problems. In conclusion, CA is not a method which examines conversations cursorily or focuses on only the general features of interaction, but rather one which examines conversations turn-by-turn in minute detail.

Coherence between turns is also a key feature of CA. Arminen (1999) asserted that "Essentially CA is about the organization of interaction, that is, about the syntactic, semantic, and prosodic qualities through which turns are designed, but also about the pragmatic connections through which turns are interlocked" (p. 253). This aspect is related to the concept of 'adjacency pairs' (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979), which are "paired utterances such that on production of the first part of the pair (e.g., question) the second part of the pair (answer) becomes conditionally relevant" (Seedhouse, 2005, p.167). Therefore, CA also focuses on the relevance or irrelevance of sequences and how turns are connected to each other. Focusing on the relationship between turns led to the use of the term 'sequential order', which has been defined as "describable ways in which turns are linked together into definite sequences" (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008, p.38) as well as the term 'next-turn proof procedure', which is "a reflective relationship between adjacent turns" (Arminen, 1999, p.252). In conversation, an interactant's answer, response, or reaction is evidence of the speaker's orientation to the prior turn (Arminen, 1999). For example, the content of a turn is partly directed and driven by the speaker's understanding of the prior speaker's turn; therefore, the content of the utterance can be used to determine whether or to what extent a speaker understands the interlocutor's utterance in the previous turn.

Another important feature of CA is the focus on 'mutual understanding' among interactants and the resolving of communicative problems in interaction (Filipi, 2014; Schegloff, 1991; Seedhouse, 2005). Schegloff (1991) referred to the notion of 'socially shared cognition', which in psychology refers to joint understanding between speaker and interlocutor during interaction. He termed the mutual understanding between interactants 'intersubjectivity'. He also explained the 'organization of repair' which is "an organization of practices of talk and other conduct by which participants deal with problems or troubles in speaking, hearing, or understanding the talk" (Schegloff, 1991,

p.157). He clarified that repair is used to address problems in conversation including the problem of lack of shared understanding (e.g., misunderstanding, mishearing, or non-understanding). In addition, he used the turn-by-turn structure and the sequential organization of talk to propose a type of repair which he called 'third position repair'. When a speaker conveys a message in a particular turn (first position) and the interlocutor's response in the next turn displays a problem of understanding (second position), the first speaker may then make a move to repair his or her earlier utterance to address the problem (third position). It is worth noting that the term 'third position repair' refers to the position in the sequence of turns in which the repair is performed. Schegloff's work (1991) is significant in that it has firmly linked CA with the study of speakers' mutual understanding, speakers' displays of understanding, and the practice of repair to address problems of mutual understanding in interaction.

A CA perspective was applied in this research (see also Jaroensak, 2018; Kaur, 2011b and 2012; Van, 2015; Wagner and Firth, 1997) to examine CS use and impact in ELF HT conversations. This study focused on CSs in naturally occurring conversations. The ELF HT interactions studied are made up of turns taken up by the international tourists and the Thai staff. In carrying out CA, the details of each sequence and in between turns in the ELF HT conversations were examined closely. This research focused not only on how language was used to produce CSs, but also on mutual understanding and meaning negotiation between the ELF HT speakers. Therefore, this research adopts the concepts of "intersubjectivity", "next turn proof procedure", and "coherence between turns" from CA. This research applied CA methods to analyze the co-construction of mutual understanding and the communicative problems of the ELF HT speakers. For example, the interlocutor's utterances in the next turns were used to determine the speakers' understanding, non-understanding, misunderstanding, mishearing, or partial understanding of an earlier speaker's utterance in the previous turn. Finally, this research

also concerns the resolving strategies or the "repair" methods used in ELF HT conversations. This research looked at how the participants repaired their communicative problems, especially those which occurred due to the ELF HT speakers' language competency and the difficulties of multicultural interaction.

To highlight how CSs were used and how they functioned to enhance communicative effectiveness, the recorded conversations were analyzed using CA (see also Firth, 1996; Jaroensak, 2018; Kaur, 2009, 2012; Van 2015). The analysis particularly emphasized the use of CSs in authentic ELF HT conversations. After transcribing the data, the use of CSs in the conversations was examined. All turns in the conversations were studied closely to determine the situation, participants, goals of talk, and types of services provided through the interactions. The adjacency pairs which showed the use of CSs and the responses were analyzed to answer research questions 2 and 3. The sections below present a more detailed account of how CA was applied to analyze the use and impact of CSs in ELF HT conversations in Thailand.

4.10.2.1 Conversation analysis to identify the use of CSs (research question 2)

CA was employed to identify how the participants used CSs in ELF conversations in Thailand. First of all, to describe how a preemptive strategy was used, sequences of talk which showed the use of repetition, reformulation, repair, explication, circumlocution, confirmation check, and comprehension check to prevent communicative problems in conversation were identified. In each sequence, the turns which showed the use of preemptive strategies were analyzed closely to determine the purpose of the CS's and examine how it was used. The language used to produce the preemptive strategies was also analyzed.

Second, CA was used to analyze the participants' use of resolving strategies. The sequences of talk which showed the use of self-repetition, self-reformulation, explication,

circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, use of all-purpose words, code-switching, literal translation, word-coinage, clarification request, and asking for repetition to resolve communicative problems were identified. The sequences which showed problems in conversation were analyzed to determine, for example, the source of the problem, and the speakers' actions to resolve the problem. More importantly, the turn which showed the use of the resolving strategy was analyzed in order to determine the purpose of the CS and to study how it was used. The language which was used to produce the resolving strategy was also analyzed.

4.10.2.2 Conversation analysis to identify the functions of CSs (research question 3)

Additionally, CA was adopted to analyze the functions that CSs served in relation to communicative effectiveness in the ELF HT context in Thailand. First of all, to analyze the functions of the preemptive strategies, sequences of talk which showed the use of preemptive strategies were focused on. Then, the turns which showed the use of preemptive strategies and the response to such use were analyzed. The main criterion used to determine the impact of the preemptive strategies was its effectiveness in directing the interlocutor's attention to the utterance, enhancing listener's understanding, smoothing the conversation, and avoiding communicative or HT problems. Analysis focused on how the use of each preemptive strategy affected the way that the speaker produced the utterance and language (e.g., the speaker's use of self-reformulation resulted in the simplification of the utterance, or the use of explication provided the details of information), how it enhanced the listener's understanding and decreased the possibility of problems in comprehension, how it increased the smooth flow of the conversation, and how it helped to avoid problems in communication including troubles in travelling or receiving services.

Second, CA was adopted to analyze the impact of resolving strategies. The main criterion used to determine the impact of resolving strategies on the effectiveness of the ELF HT conversations was their role in the conversation and in resolving a communicative problem. In the analysis, communicative problems in the conversations were identified, then the sequence which showed the use of the resolving strategy was examined closely. Analysis focused on how the use of a resolving strategy helped the speaker to overcome troubles in communication when communicating with an interlocutor from a different linguistic background who did not use English as a first language. For example, the analysis emphasized how a resolving strategy could resolve a speaker's problem in understanding his or her interlocutor's English accent, how it helped the speaker overcome his or her difficulty in producing an utterance to construct a turn of talk, or how it made a conversation which appeared likely to break down because of a communicative problem continue until the conversation goal was achieved. The effectiveness of the resolving strategy was evidenced when understanding was achieved by the other speaker, as shown in the next or subsequent turn. If intersubjectivity was achieved because the communicative problem was successfully resolved after the use of a resolving strategy, this research claims that the use of such a resolving strategy was effective.

4.10.3   Ethnographic Perspective

Another approach which is applied to this research is the ethnographic perspective. Ethnography is designed for the study of a naturally occurring situation, fact, or event in a particular setting through observations of or interviews with the participants in the setting (Atkinson et al., 2007; Atkinson and Pugsley, 2005; Nurani, 2008, Reeves et al., 2008). Jaroensak (2018) stated that "The ethnographic approach is designed to establish what people actually do in natural setting, so researchers spend their lives on the research sites and carry out research routinely" (p.93). When adopting an ethnographic approach,

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researchers involve themselves in the setting and play the role of observers or interviewers before interpreting the situation. The interpretation is commonly presented in the form of a description rather that an abstract result from a test, survey, or questionnaire (Nurani, 2008).

This research focused on naturally occurring ELF communication in a specific setting, that is, hospitality and tourism. Although this research is not fully representative of the ethnographic approach, an ethnographic perspective was adopted in the process of data collection and data analysis. After receiving permission from the HT sites, the researcher familiarized herself with the HT environment and was at the HT sites routinely. During the conversation recordings, not only the language and the interactions between the participants were of interest; the researcher also observed the natural situations (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983) to determine what was happening in the sites including the surrounding context (e.g., the activities which people conduct at the sites, the types and the details of the HT services performed, the motivation of tourists to approach the HT counters, and the surrounding places, attractions or services offered at the sites). This was to gain background knowledge about the research sites, improve understanding of the activities which occurred at the sites, and access more details for the purpose of data analysis (Jaroensak, 2018; Stacey and Eckert, 1999). This research also adopted an ethnographic approach to conducting interviews in this setting. This was a specific investigation of whether and to what extent people who were in the HT context were aware of the need to use CSs in ELF interactions. Likewise, the researcher involved herself in the HT setting and assumed the role of interviewer in the process of collecting interview data. Information about "the CSs awareness level of the participants" was gained from analysis of the ways people in HT settings answered the interview questions. The results of this research are used to formulate suggestions and recommendations, specifically for those who find themselves needing to communicate in ELF in this setting.

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4.10.4 Thematic Analysis

This research examined the participants' CSs awareness using Thematic Analysis (TA). TA is an analytic method which is used to approach qualitative data. It is rooted in the traditional Content Analysis (Joffe, 2012) and was originally used for research in psychology (Braun and Clarke, 2006). However, because of its accessibility and flexibility, nowadays TA is widely adopted in other fields and has become a well-known method for qualitative data analysis.

TA is normally applied to a set of texts, including interview transcriptions (Caulfield, 2019). Alhojailan (2012) stated that TA is appropriate for application in research which involves data interpretation (e.g., the interpretations of the participants' behaviors, actions, and thoughts in order to answer a research question), including research which applies the methods of coding and categorizing (i.e., coding the data and then categorizing the codes into themes or patterns of meaning). For example, it is commonly used to determine participants' views, opinions, knowledge, or experiences. Clark and Braun (2017) defined TA as "a method for identifying, analyzing, and interpreting patterns of meaning (themes) within qualitative data" (p.297). Vaismoradi (2013) defined 'theme' as "a coherent integration of the disparate pieces of data that constitute the findings" (p.402). Clark and Braun (2006) proposed the well-known six-step process for conducting TA which is presented in the table below.

Table 4.2: Steps of Thematic Analysis by Clark and Braun (2006, p.87)

Step	Phrase	Description of the Process
1	Familiarizing yourself with your data	"Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas."
2	Generating initial codes	"Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set,

Step	Phrase	Description of the Process
		collating data relevant to each code."
3	Searching for themes	"Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme."
4	Reviewing themes	"Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis."
5	Defining and naming themes	"Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme."
6	Producing the report	"The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis."

It can be seen from the table above that, to apply TA, the researcher has to code the text in the dataset before setting up the themes. The codes are "the smallest units of analysis that capture interesting features of the data (potentially) relevant to the research question" (Clark and Braun, 2017, p.297). The codes are then used to build themes, which are larger patterns of meaning. For example, a researcher might have twenty or thirty interesting codes in one dataset, but the codes can be finally categorized into just four or five themes relevant to a research question. The process of building themes (steps 3 to 5) involves the forming of a framework representing the result of the analysis which is subsequently used as evidence to answer a particular research question.

It has been proposed that thematic analysis is different from content analysis in terms of the opportunity to access quantification in the data (Vaismoradi, 2013). While content

analysis provides the researcher with the possibility to analyze the data in both qualitative and quantitative ways (e.g., determining the frequency of codes or themes), TA provides for purely qualitative analysis of the data. Vaismoradi (2013) stated that, to use TA, "the importance of a theme is not necessarily dependent on quantifiable measures, but rather on whether it captures something important in relation to the overall research question" (p.402-403). Furthermore, the dominant characteristic which distinguishes TA from other qualitative analytic methods is its flexibility (Alhojailan, 2012; Braun and Clarke, 2006 and 2012; Clarke and Braun, 2017; Joffe, 2012; Vaismoradi, 2013). TA is not a specific method available only for the analysis of a particular characteristic of the dataset. Rather, it is a flexible analytic method which can be applied across a range of theoretical frameworks, sample sizes, research questions, data collection methods and approaches to meaning generation. Furthermore, TA allows the researcher to determine themes independently in various ways. In addition, conducting TA can be independent from a pre-existing theoretical framework. It has been proposed that there are two ways to approach TA, inductive and deductive (Braun and Clarke, 2006, 2012; Vaismoradi, 2013). The inductive approach is a data-driven or bottom-up approach. In this approach, the codes and themes derive from the content of the data itself, not from the researcher's preexisting categories or ideas. This approach allows the researcher to code the text freely without trying to fit it to a particular theory. In contrast, the deductive approach is a theory-driven or top-down approach. In this approach, the data is linked to a particular concept, idea, or topic, and the codes and themes are driven by a preexisting theory which is relevant to the researcher's particular interest.

The participants' awareness of CSs was analysed using TA. Specifically, the six steps of TA proposed by Clark and Braun (2006) were adopted in this research in order to create a concrete framework which could be used to explain the participants' level of CS awareness and knowledge in this setting. This framework was used to analyze the

interview data in order to answer research question 4. This analytic method allowed the researcher to ascertain participants' CSs awareness level thematically. Each theme identified is valuable knowledge which can be applied to develop the CS knowledge, awareness, and communicative ability of ELF HT speakers. The outline below shows the steps laid out in TA which were adopted to analyze the participants' CS awareness.

Step 1: Familiarity with the data

The first step to analyze participants' CS awareness level was transcribing the interview data. In the interviews, participants related their experiences and perspectives in dealing with communicative problems. Next, the transcribed data were read and re-read to generate initial ideas which were noted.

Step 2: Generating initial codes

The contents of the data which reflected the participants' level of CSs awareness were coded. The table below provides examples of how the texts were coded.

Table 4.3: Examples of How Relevant Features in the Data Were Coded

No.	Data Extract	Code
1	Interviewer: *what did you do if the receptionist does not understand your message?* An Indian guest: *I think it easier to understand in the hotel or hospitality difficult at the counter…so they very broken…broken English so… I have to <u>say the key…the key the key terms again</u>…so it easier for them to understand*	- Being aware and knowing "key word repetition"
2	Interviewer: *what did you do if you don't understand the Thai staff?* A Spanish passenger: *I <u>ask them they can repeat</u> or <u>we leave</u>*	- Being aware and knowing "asking for repetition" - Thinking of topic avoidance

No.	Data Extract	Code
3	Interviewer: *what did you do if you cannot convey your message? like you cannot say to the staff what you want?* An Italian tourist: *if I can't say then I don't say…I don't do anything hahaha*	- Thinking of giving up on the HT goal

Step 3: Searching for themes

Next, all the codes were categorized into themes. Some codes were combined and formed larger patterns of meaning or themes. The table below shows examples of how this research used codes to build themes.

Table 4.4: Examples of How the Themes were Built

No.	Code	Theme
1	- being aware and knowing: 'asking for repetition', and 'appeal for help'	Being aware of CSs at a moderate level
2	- being aware and knowing: 'self-reformulation' but would give up if the use of self-reformulation is not successful - being aware and knowing: "asking for repetition" but unsure if the use of asking for repetition will work	Being aware of CSs at a low level
3	- thinking of message abandonment - thinking of topic avoidance	Being unaware of CSs (by considering reduction strategies)

Step 4: Reviewing themes

The categorization of codes was checked and re-checked to ensure that each code was relevant to the themes and that the themes were effective in answering the research question. After that, the framework which showed the final result of the analysis was created.

Step 5: Defining and naming themes

After the framework which showed the final analysis was successfully built, all the themes in the framework were named and defined.

Step 6: Producing the report

Finally, the results of the analysis, which shed light on participants' CS awareness, were discussed using excerpts from the data.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

THE FREQUENCY AND THE USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

This chapter is divided into two parts. The first section answers research question 1. The frequency of use of each CS, both in the preemptive and resolving categories, is statistically presented showing its mean ($\bar{x}$, which reflects its average use) and standard deviation (S.D., which reflects its level of dispersion). The comparisons between each CS, including CSs which are in the high, moderate, and low use groups, are discussed. The second section addresses research question 2, and analyzes how ELF speakers used CSs in HT conversations in Thailand. In this section, the practices and purposes of participants' use of each individual CS are discussed with relevant extracts from the data. The analysis firstly presents how the participants used preemptive strategies, which consist of repetition, reformulation, repair, explication, circumlocution, confirmation check, and comprehension check, to prevent communicative problems. Next, the analysis illustrates how the participants used resolving strategies, which comprise repetition, reformulation, repair, explication, circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, use of all-purpose words, code-switching, literal translation, word coinage, clarification request, and asking for repetition, to overcome communicative problems.

5.1   Result of Research Question 1

How frequently do ELF speakers use CSs in their interactions in the hospitality and tourism context in Thailand?

Overall, it appears that all the different types of CSs identified in the literature and listed in Table 3.8 were found in the data. However, the frequency of use of preemptive strategies and resolving strategies were noticeably different, as presented in the table below.

Table 5.1: Frequency of Use of Two Functional Categories of CS

Item	Types of Communication Strategies	Sum ($\sum$)	Mean ($\bar{x}$)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Percentage (%)
1	Preemptive strategies	1,540	1.1443	3.04778	68.63
2	Resolving strategies	704	0.5229	2.54938	31.37
Total		**2,244**	**1.6672**	**5.59716**	**100**

The sum and mean shows that the participants used preemptive strategies ($\sum = 1,540$, $\bar{x} = 1.1443$) more frequently than resolving strategies ($\sum = 704$, $\bar{x} = 0.5229$). The standard deviation also indicates that preemptive strategies (S.D. = 3.04778) had greater dispersion among the participants than the resolving strategies (S.D. = 2.54938). The statistics above clearly reflect the fact that most CSs in this context were used for the purpose of preventing possible problems in conversation, whereas the CSs which were used for resolving communicative problems were fewer. Finally, the standard deviation indicates that the use of preemptive strategies was more widely distributed among the participants compared to resolving strategies.

However, since the two categories of CSs were used for different purposes, it is unlikely that the higher use of preemptive strategies indicates the participants' preference for preemptive strategies rather than resolving strategies. Actually, it was noted from the data that the occurrence of communicative problems in this context was low. Therefore, it is highly likely that the low number of resolving strategies used related to the low

occurrence of problems in conversations. On the other hand, preemptive strategies, which can be used in any situation in talk, were often widely employed among the participants. In cases where some HT information required reinforcement (e.g., flight number, flight time, details of tour program, information for hotel check in or check out) for the service to be effectively completed, the participants commonly used preemptive strategies to ensure that the message was conveyed and received successfully in order to actively prevent any miscommunication from the outset. It is likely that the participants' efforts at preventing problems could enhance the smooth flow of conversations and result in the small number of communicative problems, leading to the low use of resolving strategies.

There is another reason that may explain the different levels of CSs dispersion. The analysis of the interaction data revealed that the conversations at the airport information counter rarely resulted in communicative problems, and this leads to the infrequent use of resolving strategies. This is possibly because the conversations were shorter, the information was routine and predictable, and the staff had higher language proficiency. On the other hand, the participants at the tour service counter and hotel front office encountered more communicative problems, which led to greater use of resolving strategies. The data revealed that the conversations at the tour service counter required more skilled negotiation but the ticket seller's language proficiency was clearly not very high; likewise the conversations at the hotel front office were much longer and sometimes needed more communicative skills in dealing with hotel guests (e.g., when resolving complaints, conducting price negotiations, or dealing with other unexpected situations). In short, the dispersion of preemptive strategies was higher than resolving strategies because the former were deployed in the absence of overt communicative problems and were frequently used by the participants at all three HT sites (namely, the airport, tour counter and hotel), while resolving strategies were dependent on the occurrence of communicative problems and were more apparent at the hotel and tour counters. Thus,

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given the reasons above, it is unsurprising that the use of resolving strategies had a lower dispersion which reflects their prevalence only in contexts where the speakers encountered increased problems in conversation.

The statistical analysis reveals different frequencies of use for each preemptive strategy. Although the overall statistics show that preemptive strategies were more frequently used than resolving strategies, not every preemptive strategy was used as frequently, as indicated in the table below.

Table 5.2: Frequency of Use of Preemptive Strategies

Item	Preemptive Strategies	Sum (∑)	Mean (x̄)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Percentage (%)
1	self-repetition	359	0.2667	0.73431	23.31
	other-repetition	801	0.5951	0.82360	52.01
	total	1,160	0.8618	1.55791	75.32
2	self-reformulation	27	0.0201	0.14026	1.76
	other-reformulation	20	0.0149	0.12103	1.30
	total	47	0.0350	0.26129	3.06
3	self-repair	27	0.0201	0.14546	1.75
4	explication	63	0.0468	0.32953	4.10
5	circumlocution	7	0.0052	0.08164	0.45
6	confirmation check	188	0.1397	0.41866	12.21
7	comprehension check	48	0.0357	0.25329	3.11
	Total	**1,540**	**1.1443**	**3.04778**	**100**

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The table shows that all 7 types of preemptive strategies were used by the participants. However, repetition had the highest frequency of use and the highest dispersion ($\sum$ = 1,160, $\bar{x}$ = 0.8618, S.D. = 1.55791). The second highest was confirmation check ($\sum$ = 188, $\bar{x}$ = 0.1397, S.D. = 0.41866). Compared to the number of repetitions and confirmation checks, the use of the other preemptive CSs was rather low. For instance, explication had the third highest frequency ($\sum$ = 63, $\bar{x}$ = 0.0468, S.D. = 0.32953) followed by the use of comprehension check ($\sum$ = 48, $\bar{x}$ = 0.0357, S.D. = 0.25329) and reformulation ($\sum$ = 47, $\bar{x}$ = 0.0350, S.D. = 0.26129), and preemptive self-repair was the second-least used preemptive strategy ($\sum$ = 27, $\bar{x}$ = 0.0201, S.D. = 14546). Finally, circumlocution ($\sum$ = 7, $\bar{x}$ = 0.0052, S.D. = 0.08164) had the lowest frequency of use and the lowest dispersion of all.

The statistics above reflect the participants' communicative practices in problem prevention. The use of other-repetition and confirmation check (the first and second-most highly used, respectively) indicates that the participants' action in checking their own comprehension was the most common strategy to prevent problems. Possibly to avoid HT problems or low-quality HT service, the participants regularly checked the accuracy of information to ensure that their comprehension would not give rise to any misunderstandings or misapprehensions. The higher use of self-repetition than self-reformulation, explication, and circumlocution clearly reflects that in order to enhance the listeners' understanding of their message and prevent any misunderstanding, most of the ELF speakers in this context preferred to repeat words or utterances rather than paraphrase, define, spell or describe. This is possibly because repetition is the easiest CS of all (Lichtkoppler, 2007). Producing an utterance that paraphrases, explicates, or describes requires more skilled use of language as opposed to simply repeating the same word or utterance. Another reason could be that the participants might believe that self-repetition is an effective tool in preventing difficulty in understanding different accents.

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The low frequency of self-repair indicates that it was rare for the participants to modify their utterance in order to preempt an understanding problem (repair and circumlocution were more frequently used to resolve the speakers' or listeners' communicative problems; refer to table 5.3). Finally, it cannot be assumed that the low-frequency of use of comprehension check indicates that participants gave little attention to their partners' comprehension. The much higher use of self-repetition compared to comprehension check might suggest that when the speakers are unsure whether their interlocutors understand their message or not, they tended to repeat their previous message to enhance their interlocutors' comprehension rather than use questions like *"do you understand?"*.

Although the use of resolving strategies was less frequent than the use of preemptive strategies, all CSs in this category were deployed. The table below shows how frequently resolving strategies were used by the participants.

Table 5.3: Frequency of Use of Resolving Strategies

Item	Resolving Strategies	Sum ($\sum$)	Mean ($\bar{x}$)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Percentage (%)
1	self-repetition to resolve listener's problems in comprehension	203	0.0238	0.15240	28.84
	self-repetition to gain time	14	0.0104	0.10149	1.99
	total	217	0.0342	0.25389	30.83
2	reformulation	25	0.0178	0.15321	3.56
3	self-repair	31	0.0230	0.15966	4.40
	other-repair	8	0.0059	0.07689	1.14
	total	39	0.0289	0.23655	5.54
4	explication	10	0.0074	0.08591	1.42

Item	Resolving Strategies	Sum (∑)	Mean (x̄)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Percentage (%)
5	circumlocution to resolve speaker's own lack of word	7	0.0052	0.04718	1.00
	circumlocution to resolve listener's non-comprehension	3	0.0022	0.07195	0.42
	total	10	0.0074	0.11913	1.42
6	approximation	29	0.0215	0.15987	4.12
7	appeal for help	9	0.0067	0.09019	1.28
8	use of all-purpose words	10	0.0074	0.11545	1.42
9	code-switching	38	0.0282	0.18277	5.39
10	literal translation	69	0.0513	0.25791	9.80
11	word coinage	2	0.0015	0.03853	0.28
12	clarification request	6	0.0045	0.06664	0.85
13	asking for repetition	240	0.1783	0.49773	34.09
Total		**704**	**0.3951**	**2.25788**	**100**

Overall, the frequency of use of resolving strategies was rather low compared to the use of preemptive strategies. The table above shows that asking for repetition has the highest frequency of use (∑ = 240, x̄ = 0.1783) and the highest level of dispersion (S.D. = 0.49773). This indicates that when wanting to address communicative problems in conversations, the strategy of asking interlocutors to repeat the previous message was the most common solution for ELF speakers in this context. This is possibly because most communicative problems relate to listeners not being able to understand or grasp the speakers' previous message well (e.g., due to the unfamiliar accent or low listening ability). Therefore, the practice of asking for repetition was commonly used. The second

most frequently-used resolving strategy was repetition ($\sum = 217$, x̄ $= 0.0342$, S.D. $= 0.25389$), followed by literal translation ($\sum = 69$, x̄ $= 0.0513$, S.D. $= 0.25791$). This indicates that it is rather habitual for ELF speakers in this context to repeat a word or utterance to resolve listeners' problems in comprehension and translate a word or expression from their first language into English when the English word or expression is unknown or cannot be retrieved. Resolving strategies that display moderate frequency of use include repair ($\sum = 39$, x̄ $= 0.0289$, S.D. $= 0.23655$), code-switching ($\sum = 38$, x̄ $= 0.0282$, S.D. $= 0.18277$), approximation ($\sum = 29$, x̄ $= 0.0215$, S.D. $= 0.15987$), and reformulation ($\sum = 25$, x̄ $= 0.0178$, S.D. $= 0.15321$). Resolving strategies with lower frequencies of use include circumlocution ($\sum = 10$, x̄ $= 0.0074$, S.D. $= 0.11913$), explication ($\sum = 10$, x̄ $= 0.0074$, S.D. $= 0.08591$), use of all-purpose words ($\sum = 10$, x̄ $= 0.0074$, S.D. $= 0.11545$), appeal for help ($\sum = 9$, x̄ $= 0.0067$, S.D. $= 0.09019$) and clarification request ($\sum = 6$, x̄ $= 0.0045$, S.D. $= 0.06664$). The least frequently used resolving strategy was word-coinage ($\sum = 2$, x̄ $= 0.0015$, S.D. $= 0.03853$).

The statistics above demonstrate that in contrast with the situation in academic settings (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 2010), it was very rare for ELF speakers in the HT context to create a new English word to address a communication problem. The statistics also indicate that when participants lacked a particular lexical item or encountered difficulty in conveying an intended word, most ELF speakers in this context tended to switch from English into their first language (code-switching), followed by the strategy of using a word that is close in meaning (approximation). Further, when a particular word was lacking, the data shows that the participants rarely employed general terms to convey their intended meaning (all-purpose words) or used additional words to describe the meaning of a thing or action (circumlocution).

When faced with listening or understanding problems, most participants tended to ask their interlocutor to repeat the previous word or utterance rather than appealing for assistance in a more general manner. For example, when they could not understand the message, they tended to say *"again please"* instead of *"I don't understand"*. Also, the much higher frequency of asking for repetition compared to clarification request might intimate that when the participants encountered ambiguity in conversation, they preferred to ask their interlocutors for a repetition rather than meaning clarification.

In addition, the statistics indicate that the use of repetition was the most common strategy to address listeners' comprehension problems, followed by reformulation, circumlocution and explication. respectively. These strategies were deployed as 'third position repair' (Schegloff, 1991) when the listeners could not understand the speakers' message, and appealed for assistance directly or indirectly. In this case, the speakers needed to employ CSs to resolve the listeners' understanding problem. The data revealed that the most commonly used strategy to address the listeners' problems in comprehension was to repeat the previous message; this was followed by the strategy of paraphrasing the previous word or utterance. The statistics suggest that the use of the strategy of describing things or actions and the strategy of explicating words or utterances to address the listeners' non-comprehension was rather low.

Finally, repetition, reformulation and explication were used more frequently as preemptive strategies than as resolving strategies. This indicates that such strategies were used before problems occurred in talk to avert miscommunication. Meanwhile, the statistics show that the use of circumlocution in this context was mostly directed at resolving communicative problems, while its use as a preemptive strategy was infrequent. It can be said that ELF speakers in this context described things or actions mostly as a way to address their own difficulty in retrieving suitable words in English or to resolve

their interlocutors' problems in comprehension rather than as a way to enhance the listeners' understanding before any indication of communicative problems. Incidentally, the frequencies of repair and circumlocution were similar since they were mainly employed to resolve communicative problems, rather than to preempt them. The statistics show that most repair in this context was used to correct the speaker's own language issues or difficulties in producing utterances, while repair to enhance message clarity and prevent problems in conversation was less frequent.

5.2 Result of Research Question 2

How do the participants use each CS in ELF interactions?

The data show that the participants used CSs in different ways and for different purposes. The discussion below considers how ELF speakers used each CS in HT interactions in Thailand.

5.2.1 The Use of Preemptive Strategies

The data analysis reveals that the use of preemptive strategies was very common among ELF speakers in the HT context in Thailand. To avoid tourism-related problems or bad HT experiences, the participants employed CSs to ensure that their listeners received their messages successfully and that their own understanding was not inaccurate. Although all preemptive strategies had the same purpose, which was to avoid possible communicative troubles, they were used in different ways. The following discussion illuminates how the participants used each preemptive strategy in ELF HT interactions.

5.2.1.1 Repetition

The use of preemptive repetition was commonplace in ELF HT interactions. The use of repetition here consisted of self-repetition and other-repetition (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). It was found that speakers repeated their own previous words or utterances to enhance the listeners' ability to grasp the meaning of utterances (Kaur, 2012;

Lichtkoppler, 2007) and avoid problems which were caused by difficulty in understanding different accents. Furthermore, the strategy was used to give prominence (Lichtkoppler, 2007) to important HT information, HT key word(s), or communicative goals. Finally, it was found that the participants used other-repetition in order to show their own comprehension to interlocutors (Lichtkoppler, 2007). In the next section, relevant data extracts are presented and discussed to illustrate the use of repetition as a preemptive strategy in this context.

(a) *Self-repetition*

The use of self-repetition was particularly common in the ELF HT interactions in this study. For example, it was found that key words or key HT information were habitually repeated by both the international tourists and the Thai staff. Participants gave prominence to the key word(s) of the message by repeating them, thereby ensuring that the message was received successfully (Lichtkoppler, 2007). Further, on account of the fact that their listeners might have limited language ability or might face difficulties in understanding different English accents (Deterding, 2013; Leyland, 2011; Pickering, 2006), the speakers deployed self-repetition to allow their listeners to receive the message twice (or more) in order to prevent listener problems in comprehension. Excerpt 1 shows the repetition of key HT information to enhance the tourist's understanding (see the codification of the excerpts in appendix E).

(1) TSC, NO. 300

1	French tourist (F):	*[a name of beach]*
2	Thai staff (F):	*how many people*
3	French tourist:	*four*
4	Thai staff:	*eight hundred go and back*
5	French tourist:	*what time*

6	Thai staff:	*no time (.) when eight people go (.) no time (.) eight*
7		*people leave (3.4) eight people (.) no time (.) eight people*
8	French tourist:	*eight people (.) okay*

This conversation occurred during the buying and selling of a boat ticket between a French tourist and a Thai staff. In the tourist's third turn, she asked the staff for information about the boat departure time (line 5). The staff answered the tourist by repeating the key information over and over in the next turn. She firstly repeated the key information twice: *"no time (.) when eight people go (.) no time (.) eight people leave* (line 6-7). However, when she did not receive an immediate response from the tourist, she continued the turn after a 3.4-second pause by repeating the key word of the HT information again *"eight people (.) no time (.) eight people"*. The repetition in the segment before the 3.4 pause was probably to give prominence to the key HT words and reduce the tourist's difficulty in understanding her Thai accent. The staff may have been concerned that the tourist might have limited language proficiency or might encounter some difficulty understanding the Thai accent, consequently, she repeated the utterance to make the key words clear and ensure that the HT information could be successfully received by the tourist. The repetition after the pause might have been due to the fact that the staff felt unsure whether the information had been understood by the tourist. It was possible that the tourist's silence was caused by her non-understanding of the utterance. Therefore, the key HT information was restated again to increase the tourist's ability to grasp its meaning.

The use of self-repetition was also common among the international tourists. For example, it was found that the key word or utterance related to the tourists' HT goals were often repeated. This was the way the tourists made their goal prominent. Also, this allowed the tourists to ensure that the Thai staff successfully received the message and

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could subsequently provide them with the target HT information without any incidence of mishearing, ambiguity, misunderstanding, or non-comprehension. Excerpt 2 shows the use of repetition to avert problems in comprehension by a passenger at the airport information counter.

(2) AIC, NO. 561

1	Russian passenger (M):	*do you know where i claim my* **tax** *(.)* **tax**
2	Thai staff (F):	*tax refund*
3	Russian passenger:	*yes*
4	Thai staff:	*in= er: after passport control*
5	Russian passenger:	*ah okay (.) thank you*

The except shows that the Russian passenger initiated his turn by asking the Thai staff for directions to a tax refund service counter. The key word repetition of *"tax"* occurred at the end of the turn following the full question and a micro pause. He ended his turn by recycling the key word, probably to underscore the subject of his query. Also, it was probably the passenger's intention to reduce the possibility of the Thai staff's non-comprehension (e.g., due to the staff's difficulty in understanding his Russian accent) and increase his chances of receiving the target information in the next turn.

(b) *Other-repetition*

The strategy of repeating others' words or utterances was very common in this context, especially among the international tourists. It is found that the tourists frequently repeated the (key) word or utterance related to the HT information which they had just received from Thai staff in the previous turn. This was not just about showing their attention to the conversation, but it was also the way the tourists displayed their comprehension and ensured the accuracy of the HT information received. The purpose of using other-repetition here was similar to the use of confirmation check. The participants employed

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this CS to allow their interlocutors to detect any misunderstanding or misinformation. In other words, the tourists used this CS to prevent the possibility of misunderstanding the HT information given. Excerpt 3 illustrates how other-repetition was used to display the understanding achieved by a hotel guest.

(3) HFO, NO. 47

1	Indian guest (M):	*is that indian restaurant near here?*
2	Thai staff (F):	*outside* {the hotel}
3	Indian guest:	***outside***
4	Thai staff:	*yes*
5	Indian guest:	*how far is that*
6	Thai staff:	*not (.) not far*
7	Indian guest:	***not far***
8	Thai staff:	*turn left*
9	Indian guest:	***left*** *(.) okay*

The conversation shows the use of other-repetition by the Indian guest. After the receptionist's first turn in which she indicated the location of the restaurant, the guest repeated the receptionist's word *"outside"* (line 3). Other-repetition was also used in the guest's subsequent turns. He repeated the receptionist's words "not far" (line 7) and "left" (line 9) after receiving the information about the distance of the restaurant and the direction of the restaurant, respectively. It can be seen that this repetition was not to make explicit or prominent the key word(s), unlike in the case of self-repetition in excerpts 1 and 2. The guest restated the information which he had just received from the staff in the previous utterance, possibly to memorize the important HT information and to display his understanding. This way of demonstrating comprehension was very common especially where the participants could not afford to misunderstand the HT information such as in

interactions at the airport information counter or in conversations pertaining to the location of a particular place. Since receiving accurate HT information was important, displaying understanding by repeating the staff's previous word or utterance was used by tourists to ensure that their comprehension matched the HT information provided.

5.2.1.2 Reformulation

Both self-reformulation and other-reformulation were used as a tool to preempt non-comprehension, ambiguity, and misunderstanding. Self-reformulation was used to simplify and enhance the clarity of the previous message. The participants employed other-reformulation to display comprehension and avert misunderstanding, as is evident in the excerpts below.

(a) Self-reformulation

It is apparent that the participants used self-reformulation to provide another form of the message, specifically by simplifying its form, to prevent the listener's non-comprehension. Excerpt 4 exemplifies the tourist's use of self-reformulation to preempt communicative problems.

(4) TCS, NO.352

1	Swedish tourist (F):	*how much ticket to [a name of beach]*
2	Thai staff (F):	*two hundred baht go and come back per person (.)*
3		*one?*
4	Swedish tourist:	*ah yeah (.) and **how frequently do they leave (.)***
5		***how often***
6	Thai staff:	*every eight people boat leave*

The excerpt shows the Swedish tourist's use of self-reformulation to simplify the form of her question. In the tourist's second turn of talk, she asked the staff for information

about the frequency of the boat departure saying, *"how frequently do they leave"* (line 4). After a short pause, she reformulated the earlier question into *"how often"* (line 5). With the reformulation, the lexical item was changed to a simpler one which might be easier for the listener to understand. It seems that this self-reformulation was to avoid the possibility of non-understanding by the Thai staff of the word *"frequently"*, thereby providing the staff the chance to listen to a different formulation of the question and increase her ability to understand the question.

(b) Other-reformulation

The purpose of the use of preemptive other-reformulation was similar to the use of other-repetition above. It was found that speakers used other-reformulation to show their understanding, with the expectation that their interlocutor will tell them if their comprehension was wrong, or that the interlocutor would address the misunderstanding if the message they received was misconstrued. The reformulated message might be (totally) different in form from the interlocutors' previous one, but still maintaining its meaning. Excerpt 5 demonstrates the use of other-reformulation by a Chinese guest in a hotel front office.

(5) HFO, NO.61

1	Chinese guest (M):	*the last taxi boat er: [a name of island]*
2	Thai Staff (M):	*because it's quite distance (.) i am not sure about*
3		*the time*
4	Chinese guest:	*okay (.) **because it is like far away***
5	Thai Staff:	*far (.) very faraway*

The excerpt shows the Chinese guest displaying his comprehension by reformulating the Thai receptionist's previous utterance. In the first turn of the Thai staff (lines 2-3), he explained the reason why he was not sure about the timetable of the boat departure saying,

"because it quite distance". He chose to use the word *"distance"* possibly to show his language ability. The guest responded to the receptionist in the next turn by reformulating the utterance using the term *"far away"*. The word *"like"* in the guest's utterance might indicate that he was unfamiliar with the receptionist's previous word, *"distance",* and thus unsure of its meaning. Therefore, the guest showed his candidate understanding by using the simpler word *"far away"* (line 4). The use of other-reformulation here was possibly to display comprehension and ensure that his understanding matched the HT information provided by the staff in the previous turn.

5.2.1.3 Self-repair

The data revealed that participants sometimes repaired their own utterances to develop the meaning of the message, improve its clarity, or enhance the interlocutors' comprehension (Mauranen, 2006; Kaur, 2011b). The preemptive repairs found in this context involved replacing particular language item(s) with more appropriate lexical item(s) and inserting omitted word(s) (Kaur, 2011b).

Specifically, the participants repaired their own utterance by replacing unclear segment(s), unspecific lexical item(s), or inappropriate word choices with clearer, more relevant, more meaningful, more specific, or perhaps more easily understood items. The participants were ELF speakers, and English was not their mother tongue. Sometimes the lexical item or utterance initially produced might not have been the most appropriate one, or might not have conveyed the meaning intended by the speaker (although it might convey part of the message). This led to participants reproducing prior utterances by replacing such segments with more appropriate language item(s) to improve meaning or clarity, as seen in excerpt 6:

(6) AIC, NO.555

1   Austrian passenger (M):   *i go [destination]*

2	Thai staff (F):	*er: [name of airline 1]*
3	Austrian passenger:	*[name of airline 2] er: [name of airline 2]*
4	Thai staff:	*[name of airline 2]*
5	Austrian passenger:	*what counter*
6	Thai staff:	***i am looking (.) i am searching***
7	Austrian passenger:	*that's alright (.) okay*

The excerpt shows the repair of a lexical item used by the Thai staff. In the Austrian passenger's third turn, he asked the Thai staff for information of his flight check-in counter (line 5). In the next turn, the Thai staff produced an utterance stating that she was in the process of checking. In her turn, she initially said *"I am looking"*, but subsequently reformulated the utterance after a micropause as *"I am searching"* to provide a more accurate word related to the task being performed. It seems likely that the self-repair here was caused by the staff's realization that the word *"looking"* was not the most meaningful language item. She subsequently replaced that word with *"searching"* in the repaired segment to prevent possible confusion or non-comprehension on the part of the passenger.

Another preemptive self-repair found in this context was the insertion repair (Kaur, 2011b). This involves adding a lexical item or phrase (which had been omitted in the preceding segment of talk) to a repaired segment to improve the message clarity or to narrow down the meaning of the message. Excerpt 7 illustrates the use of insertion self-repair to provide a clearer message by a Thai staff in her interaction with an Austrian passenger.

(7) AIC, NO.346

1 2	Austrian passenger (F):	*hello (.) where is this airline (.) we need bag to check in*
3	Thai staff (F):	*you need to: (.) if you check in with the counter (.)*

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4		*you need to wait until eight forty*
5	Austrian passenger:	*ah:*
6	Thai staff:	*if you want to load the bag (.) you need to wait*
7		*eight forty also because it's **no machine (.) no***
8		***automatic machine***
9	Austrian passenger:	*so i need to wait down here*

The first and second turns show that the guest came to the airport much earlier than the flight check-in time. In the Thai staff's second turn (line 6), she told the Austrian passenger to wait to check in the baggage at the airline counter and explained that the baggage checking service was not yet available. In her turn, the staff repaired the utterance *"no machine"* by inserting the word *"automatic"* in the repaired segment (lines 7-8). The repair of the utterance *"no machine"* into *"no automatic machine"* was probably done not just to amplify how the machine works, but also to emphasize and enhance the passenger's understanding of the fact that she had to wait in order to load her baggage *"manually"* with a staff at the check-in counter because there was no machine which could check in her baggage *"automatically"* before the check-in time.

5.2.1.4 Explication

Participants explicated the meaning of a word or utterance by providing the word's definition or an example (the CS 'spell out the word' was only used as a resolving strategy to address non-understood words). The purpose of using this preemptive strategy was to simplify or clarify a previously-used word or utterance segment and enhance the listeners' understanding. Excerpts 8 and 9 provide examples of the use of explication as a preemptive strategy in this context.

Firstly, it was observed that the participants immediately defined a word they had used in the previous utterance to explicate its meaning and forestall listener non-

comprehension. Below is an example of the use of definition as a preemptive strategy by a participant.

(8) HFO, NO.14

1	Chinese guest (M):	*do you have er: transfer airport service*

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8	Thai staff (F):	*okay (.) in hotel for me we have for by **van for private (.)***
9		***for private** total six hundred baht (.) **not join not***
10		***somebody else** (.) **just you two person** six hundred*
11		*baht*

The excerpt above shows explication using definition as a preemptive strategy by the Thai staff. In the Thai staff's turn (line 8), she informed the Chinese guest about the vehicle used for airport transfer and the type of transfer service saying, *"van for private (.) for private"*. After indicating the cost of the service and pausing briefly, she defined the word *"private"* as *"not join not somebody else (.) just you two person"*. The transcript indicates that the explication was provided without any sign of the guest's non-comprehension of the word *"private"*. The staff may have explicated the meaning of the word in this context in order to clarify its meaning and enhance the guest's understanding before any miscommunication occurred.

In other cases, to avoid non-understanding, participants sometimes explicated a word or utterance by giving the listeners example(s), as in the instance below.

(9) TSC, NO.464

1	French tourist (F):	*when time to come back*
2	Thai staff (F):	*any time come back before six p.m.*

3	French tourist:	***frequency? the boat go every ten minutes? three***
		minutes?
4	Thai staff:	*eight people*
5	French tourist:	*every eight people* (.) *thank you*

The excerpt shows the use of explication by giving examples. In the French tourist's second turn, she posed a question to the Thai staff asking for information about the frequency of boat departures. After the question, she immediately gave the Thai staff some possible answers to the question saying, *"the boat go every ten minutes? three minutes?"* (line 3). This is probably because the tourist intended to avoid the staff's non-understanding of the previous question. Therefore, she chose to explicate the meaning of the question by giving examples of possible answers to simplify the meaning of the question and enhance the staff's understanding.

5.2.1.5   Circumlocution

Participants sometimes used this strategy to describe characteristic(s) of things to forestall the incidence of non-understanding. The use of circumlocution as a preemptive strategy by a participant is presented below:

(10) TSC, NO.65

1	Japanese tourist (M):	*it is speed boat or=*
2	Thai staff (F):	*=ferryboat (.)* ***big boat big boat*** *(.) ferryboat*
3	Japanese tourist:	*ah: (.) one hour (.) two?*
4	Thai staff:	*two hours*

In turn 1, the Japanese tourist sought clarification from the Thai staff about the type of boat he was going to take. In the next turn, the staff named the type of boat (*"ferry boat"*), and described the size of the boat by repeating it twice after a short pause saying, *"big*

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boat big boat"; she then repeated the type of boat again following another short pause. It seems that the Thai staff described the size of the boat to illustrate the meaning of *"ferry boat"* and to prevent difficulties of understanding which could be caused by the Japanese tourist's limited vocabulary. In order to facilitate the tourist's understanding and ensure successful receipt of the HT information, the staff used this CS to allow the tourist to visualize the kind of boat he was going to travel on.

5.2.1.6 Confirmation check

This CS, which is intended to seek for confirmation of comprehension, was very common among ELF speakers in this context. The CS was used by speakers to ensure they had not misunderstood (Mauranen, 2006; Björkman, 2014) and to provide interlocutors with an opportunity to render assistance to overcome such problems if they had. It was the norm for international tourists to seek confirmation of whether their understanding of the information they had just received from the staff was accurate. Question forms used for confirmation checking in this context included the use of *"do you mean"* or *"you mean",* the use of tag questions after a word or utterance such as the use of *"right?"*, *"correct?"*, or *"yeah?"*, and the use of words or utterances with questioning intonation, such as in the examples below.

(11) HFO, NO.41

1	Thai staff (M):	*and bicycle (.) you can borrow at the day time at the*
2		*brown counter over there (.) and of cause (.) we have*
3		*exercise room*
4	Indian guest (M):	***you're meaning fitness?***
5	Thai staff:	*yes*

The conversation occurred during the description of hotel facilities by a Thai receptionist to an Indian guest. In turn 1, the Thai staff explained how to rent a hotel

bicycle and informed the guest that an *"exercise room"* was available in the hotel. In the next turn, the guest asked the receptionist to confirm his understanding by saying, *"you're meaning fitness?"*. The use of the confirmation check by the guest might have been caused by his unfamiliarity with the Thai staff's word-choice *"exercise room"*. He might have been unsure whether he had understood the HT information accurately, so he used a confirmation check to verify that his grasp of the term was accurate.

Confirmation check using tag questions such as *"right?"*, *"correct?"*, or *"yeah?"* were the most commonly used form among participants, compared to the use of *"you mean"* or *"do you mean"* and the use of word(s) with questioning intonation. The instance below shows the use of a confirmation check using a tag question.

(12) HFO, NO.178

1	Thai staff (F):	*okay (.) you enjoy the meeting room first (.) from after*
2		*twelve we have coffee break include for you*
3	Indian guest (M):	**you said you have coffee (.) correct?**
4	Thai staff:	*yes (.) after twelve o'clock in the meeting room normally*
5		*we have coffee break*

The conversation occurred at the end of the Indian guest's checking in process. In turn 1, the Thai staff asked the guest to wait in the meeting room and informed him that coffee would be available in the room. In the next turn, the guest asked the receptionist for confirmation by saying, "you said you have coffee (.) correct?" (line 3). The guest may have employed the confirmation check due to being unfamiliar with the staff's Thai accent, or he may have been unsure of the meaning of "include for you" in the staff's previous turn (line 2). It seems that the guest understood the Thai staff's utterance but felt the need to confirm it. The use of this CS was to check that his interpretation of the HT information he had just received from the staff (that the hotel provides free coffee) was

not a misunderstanding. The use of confirmation check using words with questioning intonation is evident in the next example:

(13) AIC, NO.111

1	German passenger (F):	*hi (.) i need to pay for my taxi (.) but i don't have*
2		*change (.) where can i get change?*
3	Thai staff (F):	***money exchange?***
4	German passenger:	*yes*
5	Thai staff:	*there* {near the information counter}

In turn 1, the German passenger expressed her need for information about the location of a money exchange counter. Instead of informing the passenger of the location of the counter, the Thai staff produced a confirmation check in the next turn saying, *"money exchange"* with a rising intonation. It can be seen that the passenger's utterance in the first turn explained the situation instead of directly asking for the location of the counter (e.g., *"where is the money exchange?"*). It seems that the staff may have had to interpret the passenger's communicative goal from the passenger's indirect request for information. Therefore, she chose to check to ensure that her interpretation was accurate.

5.2.1.7 Comprehension check

The participants in this context checked their interlocutors' comprehension mostly by using direct question forms, such as the use of *"do you understand?"*, *"you get it?"*, or *"understand?"*. Also, questions such as "are you okay?" or "okay?" to check on comprehension were noted as in the following excerpts:

(14) HFO, NO.129

| 1 | Thai staff (F): | *so: very important we have for safety box (.) safety box (.)* |
| 2 | | *you can keep passport keep money in safety box (2.4)* |

3		*you understand?*
4	Indian guest (M):	*yes*

In turn 1, the Thai receptionist explained the availability of a safety deposit box as a hotel facility to an Indian guest. However, the receptionist did not receive an immediate response from the Indian guest after she had finished informing the guest, so she continued the turn to check the comprehension of the guest after a 2.4 second pause. It is possible that the 2.4-second silence made the staff unsure of whether the guest had understood the message or not. Therefore, she checked the guest's comprehension directly by saying, *"you understand?"*. The use of the CS by the staff was to ensure that her conversation goal (to inform about the deposit box in the hotel room) had been successfully achieved. Another instance of comprehension check use is apparent in the following extract:

(15) TSC, NO.214

1	Thai staff (F):	*you come back same boat same number boat*
2	Chinese tourist (F):	*er:*
3	Thai staff:	*okay?* *when you come back from [a name of beach] beach*
4		*(.) you can come back same boat*
5	Chinese tourist:	*okay*

In turn 1, the Thai staff informed the Chinese tourist about how to take the boat back from a beach. The tourist responded to the Thai staff's utterance by using the non-lexical item *"er"* with a prolongation in the next turn. This might have led the staff to doubt that the tourist had understood her utterance, so she checked the tourist's comprehension by saying *"okay"* with raising intonation before repeating the information in the next turn. The comprehension check was used to ensure that the tourist understood the utterance and would not face a common tourism-related difficulty because of non-comprehension

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(i.e., the tourist might miss the boat and be left behind on the beach if she did not understand the message). The use of comprehension check here indicates the staff's awareness of the tourist's possible lack of understanding and her desire to facilitate the effortless achievement of the tourist's HT goal.

It can be concluded that participants in this context commonly used preemptive strategies to prevent communicative problems, via various means and for varied purposes. The table below presents a summary of how and why each preemptive strategy was used in this context.

Table 5.4: Use of Preemptive Strategies in Hospitality and Tourism Interactions in Thailand

Item	Preemptive Strategy	Description of Use	Purpose
1	self-repetition	the speaker repeats the whole of his or her previous utterance, key word(s) from the utterance, important HT information, or HT key word(s)	- to enhance the clarity of the message - to underscore prominent word(s), information or the goal of the talk - to prevent non-comprehension or mishearing on the part of the listener
	other-repetition	the speaker repeats the interlocutor's word(s) or utterance	- to display and check the accuracy of his or her own understanding - to prevent his or her own misunderstanding
2	self-reformulation	the speaker paraphrases his or her previous utterance or word(s)	- to reduce the possibility of non-understanding - to simplify the meaning of the previous utterance

Item	Preemptive Strategy	Description of Use	Purpose
			- to enhance the clarity of the message - to prevent non-comprehension or ambiguity on the part of the listener
	other-reformulation	the speaker paraphrases the interlocutor's previous utterance or word(s)	- to display and check the accuracy of his or her own understanding - to prevent his or her own misunderstanding
3	self-repair	the speaker replaces a particular segment with another more suitable one	- to develop or narrow down the meaning of the message - to improve the clarity of the message - to enhance the listener's understanding
		the speaker inserts missing lexical item(s) in the repaired utterance	- to prevent non-comprehension or ambiguity on the part of the listener
4	explication	the speaker defines a particular word or utterance which he or she has used in the previous message	- to clarify the meaning of a word or utterance - to enhance the listener' understanding

Item	Preemptive Strategy	Description of Use	Purpose
		the speaker gives example(s) illustrating the meaning of a previously used-word or utterance	- to prevent non-comprehension on the part of the listener
5	circumlocution	the speaker describes the characteristic(s) of a thing or action	- to enhance the listener's understanding - to prevent non-comprehension or ambiguity on the part of the listener
6	confirmation check	the speaker asks the interlocutor for comprehension-confirmation by: - using the questions "*do you mean…?*" or "*you mean…*" - using tag questions such as "*right?*", "*correct?*", *or* "*yeah?*" - using word(s) with questioning intonation	- to display and check the accuracy of his or her own comprehension - to prevent his or her own misunderstanding
7	comprehension check	the speaker checks whether the listener understands the message by: - using questions such as "*do you understand?*", "*understand?*", or "*you get it?*" - using "*are you okay?*" or "*okay?*"	- to check and ensure the listener's understanding - to bring to light any concealed non-comprehension on the part of the listener

In summary, the data indicates that authentic HT conversations between NNS in this context do not follow the typical English patterns found in English textbooks. Rather, these ELF interactions are full of CSs which are used by language users to prevent possible communicative troubles. Additional illustrations of how the participants used preemptive strategies are seen in the following excerpt.

(16) HFO, NO.93

1	Thai staff (F):	*er: you book reservation for pool exist right? (.) you can*
2		*use the pool twenty-four hour (3.2)* ***you understand for***
3		***this? you book reservation with pool exist right?***
4	Indian guest (M):	*ah:* ***closed swimming?***
5	Thai staff:	*yes closed swimming pool*

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40	Thai staff:	*and very important we have for safety box (.)* ***safety box (.)***
41		***you can keep passport keep money in safety box (3.5) for***
42		***safety locker (.) you save for er passport for money (.) for***
43		***passport you can save inside***
44	Indian guest:	*ah: now i know it*

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56	Thai staff:	*and we have fitness room (.)* ***you can exercise for the gym***
57		*(.) fourth floor*
58	Indian guest:	***fourth floor***

The extract above shows that both the Thai receptionist and the Indian guest deployed more than one preemptive strategy to ensure other- and self-comprehension. In the first turn, the receptionist asked the Indian guest to confirm his room type and explained the privilege of staying in the *"pool exist"* room. When the receptionist did not receive an immediate answer from the guest, she checked the guest's understanding by asking *"you understand for this?"* after a pause of 3.2 seconds (lines 2-3) before restating the earlier question. The comprehension check in her turn might have been used because of the 3.2-second silence from the guest which might have suggested his non-understanding. The comprehension check functioned as a tool to check whether the question and the information had successfully been received. The recycling of the previous question allowed the guest to rehear the question and enhanced his ability to grasp its meaning. The next turn shows that the guest seemed unsure about the meaning of the words *"pool exist"*. He requested a comprehension confirmation from the Thai staff saying *"closed swimming"* with rising intonation (line 4). This use of comprehension check was probably to prevent nonunderstanding of the meaning of the words *"pool exist"* as used by the staff in this context.

In lines 40-42, the receptionist informed the guest regarding the existence of a safety box in the hotel room. Preemptive self-reformulation and explication were used in this turn. First, the receptionist explained the use of the safety box saying *"you can keep passport keep money in safety box"* to clarify the meaning of "safety box". The 3.5-second pause which followed might have suggested the guest's non-understanding of the utterance. Therefore, the receptionist deployed another preemptive strategy, self-reformulation, to convey the meaning. She reformulated the lexical term as *"safety locker"* to reduce the possibility of non-comprehension which could occur due to the guest's lack of familiarity with the term *"safety box"*. Before ending her turn, the

receptionist restated the usefulness of the safety box to ensure that the guest could grasp the meaning of her utterance (lines 42-43).

Line 56 shows the receptionist explaining about the hotel fitness room and her use of preemptive explication and self-reformulation. First, the receptionist clarified what the *"fitness room"* is used for (line 56). Then, she reformulated the lexical items into a more commonly used term *"the gym"* (line 56) to enhance the guest's understanding and prevent non-comprehension. She then informed the guest of the location of the gym after a short pause. In the next turn, the guest repeated the receptionist's words from the previous turn saying *"fourth floor"*. This other-repetition was probably to display his understanding and prevent HT misinformation.

The excerpt below demonstrates further use of preemptive strategies by the participants.

(17) HFO, NO.66

1	Thai staff (M):	*you book the room type deluxe right?* **deluxe**
2	Indian guest (M):	*yes*
3	Thai staff:	*and er in the hotel right now (.) we don't have deluxe room*
4		**i: i: (.) i make this higher for you (.) upgrade room for**
5		**you** *(.) okay?*
6	Indian guest:	**not deluxe room?**
7	Thai staff:	*yes (.)* **i upgrade room for higher higher (.) this room i**
8		**upgrade (.) this's good more than old one**
9	Indian guest:	*okay*
10	Thai staff:	*according with your booking (.) you stay with us two night*

11		*include breakfast (.) the breakfast will be served seven to*
12		*twelve*
13	Indian guest:	***you mean meal***
14	Thai staff:	*meal yes (.) i mean meal (.) seven to twelve at the restaurant*
15		*room*

The extract above reveals the use of preemptive strategies to enhance message clarity and ensure both self- and other-comprehension. In the receptionist's first turn, he asked the Indian guest to confirm the room type. Before ending his turn, he repeated the key word of the question, *"deluxe"* (line 1). The use of self-repetition was probably to give prominence to the key word and make explicit the important segment of the preceding utterance. After the guest's confirmation of the room type, the staff tried to inform the guest in the next turn that that type of room was unavailable at that moment and the guest was going to be given an upgraded room. The use of preemptive self-repair is obvious in this turn. The receptionist initially conveyed the message by providing a description of the action, *"make this (the room type) higher"*, before repairing this segment by providing a more accurate verb, *"upgrade"* (line 4). The self-repair was to enhance the clarity of the utterance and facilitate the guest's understanding. The receptionist ended his turn by asking a short yes-no question, *"okay?"*. The question may have been intended to ask for the guest's agreement to the ungraded room or to check the guest's understanding. The next turn by the guest shows that he was not sure about the meaning of the receptionist's previous utterance as he checked his understanding by asking the staff to confirm that it was *"not deluxe room?"* (line 6). This is to ensure that he had not misunderstood the information which had been provided by the staff in the previous turn. In the next turn (lines 7-8), the receptionist answered the guest and repeated the information he had given in his first turn, *"i upgrade room for higher higher (.) this room i upgrade"*, to confirm

the guest's understanding. After that, he used preemptive circumlocution by describing the characteristic of the room, *"this's good more than old one"* (line 8), to illustrate to the guest that the room he was going to stay in was better than the previously assigned one and to avoid possible communicative problems in case the guest did not understand the word *"upgrade"*. Another confirmation check was also produced in the guest's subsequent turn (line 13). In the turn before the confirmation check (lines 10-12), the receptionist informed the guest about the breakfast service in the hotel. The guest's response in the next turn shows that he was probably uncertain about the meaning of the word *"breakfast"* or that he had only just understood the message after a delay due to the unfamiliar accent. Therefore, he used the confirmation check *"you mean meal"* to ensure HT information accuracy in his own comprehension and thus preempt any misunderstanding in the conversation.

5.2.2 The Use of Resolving Strategies

The data indicate that most communicative problems in the ELF HT conversations analyzed in this study were overcome by the use of resolving strategies. When the participants faced difficulties in conversation (e.g., due to their limited language ability or different language accent/use), it was rare for the conversation to break down. Instead, participants employed CSs to maintain the conversation, achieve conversational goals, and address potential communication problems. For example, they used asking for repetition, clarification request, and appeal for help strategies to resolve their own non-understanding or uncertainty; they employed code switching, word coinage, approximation, and all-purpose words to overcome their limited vocabulary; they performed message repair to resolve language issues or incomprehensible messages; and they used reformulation, repetition, explication, and circumlocution to resolve their listeners' non-comprehension of a word or utterance. The following sections describe and explain how each resolving strategy was used by the participants in this context.

5.2.2.1 Self-repetition

It appears that the use of repetition to resolve communicative difficulties was not as frequent as compared to the use of preemptive repetition. However, self-repetition was used as a CS to resolve non-understanding, correct misunderstanding, and gain time to produce a word or utterance. Repetition was used to resolve non-understanding of an utterance by interlocutors. Following a signal of non-comprehension from their listener, speakers repeated the whole message or key word(s) (twice or more) to allow the listeners to rehear the message, enhance the interlocutor's ability to grasp the meaning, and resolve non-comprehension. Excerpt 18 shows the use of repetition to resolve an interlocutor's non-understanding of a message.

(18) HFO, NO.191

1	Thai staff (F):	*er: excuse me er: the house keeper said that the spoon (.)*
2		*teaspoon is losing*
3	Chinese guest (F)	*ah?*
4	Thai staff :	***teaspoon teaspoon (.) a teaspoon lost (.) a teaspoon lost***
5		***in your room***
6	Chinese guest:	*tea spoon*
7	Thai staff:	*tea spoon (.) yeah*

The conversation occurred when the Chinese guest was checking out. In turn 1, the Thai receptionist informed the Chinese guest about the lost item in the hotel room. The guest displayed non-understanding in the next turn, as indicated by her use of *"ah?"* (line 3). In turn 4, the receptionist re-informed the guest about the lost item by repeating the key words. She initially repeated the key words of the earlier utterance, *"tea spoon"*, and restated the key information, *"a teaspoon lost"*, twice after a short pause. The use of self-repetition in this situation might appear similar to preemptive self-repetition in terms of

a desire to enhance the prominence of the key words, but there is a difference. While preemptive self-repetition plays a role in preventing possible problems in comprehension, repetition may also be employed to resolve communicative problems. In the conversation above, the self-repetition to increase the prominence of the key words was used after the display of non-comprehension by the guest. The receptionist repeated the key information over and over to provide the guest with the chance to grasp the information and resolve her understanding issue.

The data also indicate that the participants used repetition to address interlocutor misunderstanding. After observing misunderstanding on the part of an interlocutor in a previous turn, participants repeated the utterance or key words from the problematic message twice or more in order to allow interlocutors to listen to the utterance again and improve their understanding of what was said. In other words, in some cases repetition is used to make the listener aware that their initial understanding was wrong. This is evident in excerpt 19, which shows the use of repetition to resolve an interlocutor's misunderstanding:

(19) HFO, NO.237

1	Indian guest (M):	*do you have a normal water (.) water to have medicine*
2	Thai staff (F):	*medicine right? you can go outside*
3	Indian guest:	***water water (.) no i want water***
4	Thai staff:	*er: if you want to=*
5	Indian guest:	*=normal water (.) to just one glass*
6	Thai staff:	*no have (.) sorry*

Turn 1 shows that the Indian guest came to the hotel front office to ask for a glass of water. The Thai receptionist's misunderstanding of the situation is seen in the next turn. She asked the guest for comprehension-confirmation saying *"medicine right?"* before

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providing the direction to a drugstore (line 2). It seems that the staff may have thought that the final word "*medicine*" from the guest's previous utterance was the key word and had the most relevance to the guest's inquiry. The receptionist's misunderstanding meant that her response was not relevant. In the third turn, the guest tried to resolve the receptionist's misunderstanding by repeating the key word of his previous utterance over and over, "*water water (.) no i want water*". The self-repetition might have explicated the meaning of the inquiry, allowing the receptionist to re-evaluate the accuracy of her initial interpretation, resolve the misunderstanding, and fulfill the goal of the talk (the guest's request for a glass of water).

Finally, repetition was used in some cases as a strategy to gain time to search for the appropriate lexical item or to formulate an English utterance. In this case, the use of repetition was caused by the participants' difficulty in producing the utterance. They chose to repeat the preceding word while attempting to formulate the utterance rather than to pause, possibly because they wanted to hold the floor. The use of repetition to gain time by a participant is demonstrated in the excerpt that follows:

(20) TSC, NO.123

1	French tourist (F):	*do you know **when: when: (.) when the storm to start***
2	Thai staff (F):	*no*
3	French tourist:	*you don't know*

The except shows that the French tourist initiated the conversation to ask the Thai staff about the weather. In her initial turn, the word "*when*" was repeated thrice, and in the first two times, it was pronounced with prolongation. It can be seen that this use of self-repetition was not to make explicit a key word or to preempt communicative troubles in conversation. Rather, it seems that during the first two iterations of the word "*when*", the tourist was attempting to retrieve the appropriate word, "*storm*", to convey her meaning.

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5.2.2.2 Self-reformulation

Self-reformulation was used to resolve communicative problems in this context. When interlocutors did not understand the message, the speaker reformulated the problematic word or utterance (usually to a more easily understood word or phrase, but maintaining the meaning of the message) to make the meaning clear and resolve the non-understanding. Excerpt 21 examines the use of reformulation to resolve communicative problems by a participant.

(21) AIC, NO.120

1	Chinese passenger (M):	*where is a /p/ath room (.) /p/ath room*
2	Thai staff (F):	*sorry?*
3	Chinese passenger:	***/p/ath room (.) toilet***
4	Thai staff:	*toilet er: over there.*

In turn 1, the Chinese passenger asked the Thai staff for directions to a toilet. In the utterance, he pronounced an English word uniquely, possibly affected by his mother tongue and identity (Jenkins, 2000). The letter *"b"* which is pronounced as the voiced *"/b/"* was instead pronounced as the voiceless *"/p/"* by the passenger. Although the key word *"bath room"* was uttered twice to increase its prominence in turn 1, a comprehension problem was displayed in the next turn by the Thai staff (indicated by the use of the CS 'asking for repetition' in the form of *"sorry?"*). The problem occurred probably because the Thai staff could not understand the unusual pronunciation of the word by the passenger. In the passenger's second turn, he repeated the key words of his previous utterance, *"bath room",* and subsequently reformulated the lexical items into *"toilet"* after a short pause (line 3). The self-reformulation was probably to allow the staff to grasp the meaning of his inquiry, using a simpler synonym of the lexical items, and resolve the problem of non-comprehension.

5.2.2.3 Repair

Both self- and other-repair were used to resolve communicative problems. The participants employed self-repair after producing false starts, for example, when the speakers encountered a language difficulty and repeated the preceding word over and over. Furthermore, self-repair was used when the speakers initially produced an incomprehensible utterance and then moved to modify the problematic segment. Finally, self-repair was used to address prior language anomalies (Kaur, 2011b). Other-repair was used as a tool to resolve interlocutors' difficulty in producing utterances and enhance the flow of the conversation. The extracts below demonstrate the use of repair as a resolving strategy in this context.

(a) Self-repair

Self-repair was used as a tool to address speakers' previous troublesome utterance. When participants faced difficulty in forming their intended utterances and were initially unable to produce an understandable message, they managed to resolve the problem by reproducing the message with some form of repair performed. The next example shows the use of repair after a false start by an Arab Emirates passenger at an airport information counter.

(22) AIC, NO.7

1	Arab Emirates passenger (M):	***where is the res er: res er: room (1.0) i***
2		***mean the room restaurant***
3	Thai staff (F):	*inside the immigration*
4	Arab Emirates passenger:	*only inside (.) outside no*

In turn 1, the passenger expressed obvious difficulty in producing the desired word at the beginning of the utterance. He repeated a syllable of the target word *"res"* followed by a prolonged *"er"* which indicates his trouble in forming or maybe pronouncing the

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rest of the word. The problematic segment (*"res er: res er: room"* in line 1) did not convey a clear meaning related to his goal of talk. Therefore, he subsequently modified the utterance to convey a more understandable message to the staff, *"I mean the restaurant room"*. This example exemplifies how the participant repaired his utterance to resolve the prior trouble-marked utterance.

Second, the participants used self-repair to resolve language issues in previous utterances. When speakers realized that they had mispronounced a word or produced an unsuitable lexical item in their previous utterance, they repaired it by replacing the problematic segment with the appropriate word(s). The following is an excerpt from a conversation between a Chinese tourist and a Thai staff at a tour service counter:

(23) TSC, NO.150

1	Chinese tourist (M):	***what (.) what (1.2) how long is it before the boat***
2		***leave***
3	Thai staff (F):	*where you go*
4	Chinese tourist:	*where I go er: [a name of beach] (.) [the name of*
5		*beach] beach*
6	Thai staff:	*[the name of beach] beach no time table (.) any*
7		*boat*

In turn 1, the Chinese tourist asked the staff for an approximate departure time. At the beginning of the utterance, he initially produced *"what"* twice to initiate the question. The unrelated question word was initially used possibly because it was the most familiar question word for him. Then after realizing its unsuitability to the intended meaning, he immediately repaired the initial question word by replacing it with *"how long"*, which was more appropriate in the context of his inquiry.

(b) Other-repair

The participants at times repaired their interlocutors' message to provide a more suitable word or utterance. This was assistance given by speakers to overcome the interlocutors' difficulty, enhance the flow of conversation, and provide a clearer message. When their interlocutors faced communicative problems such as difficulty in forming an utterance, using overly broad or narrow lexical item(s), or inappropriate word-choice, the speakers reproduced that utterance for their interlocutors with the more suitable item(s) and steered the conversation smoothly towards its objective. This use of other-repair to address the interlocutor's communicative difficulty and smoothen the conversation is evident in the following exchange at a tour counter.

(24) TSC, NO.115

1	Swedish tourist (M):	*[a name of beach] (.) four*
2	Thai staff (F):	*eight hundred baht go and back*
3	Swedish tourist:	*er: only only single er:=*
4	Thai staff:	***=one way***
5	Swedish tourist:	*one way only*

The Swedish tourist initiated turn 1 to inform the Thai staff about his target destination and the number of the tickets he wanted to buy. In the second turn, the staff informed the tourist of the total price and mentioned that the tickets were round-trip tickets. In the next turn, the tourist produced *"only only single"* with the prolonged *"er"* (line 3) which displayed his difficulty in informing the Thai staff that he only wanted a one-way ticket. It can be seen in the utterance that although the tourist initially conveyed an understandable meaning, it displayed various speech perturbations. Therefore, the staff immediately took the floor to repair the tourist's problematic utterance by providing the

more suitable items *"one way"*. This was to help the tourist overcome the difficulty and enhance the conversation flow.

5.2.2.4 Explication

After perceiving a problem in comprehension on the part of interlocutors, some participants clarified the meaning of the word or utterance by giving the definition, spelling out the word, or giving example(s). The excerpt below shows the use of resolving explication by giving a definition.

(25) HOF, NO.49

1	Russian guest (M):	*what about attractions*
2	Thai staff (F):	*pardon me?*
3	Russian guest:	***attractions (.) places to visit nearby***
4	Thai staff:	*em: in krabi area (.) yeah: (.) we have beach (.)*
5		*temple (.) cave (.) you can take a bus or car*

In turn 1, the tourist asked the Thai receptionist for information about nearby attractions. The receptionist displayed her non-understanding of the guest's utterance in the next turn, as indicated by her use of the CS asking for repetition in the form of *"pardon me?"* (line 2). In the next turn, the guest resolved the staff's non-comprehension by repeating the key word of the earlier utterance, *"attractions",* and defining it as *"places to visit nearby"* (line 3). This definition was probably to explicate the meaning of "*attractions"* and help the receptionist grasp the meaning of the problematic question.

Participants also explicated problematic words by spelling them out. The excerpt below demonstrates the use of explication by the use of spelling in this context.

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(26) HFO, NO.173

1	Chinese guest (F):	*hello er: please er: clean the ⌈room*
2	Thai staff (F):	⌊*yes*
3	Chinese guest:	*[room number]*
4	Thai staff:	*[room number]*
5	Chinese guest:	*and put some food and water*
6	Thai staff:	*some food and water*
7	Chinese guest:	*yes*
8	Thai staff:	*okay [room number] you want (1.0) you want to*
9		*put the drink*
10	Chinese guest:	*clean*
11	Thai staff:	*ah?*
12	Chinese guest:	**c-l-e-a-n**
13	Thai staff:	*c-l?*
14	Chinese guest:	**c-l-e-a-n (.) clean**
15	Thai staff:	*clean (.) oh (.) clean the room (.) clean the room*
16		*right?*
17	Chinese guest:	*yes*

The conversation occurred when the Chinese guest asked the Thai staff for the services of cleaning the room and refilling the minibar items. The guest expressed her conversation goals in her first and third turn (for cleaning the room in line 1 and for refilling minibar items in line 5). In the Thai receptionist's fourth turn, she summarized the information which she had received from the guest (line 8-9). However, the summary shows that the receptionist had missed some information from the guest' first turn of talk which was to ask for the cleaning service. In response, the guest repeated the word *"clean"* in the next turn (line 10) to ensure the receptionist included this service. However, the use of *"ah?"*

by the receptionist in the next turn displayed her continuing non-understanding of the word *"clean"*. This might be because the receptionist had difficulty in understanding the guest's Chinese accent. The guest chose to spell out the word to resolve the receptionist's non-understanding in the next turn (line 12) and repeated the spelling again (line 14) after the staff showed listening problems (the use of *"c-l?"* in line 13) to facilitate comprehension.

Finally, another solution to fix the problems of non-comprehension or ambiguity used by the participants in this study was to give the listeners examples to increase clarity, such as in the following excerpt:

(27) TSC, NO.59

1	Chinese tourist (F):	*er: [name of beach]*
2	Thai staff (F):	*how many people*
3	Chinese tourist:	*er: five and one child*
4	Thai staff:	*how old your child*
5	Chinese tourist:	*ah?*
6	Thai staff:	*how old your child (.) how old your child (3.6) how*
7		*old to your child (.) **three year two year five year***
8		*(.) your child how old*
9	Chinese guest:	*five year old*
10	Thai staff:	*same price same price (.) together six people*

The conversation occurred during an interaction involving buying and selling boat tickets to a beach. In turn 3, the Chinese tourist informed the staff of the number of tickets she wanted, and included a ticket for a child (line 3). In the next turn, the Thai staff asked for the age of the child. But the guest expressed non-understanding of the staff's question in the next turn and asked the staff to repeat the question through her use of *"ah?"* (line

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5). The non-comprehension was possibly because the guest did not understand the English function of asking for someone's age, or she may have had difficulty understanding the staff's Thai accent. In the next turn, the staff initially attempted to resolve the problem by repeating the question twice (line 6). However, the 3.6 seconds nonresponse from the tourist indicates that the problem was not yet resolved after the repetition. After the 3.6 second pause, the staff repeated the question and tried to make meaning clearer by giving examples of possible answers (line 7) to enable the tourist to grasp the meaning of the question.

5.2.2.5 Circumlocution

Circumlocution is a CS used to resolve problems caused by participants' limited vocabulary. Participants used this strategy to describe a thing or action both to address the interlocutors' non-comprehension and to resolve their own lack of knowledge of lexical items. The excerpts below depict the use of circumlocution as a resolving strategy in this context.

Participants used circumlocution due to their inability to produce an English word. Therefore, they tried to convey the meaning of the word by describing it. The following excerpt shows the use of CS to describe an object by a participant.

(28) AIC, NO.604

1	Chinese passenger (M):	*i want to ask er: do you know **a fruit (.) it smells**
2		***stinky** ah:*
3	Thai staff (M):	*ah: durian*
4	Chinese passenger:	*ah yes er:*
5	Thai staff:	***that have a needle** right?*
6	Chinese passenger:	*yeah (.) we have this package to our er: luggage*
7		*with us (.) er: that for er: (.) we have for er:*

8	Thai staff:	*the dry one not the whole fruit right?*
9	Chinese passenger:	*er: is that okay? not the whole fruit.*
10	Thai staff:	*dry is okay (.) no fresh*
11	Chinese passenger:	*dry is okay in the baggage*

This excerpt demonstrates how the CS of circumlocution was used to convey a characteristic of a particular fruit. The context of the conversation was that the Chinese passenger was unsure whether a package of food made from durian was allowed in the plane, and therefore he came to check with the Thai staff at an information counter. The first turn of talk shows that the passenger did not know how to name the fruit *"durian"* in English. To overcome his limited vocabulary, he chose to describe the most dominant characteristic of the fruit, namely, its smell, to convey the meaning. The use of circumlocution is also apparent in the staff's second turn where he describes the fruit's appearance, *"needle"* (a synonym of *"spike"*), to verify his understanding.

In addition, when a particular verb was unknown, the participants described the action (sometime with its completement). The excerpt below shows the use of circumlocution which describes an action and its completement to resolve a Chinese tourist's limited vocabulary.

(29) TSC, NO.230

1	Chinese tourist (F):	*we are only six people but can we **pay (to) buy for***
2		***the whole boat only us***
3	Thai staff (F):	*only you (.) go and back [a name of beach]?*
4	Chinese tourist:	*six people*
5	Thai staff:	*yes*

This excerpt shows the description of action with its completement by a Chinese tourist. In turn 1, the Chinese tourist produced an utterance indicating she wanted to *"rent a private boat"*. Probably due to her limited vocabulary, the tourist did not use the words *"rent"* or *"private boat"*. Instead, to express her conversation goal, the tourist chose to describe the action using the verbs *"pay (to) buy"* (instead of *"rent"*) and the object of the verb *"the whole boat only us"* (instead of *"private boat"*).

Circumlocution was also used as a tool to address the interlocutor's non-comprehension. When speakers perceived their interlocutors' non-understanding of a particular word, they described characteristics of objects or actions to help the interlocutor understand the word. A case in point is the use of circumlocution to resolve the interlocutor's non-understanding of a word, as follows:

(30) TSC, NO.357

1	Swedish tourist (F):	*do you know anyone who does that* {airport
2		transfer} *in krabi town*
3	Thai staff (F):	*krabi town (.) may be your private taxi*
4	Swedish tourist:	*okay* ⌈ *thank you*
5	Thai staff:	⌊ *or shuttle bus*
6	Swedish tourist:	*shared bike?*
7	Thai staff:	*shuttle bus (.) shuttle bus*
8	Swedish tourist:	*/tʃʌt-bʌt/?*
9	Thai staff:	**big bus**
10	Swedish tourist:	*oh (.) where the bus is*
11	Thai staff:	*em: (.) about (.) around (.) near near the [a name*
12		*of department store]*

The conversation occurred when a Swedish tourist sought information about the airport transfer service at a tour information counter. In the Thai staff's second turn, she recommended an available airport transfer service, *"shuttle bus"*, to the tourist. In the next turn, the tourist asked the staff to confirm her understanding saying *"shared bike"* with rising intonation. The conformation check revealed the tourist's mishearing and misunderstanding, the staff initially tried to resolve the problem in the next turn by repeating the words twice (line 7). However, the response of the tourist in the next turn, which shows an unusual pronunciation of the word *"/tʃʌt-bʌt/?"*, seemed to indicate continuing non-understanding on the part of the tourist. In response, the staff chose to describe the size of the bus in the next turn to help the tourist understand the meaning of the word (line 9).

5.2.2.6 Approximation

The use of a word that approximates the intended word in meaning was another CS used by participants to resolve the problem of limited vocabulary. Given their restricted vocabulary, the participants used an approximate word to convey the intended message and achieve the goal of the conversation, as show in the instance of approximation below:

(31) TSC, NO.167

1	Chinese tourist (F):	*the: (.) the rain is so **big** (.) we can see so very **big***
2		*(.) is: this safe? (1.0) you can sure?*
3	Thai staff (F):	*but now you can go*
4	Chinese tourist:	*we can go okay*

The Chinese tourist took a turn to ask the Thai staff for information about safety when taking a boat during a heavy storm (line 1). In the utterance, she used the approximated word *"big"* to describe the intensity of the rain. As the standard word *"heavy"* was perhaps unknown, to get the message across, the tourist attempted to convey the meaning

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using a known word, "big", which had a meaning close to her intended meaning. Another excerpt also captures the use of an approximated verb by a participant:

(32) AIC, NO.168

1	Arab passenger (M):	*hello it is possible to **stay** luggage er in er airport*
2		*because we want to go outside it is=*
3	Thai staff (F):	*=ah you want to leave luggage right?*
4	Arab passenger:	*um um*
5	Thai staff:	*down stair on the first floor*

The Arab passenger came to the information counter to ask for information about depositing some luggage. In the first turn, the passenger used an approximated word *"stay"* to convey the action of *"deposit"* the baggage. The use of approximation might have been due to the passenger's lack of knowledge of words which are normally used to convey the action such as *"deposit"*, *"leave"*, or *"keep"*. It is possible that the passenger thought about the action of retaining the luggage somewhere temporarily in the airport and produced the word *"stay"* to convey the meaning. This clearly is a choice example of a participant using a word that approximated the intended word in meaning to convey the message despite restricted vocabulary knowledge.

5.2.2.7 Appeal for help

The participants used appeal for help to resolve problems of non-comprehension. This CS is used to express non-understanding and seek assistance from interlocutors. Both direct and indirect appeal for help (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997) were observed in the data. The direct appeal for help found in this context involved the use of direct questions such as *"What is it?"*. The indirect appeal for help involved the use of expressions of non-understanding such as the use of *"I don't understand"* or *"I don't get it"*.

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The direct appeal for help was used when listeners did not understand the speakers'
previously used word or utterance and asked the speakers directly about the meaning of
the word or utterance. Excerpt 33 shows the use of direct appeal for help by an Indian
guest at a hotel front office:

(33) HFO, NO.153

1	Thai staff (F):	*we have for deposit box (.) deposit box you can keep*
2		*passport keep money in deposit box*
3	Indian guest (M):	**what is that**
4	Thai staff:	*>safety< box*
5	Indian guest:	*safety box (.) okay*

In turn 1, the Thai receptionist informed the Indian guest about a hotel facility, which
is the *"safety box"*. She chose to use *"deposit box"* probably to show her command of
English In the next turn, the guest showed non-understanding of the meaning of the item
"deposit box", and asked the staff directly *"what is that"*. Because of the guest's appeal
for help, the staff paraphrased the lexical items using the more general synonym *"safety
box"*.

The participants also utilized indirect appeal for help to resolve the problem of
unknown lexical item(s) or utterances or difficulty in understanding different accents. The
excerpt that follows depicts the use of indirect appeal to overcome the difficulty an Indian
guest experienced in understanding the Thai staff's question:

(34) HFO, NO.95

1	Thai staff (F):	*you stay at here three night right? (1.4) right?*
2	Indian guest (M):	**I don't understand**
3	Thai staff:	*you stay at here for three night right?*

4   Indian guest: *three night (.) yeah*

The conversation occurred during the checking in of an Indian guest. In the first turn, the Thai receptionist asked the guest about the number of nights he intended to stay in the hotel. She repeated the question tag "right" after the guest did not answer her initial question following a 1.4 second pause. The guest could not grasp the meaning of the receptionist's question and displayed non-understanding in the next turn of talk by stating *"I don't understand"*. Although he did not directly ask for help, the guest displayed his non-comprehension, possibly with the intention of soliciting assistance indirectly. The data demonstrates that the indirect appeal for help was effective and moved the conversation forward (through the interlocutor's action) similar to the use of direct appeal for help. As shown in the excerpt above, the Thai staff repeated the previous utterance after the display of non-understanding in order to allow the guest to hear the utterance again. The guest succeeded in understanding the staff's question after listening to it the second time. Therefore, it can be claimed that the communicative problem may not have been caused by the speaker's low language ability; rather, it was possibly because of the speaker's difficulty in understanding the Thai accent. Communicative problems caused by different accents were commonly found in the data (see also Deterding, 2013; Leyland, 2011; Pickering, 2006). Consequently, appeal for help, both directly and indirectly, was used as a solution to the problem.

5.2.2.8 Use of all-purpose words

In addition, the use of all-purpose words in this context was done mostly to replace specific unknown verbs (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997); surprisingly, the use of all-purpose noun words such as *"thing"* to replace specific unknown nouns was not found in the data. Instead, general verbs such as *"do"* or *"make"* were used to convey action as in the following excerpt.

(35) TSC, NO.255

1	Thai staff (F):	*eight hundred baht*
2	Indian tourist (M):	*i know for four (.) and now we say can you **do** five hundred*
3		*because it is very expensive with the entrance some*
4		{the national park fee}
5	Thai staff:	*if you pay this (.) you come back only four o'clock*

The conversation occurred during a price negotiation between an Indian tourist and a Thai staff. After the staff informed the tourist of the total price, the tourist tried to negotiate for a cheaper price in the next turn. The tourist used the general verb *"do"* (line 2) instead of verbs or expressions such as *"discount", "make it cheaper"*, or *"give me a discount"*. The use of the generic verb was possibly because of the tourist's lack of knowledge of vocabulary for the specific purpose of negotiating price. Therefore, to achieve his conversation goal (to be charged a lower price), he chose to use a lexical item with a general meaning to convey the message.

5.2.2.9 Code-switching

Code switching was used to resolve speakers' lack of knowledge of English lexical items. When participants faced the problem of producing a particular word or utterance in English, it was common for them to take the communicative risk of switching their language code into their mother tongue (Klimpfinger, 2009). The use of this CS was done with the intention of maintaining the conversation, conveying the intended message, and achieving the communicative goal despite their inadequate English vocabulary.

The most common reason for code-switching in this context was the participants' inability to produce a particular word or utterance in English. Therefore, they managed to convey the meaning and achieve the conversation goals by switching from English into

their mother tongue. The following example of code-switching was probably due to the passenger's limited English vocabulary:

(36) AIC, NO.195

1	French passenger (M):	*hello you (.) i **parle français** (.) **français** {hand
2		document}
3	Thai staff (F):	*no français (.) counter open: open (.) open five at*
4		*five*
5	French passenger:	*okay at five (.) **merci beaucoup***

The conversation shows the French passenger's discomfort in conducting a conversation in English and his move to code-switch. In the first turn, although he initially greeted the Thai staff in English – *"hello you"*, he pragmatically led the conversation to his mother tongue by telling the staff his first language. The code switch, "*I parle Français, Français"* (translation: *"I speak French, French"),* might have been employed to reveal his identity and seek an opening to have the conversation in French. Or, he may have code-switched because he was unable to produce the English utterances required to convey his meaning. In other words, he might have code-switched because he did not know how to convey "*parle Français*" in English. Therefore, he took a risk by switching the language code into French to achieve his conversation goal (to inform the staff of his mother tongue in order to continue the conversation in French). In the second turn, the staff stated her inability to have the conversation in French and informed the passenger about the check-in time of the flight in English. In the last turn, the passenger displayed his understanding of the information presented in the staff's previous utterance by speaking in English, but then closed the conversation with an utterance in French to express his gratitude, *"merci beaucoup"* (translation: *"thank you very much"*). The code-

switch at the end of the sequence may have been intended to reiterate his identity as a French-speaking person (Cogo, 2009, 2010; Jenkins, 2012).

The Thai participants too sometimes switched their language code because of their inability to produce a particular English utterance. For example, the Thai staff occasionally used Thai question words to form questions. This is apparent in the following example where the Thai receptionist employed code switching to produce a yes/no question.

(37) HFO, NO.97

1	Indian guest (M):	*check out*
2	Thai staff (F):	*and key card*
3	Indian guest:	*right there*
4	Thai staff:	**in your room เหรอ?**
5	Indian guest:	*yes yes*
6	Thai staff:	*okay*

The conversation occurred during the checking out process of an Indian guest. In turn 1, the guest informed the Thai receptionist of his intention to check out. The receptionist asked the guest for the hotel key card in the second turn. The guest indicated where the key card was saying *"right there"* in the next turn. However, the receptionist was unsure about the meaning of the utterance. Therefore, in the next turn, she asked the guest to confirm that the key card was in the hotel room by appending a Thai question marker to the English phrase *"in your room เหรอ?"*. Normally, the word *"เหรอ"* (/rɜr/) is used in Thai to produce a yes-no question. It is probable that the Thai staff used this CS because she was not familiar with the grammatical structure of standard English closed questions. Therefore, she opted to use a question word from her first language to formulate the question.

5.2.2.10 Literal translation

The use of literal translation was also common in this context. When participants had difficulty producing a particular English utterance, it was common for them to adopt the language structure from their mother tongue and translate it word for word into English. For example, the Thai HT staff commonly translated Thai sentences into English literally when they needed to produce questions or negative sentences.

First, it was observed that Thai participants routinely translated questions literally from Thai into English. This use of literal translation resulted in different forms of questions compared to the standard forms of questions in English, as seen in the use of different question words, different word order, and the omission of auxiliary verbs such as *"do"* and *"does"*. The excerpt below shows the use of literal translation in producing questions by a Thai staff at a tour service counter:

(38) TSC, NO.241

1	Spain tourist (F):	*hello (.) how much for [a name of beach]*
2	Thai staff (F):	*two hundred baht for one person (.) go and back*
3	Spain tourist:	*baby (.) baby*
4	Thai staff:	***how many years old***
5	Spain tourist:	*six*
6	Thai staff:	*you pay*

In turn 3, the Spanish tourist produced an utterance to ask the Thai staff for information about the ticket price for her child. The staff asked the tourist for the age of the child in the next turn saying *"how many years old"* (line 4). It seems that the question to ask for an individual's age was translated literally from Thai to English. The question word *"how many"* was translated from the Thai question word "เท่าไหร่" (/θaʊ-raɪ/ is the Thai word used to ask for the quantity of things). Also, *"year old"* here was translated from the Thai word

"อายุ" (/aːjʊ/ means year(s) old or age). The Thai staff probably did not know or was not familiar with the standard English question form to ask for age, *"how old is (the child)?"*. Therefore, she chose to use the Thai language structure to ask for the age of the child "อายุ เท่าไหร่" thereby translating word for word into English *"how many years old"*.

Second, the Thai negative sentence structure was also regularly translated word for word into English. The structure of negative sentences in English is rather different from that of Thai, especially in terms of the auxiliary *"do"* and *"does"*. Therefore, most Thai staff generally omitted these auxiliaries when formulating negative sentences. Below is an extract in which a Thai receptionist used literal translation in a negative sentence to communicate with an Indian guest:

(39) HFO, NO.33

1	Thai staff (M):	*bicycle just for the daytime only because the night time **no***
2		***have light** on bicycle (.) that why we have time seven from*
3		*seven (.) okay?*
4	Indian guest (M):	*alright*

Turn 1 shows the Thai receptionist informing the Indian guest about the available time for the bicycle service. It seems the negative sentence in his turn was translated literally from the Thai negative structure. Normally, the way to construct a negative sentence in Thai is simply to add the word "ไม่" (/maɪ/ means *"not"* or *"no"*) in front of the verb (e.g., the sentence *"she doesn't go"* will take the form of *"she no go"* if translated literally from Thai). The word *"no have"* in the Thai staff's utterance was translated word for word from the Thai basic negative structure "ไม่มี" /maɪ-miː/ ("ไม่" /maɪ/ means *"not"* or *"no"*, "มี" /miː/ means *"have"*, "ไม่มี" means *"disappear"*, *"be gone"*, or *"do/does not*

have"). Therefore, this is an example of the participant's attempt to resolve the problem when confronted with the unfamiliarity or difficulty of forming negatives in English.

Finally, some Thai grammatical forms were translated word for word into English, such as possessive pronouns, "if" clauses, or utterances to describe the weather. The excerpt below reveals English sentences to describe the weather which were created when the speaker translated word for word from Thai.

(40) TSC, NO.184

1	Norwegian tourist (F):	*er: there is a lot of rain (.) for example at 6 p.m. for*
2		*the return er: can the er can the boat can't go*
3	Thai staff (F):	*you see if **the weather have rain** but no windy okay*
4	Norwegian tourist:	*okay=*
5	Thai staff:	*=you can come back*
6	Norwegian tourist:	*and er:*
7	Thai staff:	*if **the weather have windy** you can ask the driver (.)*
8		*they can check the weather for you*

The excerpt shows the use of literal translation in the Thai staff's utterances describing the weather. In turn 1, the Norwegian tourist displayed anxiety about possible problems caused by rain on the way back from a beach. In the next turn, the staff recommended that the tourist check the weather (line 3). In this utterance, the sentence structure to describe the weather was adopted from the Thai structure of describing weather "สภาพอากาศ มี...". The word *"weather"* comes from the Thai word "สภาพอากาศ" (/sa:-pa:p-a:-ga:d/ means the weather) and *"have"* was translated from the word "มี" (/mi:/ means have/), to which is then added the adjective *"rain"* (*"rainy"*) describing the weather. The use of literal translation was also found in the last turn of talk by the Thai staff when she recommended

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that the tourist consult the boat driver if it was windy (line 7). It seems that the Thai staff was more familiar with this structure than the standard English structure describing the weather. The structure of *"it is + adjective"* to describe the weather, although simple, might have been unknown to her. Therefore, she adopted a structure from a language she knows well and is familiar with, namely, her mother tongue.

5.2.2.11 Word coinage

The use of word coinage to resolve communicative problems was not a common feature of the data. It was the least frequently used CSs in the category of resolving strategies. Evidently, most ELF speakers in this context employed simple language forms and basic English lexical items. When a particular word was unknown, they tended to try other CSs to convey the meaning instead of formulating a new English word. However, the coining of words by adding a suffix (Mauranen, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011) was still found in this context, as in the creation of a novel English word by the adding of the suffix *"-ly"* by a French tourist:

(41) TSC, NO.89

1	French tourist (F):	*the sea is seem very **stormly** today (.) is it safe by*
2		*boat?*
3	Thai staff (F):	*depend where are you going*
4	French tourist (F):	*[a name of beach] beach*
5	Thai staff (F):	*[a name of beach] beach (.) safe safe*

In turn 1, the French tourist voiced her concern about the weather and the safety of going by sea before taking a boat to a beach. In the utterance, she tried to describe the condition of the sea by adding the suffix *"-ly"* to the root word *"storm"* with the intention of creating an adjective that describes the state of the sea. Although the precise English word *"stormy"* was not known to the French tourist, it seems that she knew the lexical-

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grammar rule involving the addition of the suffix *"ly"* to certain nouns to form adjectives (e.g., the words *"friendly"*, *"elderly"*, or *"costly"*) – resulting in her novel word coinage.

5.2.2.12 Clarification request

In addition, the participants asked their interlocutor to clarify the meaning of utterances using clarification requests. Clarification requests employed in this context took the form of *'what you mean?'* or *'what?'*. An example of a clarification request by a Thai staff at a tour service counter is presented below:

(42) TSC, NO.52

1	Swedish tourist (M):	*do you know where is a beach near here we can go*
2		*on the sea (.) it go on*
3	Thai staff (F):	***i don't understand (.) what you mean คะ?*** {/ka:/ =
4		Thai ending particle to show politeness}
5	Swedish tourist:	*okay (.) do I want like (.) do you know where is a*
6		*beach around here like: we can go for the water*
7		*play*

In turn 1, a Swedish tourist tried to convey the message that he was looking for a beach where he could play in the water. The second turn shows that the Thai staff did not understand the tourist's utterance in the previous turn. This was probably because of the obscure *"it go on"* after the description of the action *"we can go on the sea"* in the utterance. In the next turn, the Thai staff conveyed her non-comprehension, *"I don't understand",* before trying to address the problem by asking the tourist to clarify the message saying *"what you mean?".*

5.2.2.13 Asking for repetition

It is evident that the CS designed to get interlocutors to repeat previous utterances was the most prevalent strategy used to resolve communicative problems in this context. Repetition requests found in this setting included the use of common English forms eliciting reiteration (e.g., *"again please"*, *"pardon me?"*, or *"sorry?"*), minimal queries (e.g., *"hm?"* or *"ah?"*), and the use of words with rising (questioning) intonation.

The use of common English forms to elicit repetition was very frequent among the Thai staff working in the HT sites (especially, among the Thai receptionists or airport information counter employees). When the staff faced incomprehensible messages, ambiguity or mishearing, they tended to say *"again please"* or *"pardon me?"*. This is possibly because these English forms of asking for repetition allowed them to express their meaning clearly and to show advanced language ability and politeness as compared to merely producing minimal queries or words with questioning intonation. Due to the nature of their service job, most Thai HT staff chose to employ the aforementioned forms, as seen in the following excerpt:

(43) HFO, NO.14

1	Chinese guest (M):	*I leave (.) I leave thing in the room*
2	Thai staff (F):	***pardon me?***
3	Chinese guest:	*I leave the thing in the room*
4	Thai staff:	*okay (.) you lose er some=*
5	Chinese guest:	*=yeah*
6	Thai staff:	*can can (.) you can (.) you can go in your room*

The conversation occurred after the checking out of a Chinese guest. In turn 1, the guest informed the Thai staff that he had left an item in his hotel room. Possibly due to the difficulty of understanding Chinese accents, the staff could not grasp the meaning of

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the guest's utterance. Therefore, she attempted to resolve her own non-comprehension by asking the guest to repeat the utterance using *"pardon me?"* in the next turn.

The use of minimal queries was also customary in HT ELF conversations, especially among the international tourists. When the utterance was unintelligible, they asked their interlocutor for repetition by using only *"ah?"* or *"hm?"* (Mauranen, 2006). Below is an instance of the use of minimal query by a Chinese passenger at an airport information counter:

(44) AIC, NO.6

1	Chinese tourist (M):	*em: where is [name of airline]*
2	Thai staff (F):	*[name of airline] (.) what is your flight number sir?*
3	Chinese tourist:	***hm?***
4	Thai staff:	*what is your fight number (.) flight number*
5	Chinese tourist:	*fight number*

In turn 1, the Chinese passenger asked the Thai staff for information regarding a flight check-in counter. The staff repeated the name of the airline and asked for the flight number of the passenger. Turn 3 shows that the passenger did not understand the staff's previous utterance; as such, he asked the staff for a repetition using the non-lexical item *"hm"* with rising intonation in the next turn (line 3). Although it is not the most direct way to ask for repetition, it is observed that this way of asking for iteration was effective and did not lead to any confusion for the listener. The use of *"ah?"* or *"hm?"* made the speakers aware of the listeners' problem in hearing or understanding and resulted in speakers subsequently repeating a previously-used word or utterance for reinforcement in the next turn. Although it suggests lack of language ability and politeness, its efficiency was similar to the use of the more transparent forms to ask for repetition. As shown in the excerpt above, the use of *"hm?"* by the Chinese tourist caused the Thai staff to repeat the

previous question followed by the restatement of the key term *"fight number"* (line 4) in the next turn to make the meaning more explicit and facilitate the tourist's understanding of the message.

Finally, participants also asked their interlocutors for repetition by using words or utterances with questioning intonation. In this case, participants often repeated a word or a segment of an utterance from the interlocutor's prior message (usually the word or segment preceding the non-understood part), with a questioning intonation in order to get the interlocutor to restate the message. This is clear in the following excerpt:

(45) AIC, NO.113

1	Chinese passenger (F):	*hello (.) where can i get to vat refund*
2	Thai staff (F):	*vat refund (.) after passport control*
3	Chinese passenger:	***after?***
4	Thai staff:	*after >passport control<*
5	Chinese passenger:	*oh: after passport control*

In turn 1, the Chinese passenger asked the Thai staff about the location of the VAT refund service counter. The staff provided the information to the passenger in the next turn of talk. Turn 3 shows partial comprehension on the part of the passenger, and constitutes a request for repetition as the passenger produced the word "after" with questioning intonation. Asking for repetition in this way was common in the ELF HT context and was always as successful as the use of the requesting repetition and minimal non-comprehension queries.

In summary, to achieve and maintain HT goals or provide quality HT service, the participants used CSs to resolve communicative problems such as non-comprehension, misunderstanding, mishearing, or difficulties in producing utterances. The table below

provides a summary of how each resolving strategy was used and the purpose it served in the interactions.

Table 5.5: Use of Resolving Strategies in the Hospitality and Tourism Context in Thailand

Item	Resolving strategy	Description of use	Purpose
1	self-repetition	the speaker repeats the problematic word or utterance	- to make word/utterance explicit - to resolve listener's problem in comprehension
		the speaker repeats the preceding word	- to gain time to produce an utterance or retrieve the intended word
2	self-reformulation	the speaker paraphrases the problematic word or utterance	- to provide another form of the word/utterance and increase the possibility of comprehension - to simplify the meaning of the problematic word or utterance - to resolve listener's problem in comprehension

Item	Resolving strategy	Description of use	Purpose
3	self-repair	the speaker modifies the utterance after a false start, producing an unintelligible utterance, or language anomaly	- to provide an (more) understandable utterance
	other- repair	the speaker modifies the interlocutor's previous utterance	- to provide the interlocutor with a more accurate item(s) - to overcome the interlocutor's difficulty in producing the utterance - to make conversation smoother
4	explication	the speaker defines, spells, or gives example(s) of a problematic word or utterance	- to clarify or simplify the meaning of the problematic word or utterance - to resolve the listener's problem in comprehension
5	circumlocution	the speaker describes a thing or action (with its completemen) to convey the unknown word	- to maintain an ongoing conversation and achieve the communicative goal with limited vocabulary knowledge
		the speaker describes a thing or action (with its completemen) to facilitate the listener's	- to clarify or simplify the meaning of a problematic word/utterance to the listener

Item	Resolving strategy	Description of use	Purpose
		understanding of an unknown word	
6	approximation	the speaker uses an approximate word to convey the message	- to maintain an ongoing conversation and achieve the conversational goal with limited vocabulary knowledge
7	appeal for help	the speaker asks the interlocutor for assistance directly	- to resolve his or her own non-comprehension
		the speaker expresses non-comprehension	
8	use of all-purpose words	the speaker uses a word with a general meaning to replace a particular specific word	- to maintain ongoing conversation and achieve the conversational goal despite limited vocabulary knowledge
9	code-switching	the speaker switches his or her language code into the mother tongue (when a lexical item or structure is unknown)	- to maintain ongoing conversation and achieve the conversational goal with limited English vocabulary or limited ability to produce English structures
10	literal translation	the speaker translates the structure of a sentence word for word from his or her first language into English	- to maintain ongoing conversation and achieve the conversational goal with limited ability to produce the English structure

Item	Resolving strategy	Description of use	Purpose
11	word coinage	the speaker creates a new English word	- to maintain ongoing conversation and achieve the conversational goal with limited vocabulary knowledge
12	clarification request	the speaker asks the interlocutor to clarify the meaning of a previously used word or utterance	- to resolve his or her own non-comprehension or ambiguity
13	asking for repetition	the speaker asks the interlocutor to repeat a previously used word or utterance by using: - expressions such as *"pardon me?"* or *"again please"* - minimal non-comprehension queries such as *"ah?"* or *"em?"* - word(s) with questioning intonation	- to resolve his or her own non-comprehension

The excerpts below provide further examples of how the participants used multiple CSs to resolve communicative problems in this context.

(46) AIC, NO.384

1   Chinese passenger (F):   *excuse me i want to ask er: (.) er: you have the*

2		***market*** *[a name of convenience store] inside?*
3	Thai staff (F):	***no have*** *(.) we have only outside on the fourth floor*
4		*[the name of the convenience store]*
5	Chinese passenger:	*ah: just outside (.) and if i **do** the restaurant*
6	Thai staff:	*yes we have*
7	Chinese passenger:	*how many*
8	Thai staff:	*so many*

The excerpt above shows the use of CSs to compensate for the participants' limited vocabulary and maintain the progressivity of the conversation. In turn 1, the Chinese passenger asked the Thai staff for information about a certain convenience store inside the airport. In the utterance, the passenger employed the approximated word *"market"* (line 2) to ask for the *"convenience store"* in the airport. It is possible that the term *"convenience store"* was unknown to the passenger, who selected a word with a meaning close to that of the message she intended to convey. In the next turn, the Thai staff produced a negative response to answer the passenger's question in the previous turn using literal translation *"no have"* (line 3). This was possibly because the standard English negative sentence structure was unknown, unfamiliar, or difficult for the staff to produce. Therefore, the staff resolved the problem by using a structure from her first language. In line 5, to ask for information regarding restaurants, the passenger used the general verb *"do"* to replace an unknown specific verb relating to restaurants.

Another example that captures the use of multiple CSs to resolve communicative problems in this context is as follows:

(47) HFO, NO.156

1	Canadian guest (F):	*where is a closed like: clinic (.) like like: healthy care*
2		*clinic*

3	Thai staff (F):	*pardon?*
4	Canadian guest:	*doctor*
5	Thai staff:	*doctor=*
6	Canadian guest:	*=clinic*
7	Thai staff:	*clinic right? if around here (.) i: (1.2) no (.) I think **no have***
8		*(.) you can go outside (.) yeah: and turn left about five*
9		*minutes (.) you can see yeah: have pharmacy at there (.)*
10		*and then office opposite have also*
11	Canadian guest:	*thank you (.) er: what time for breakfast?*
12	Thai staff:	***pardon?***
13	Canadian guest:	*what time for breakfast (.) **breakfast?***
14	Thai staff:	*breakfast until twelve*

The above conversation reveals a number of non-comprehension problems and their resolution through the use of CSs. In turn 1, the Canadian guest asked the receptionist for the location of a clinic nearby. The next turn shows that the Thai staff did not understand the Canadian guest's inquiry, but she then addressed the problem by asking the guest to repeat using *"pardon?"* (line 3). In response, the guest reformulated the key word of the message from *"clinic"* to *"doctor"* in the next turn (line 4) to improve and secure the staff's understanding and to achieve the communicative goal (to obtain directions to the clinic). In the next turn, the staff used a literal translation from Thai in the form of *"no have"* in a negative sentence to inform the guest that there was no healthcare clinic nearby. In the guest's fourth turn, she asked the receptionist about the time of breakfast service. The next turn shows that the receptionist did not understand the guest's previous question and so asked the guest for a repetition using *"pardon"* (line 12). The guest responded by repeating the entire utterance followed by a repetition of the word

"breakfast" (line 13) to make explicit the key word of the message and facilitate comprehension by the staff.

Excerpt 48 shows how the participants used both preemptive and resolving strategies to achieve the goals of communication.

(48) HFO, NO.92

1	Thai staff (M):	*er: you stay with us for two night?*
2	Norwegian guest (F):	**ah?**
3	Thai staff:	**you booking with two night?**
4	Norwegian guest:	*oh (.) two night yeah*
5	Thai staff:	*yes (.) last day you check out?*
6	Norwegian guest:	*em:*
7	Thai staff:	**last day what time you check out**
8	Norwegian guest:	**yeah?**
9	Thai staff:	*last day can you show me what time you check out*
10		**(.) last day when you check out**
11	Norwegian guest:	*oh (.) **the time**?*
12	Thai staff:	*yes (.) do you have plan (.) other destination?*
13	Norwegian guest:	*twelve or one p.m.*
14	Thai staff:	**before you: er: (.) you have to check out before**
15		**twelve**
16	Norwegian guest:	**before twelve?**
17	Thai staff:	*yes*
.		
21	Norwegian guest:	*er: we book **with er: with er:** balcony right?*
22	Thai staff:	*not (.) your room not have the balcony*

23	Norwegian guest:	***no?***
24	Thai staff:	*not have balcony (.) you can check we check your*
25		*booking*

.

34	Thai staff:	*if you want to eat breakfast two hundred fifty*
35		*baht per night per one day* (.) ***you booking exclude***
36		***breakfast*** (.) ***exclude breakfast***
37	Norwegian guest:	***er: i don't know***
38	Thai staff:	***without breakfast*** *(3.6)* ***no need= no have***
39		***breakfast in your booking*** *(.)* ***you okay?***
40	Norwegian guest:	*okay (.)* ***i can't understand***
41	Thai staff:	*according to your booking er exclude breakfast (.)*
42		***no breakfast***
43	Norwegian guest:	*oh no breakfast (.) yes yes yes (.) sorry sorry sorry*
44		*yeah yeah yeah so sorry*

The excerpt illustrates the use of both preemptive and resolving strategies in one ELF interaction. This conversation shows both participants' non-comprehension, difficulty in producing utterances, and restricted vocabulary knowledge. Also, it exhibits the use of multiple CSs to resolve such problems, avoid communicative troubles, and facilitate the interlocutor's understanding.

In turn 1, the Thai staff asked the Norwegian guest to confirm the number of nights she was planning to stay at the hotel. The next turn shows that the guest did not understand the staff's question and asked the staff for a repetition of the previous utterance using the minimal non-comprehension query *"ah?"*. In response, the staff reformulated the previous utterance from *"you stay with us for two night?"* (line 1) to *"you booking with*

two night?" (line 3) to resolve the guest's non-understanding. In the staff's third turn of talk, he asked the guest for the approximate time she expected to check out saying *"last day you check out?"* (line 5). The guest responded to the question in the next turn by producing the non-lexical item *"em"* with prolongation. This might have caused the staff to be unsure if the guest understood his previous utterance, therefore, he repaired the utterance to make the meaning of the question clearer saying *"last day what time you check out"*. However, the guest produced a *"yeah"* with rising intonation in the next turn which indicates that she still did not understand the question and required a repetition. The staff addressed the non-comprehension in the next turn by repeating the question and subsequently reformulating the question to *"last day when you check out"*. It seems that the guest finally understood the meaning of the question because of the staff's self-reformulation, but she needed the staff to confirm her understanding. Therefore, she used confirmation check in the next turn saying *"the time"* with rising intonation to verify that she had correctly understood the staff. In the staff's seventh turn of talk, he tried to inform the guest that she had to check out before 12 p.m., but his difficulty in producing the utterance was obvious in the turn. He initially produced the incomplete utterance *"before you: er:"* before cutting off and repairing the utterance by producing a clearer utterance saying *"you have to check out before twelve"*. In the next turn, the guest checked her understanding by asking the staff for comprehension-confirmation using *"before twelve"* with rising intonation (line 16). This was also done to prevent any misunderstanding of the HT information.

In line 21, the guest formulated an utterance to ask the staff whether her hotel room had a balcony. In the utterance, she repeated the word *"with"* followed by a prolonged *"er"*. This might indicate her search for the item *"balcony"*. She chose to repeat a preceding word instead of pausing while searching for the lexical item, probably to hold the floor. In the next turn, the staff informed her that her hotel room was without a

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balcony. The guest responded to the staff in the next turn by deploying a confirmation check *"no?"* to check and ensure accurate understanding of the HT information.

Finally, in line 34, the receptionist informed the guest about the breakfast service. He told the guest that her booking was without the addition of breakfast. In his turn, he repeated the key words of the utterance *"exclude breakfast"* to increase the prominence of the words and enhance the guest's understanding. However, the guest's non-comprehension was revealed in the next turn by her use of *"er"* with prolongation and the appeal for help informing the receptionist that she did not know the meaning of the previous utterance saying *"I don't know"*. In the next turn, the receptionist responded by reformulating the lexical item "exclude" to *"without"*, *"no need"*, and *"no have"* (literally translated from Thai negative sentence structure) (line 38-39), and ended the turn by checking the guest's comprehension saying *"you okey?"*. The comprehension check was to ensure that the guest understood the utterance and that the non-comprehension was resolved. However, the response from the guest in the next turn, which constitutes an appeal for help in the form of *"I can't understand"* (line 40), indicates that the comprehension problem was not yet resolved. In the next turn, the staff tried to address the problem by repeating the utterance again and reformulating the problematic lexical items into their simplest form, *"no breakfast"* (line 42), after a short pause to increase the guest's possibility of understanding.

5.3 Conclusion

ELF interactions in the HT setting in Thailand display the use of various CSs. Both preemptive and resolving strategies were employed by the participants in the ELF HT interactions to achieve conversation goals despite the restrictions brought about by limited language ability, varying accents and the challenge of multicultural interactions. However, the frequency of use of resolving strategies was lower than that of preemptive

strategies, due to the infrequence of communicative problems in this context. Both the international tourists and the Thai staff generally used their strategic abilities to prevent miscommunication. Given the limitations of language proficiency and the different English accents and English forms in use, the international tourists needed to express their HT goals clearly and receive the target HT information accurately to avert HT misinformation. Also, it was a necessity for the Thai employees to provide quality HT services while conveying HT information effectively to the tourists in order to avoid HT miscommunication which might have led to tourists' having HT troubles or complaining. To accomplish such requirements, the participants deployed preemptive strategies which played a significant role in enhancing communication in the HT context. For example, the speakers commonly used other-repetition, other-reformulation, and confirmation checks to ensure accurate HT information and avoid misunderstanding. In addition, they regularly used self-repetition to enhance the prominence of key words, highlight important HT information, or emphasize their conversation goals; they also used circumlocution, explication, and repair to enhance the clarity of their message and reduce the possibility of their listeners' non-comprehension, and comprehension checking to ensure their listeners' understanding.

Although the use of resolving strategies was less frequent, such strategies still played an important role in helping the participants overcome communicative problems. While word-coinage had the lowest frequency of use, asking for repetition was the most frequently used resolving strategy which the ELF speakers in this context deployed to address their problems in comprehension. This may have been because most communicative problems in the HT interactions analyzed in this study related to the listeners' inability to understand the speakers' utterance (e.g., due to difficulty in understanding different English accents or the listeners' low listening proficiency). Clarification requests and appeals for help were also used to resolve such problems, but

they were not as frequent as asking for repetition. Furthermore, the participants deployed self-repetition, self-reformulation, self-repair, explication and circumlocution to enhance listeners' understanding and resolve listeners' non-comprehension, mishearing, or misunderstanding. Finally, the participants used approximation, word-coinage, code-switching, literal translation, self-repair, other-repair, and self-repetition to overcome their restricted vocabulary or difficulty in producing utterances.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS

THE FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

This chapter presents the answer to research question 3, which concerns the functions that CSs served in relation to communicative effectiveness in the HT setting in Thailand. The chapter is divided into two parts. The first part contains the analysis and discussion of the functions of preemptive strategies on the effectiveness of the ELF HT communications. It presents a discussion of how preemptive strategies directed the language in the utterances and how they were useful to prevent and avoid communicative problems. The second part concerns the utility of resolving strategies and presents a discussion of how they functioned in the ELF interactions when communicative problems occurred. While the previous chapter emphasized how the participants produced CSs and why CSs were used, the present chapter focuses on the results of using CSs and their efficacy. Intelligibility (Becker and Kluge, 2014; Hülmbauer, 2009; Jenkins, 2007), mutual understanding (Schegloff, 1991), smoothing the flow of conversations, communicative success, and communicative goal achievement are focused on in the analysis below.

6.1 The Functions of Preemptive Strategies

Overall, the data show that preemptive strategies played an important role in enhancing listener's understanding and preventing non-understanding, misunderstanding, mishearing, misinformation, or ambiguity. In addition, the use of preemptive strategies helped the participants to avoid HT troubles (for the international tourist) or mistakes in HT service (for the Thai staff). The analysis shows that preemptive strategies impacted the conversations positively by highlighting the key word(s) of utterances, increasing explicitness and clarity, explaining or simplifying words or utterances, adding detail, narrowing scope, ensuring accurate information, and rendering non-obvious

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miscomprehension or non-understanding obvious. The discussion below focuses on the impact of the use of preemptive strategies in the ELF HT interactions.

6.1.1 Highlighting the Prominence of the Key Word

It is found in the data that the use of preemptive self-repetition enhanced the prominence of the key word(s) (Lichtkoppler, 2007). This CS allowed the speakers to emphasize and underscore important information. Listening to unfamiliar English accents might have led to comprehension difficulty, non-comprehension, or ambiguity (Deterding, 2013; Leyland, 2011; Pickering, 2006). However, repeating the key word(s) provided listeners with the chance to re-receive the important points, thereby strengthening their ability to grasp their meaning. The extract below shows the impact of self-repetition which serves to preempt communicative problems and augment message coherence in an ELF HT interaction.

(49) TSC, NO.53

1	Italian tourist (M):	*[a name of beach 1] [the name of beach 1]*
2	Thai staff (F):	*how many person (.) two? (.) you want to go today? (.)*
3		*or tomorrow?*
4	Italian tourist:	*today*
5	Thai staff:	***today i have only private boat (.) two thousand five***
6		***hundred baht (.) private boat (.) two thousand five***
7		***hundred baht***
7	Italian tourist:	*other (.) other island?*
8	Thai staff:	***other island now only [a name of beach 2] only [the name***
9		***of beach 2] [the name of beach 2]***
10	Italian tourist:	*[the name of beach 2]*

In the Thai staff's second turn, she informed the Italian tourist about an available tour program and its price (line 5). In the utterance, she repeated all HT information twice. It can be seen that the repetition makes the key HT information clear and prominent. Recycling the key information, in all likelihood, also increased the tourist's ability to understand the utterance. By repeating the utterance, the tourist was able to receive the information successfully and easily as indicated by his request for information of another island in the next turn (line 7). The tourist gave up his initial target destination and changed his HT goal after receiving the information from the staff in the previous turn. This happened because he had understood the staff's previous message well and had grasped the fact that the shared boat was out of service and that he would have to pay much more to rent a private boat to that particular beach. After the tourist asked for information about another beach, the staff gave him the information by stating the name of the beach three times (line 8-9) to enhance the tourist's understanding. The tourist's other-repetition in the next turn (line 10) indicates that he had understood the staff's previous utterance well. Although the speakers in this conversation were from different linguistic backgrounds and had different accents, the interaction progressed smoothly and there was no problem of comprehension in the conversation, partly due to the prominence accorded the HT key words by the staff. Increasing the prominence of the key words through repetition reduced the possibility of comprehension problems and increased the listener's level of understanding (Lichtkoppler, 2007).

6.1.2 Explaining Meaning

The use of explication and circumlocution effectively explains the meaning of prior words or utterances. These strategies provide definitions of word(s) or descriptions which relate to the meaning of word(s). These preemptive strategies potentially enhance listener understanding and avoid problem of comprehension or HT misinformation. The excerpt below shows how explication functions to explain the meaning of a word.

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(50) HFO, NO.68

1	Thai staff (F):	*and fourth floor we have **fitness room** (.) **the room for***
2		***exercise** (.) open seven= ah: open eight in the morning*
3		*until ten p.m.*
4	Indian guest (M):	*ten p.m.*
5	Thai staff:	*yes*

In turn 1, the Thai receptionist informed an Indian guest about a fitness room. In the utterance, the staff specified the location of the fitness room and then defined the meaning of "*fitness room*" after a short pause saying "*the room for exercise*" (line 1-2). In the next turn, the guest repeated a segment of the staff's previous utterance related to the available time for the service; it is obvious that there is no evidence of a comprehension problem about the meaning of "*fitness room*" in the guest's utterance. This indicates that the guest understood the meaning of the term "*fitness room*". The guest may have understood the term because he knew its meaning, or he may have understood it because of the staff's use of preemptive explication. If the meaning of the term "*fitness room*" had been unknown to the guest, it is highly likely that he would have come to understand the meaning of the term after the staff had defined it. Therefore, it is undeniable that the use of explication by giving definitions explains the meaning of terms, increases listener understanding, and prevents comprehension problems. The excerpt below gives an example of how the use of circumlocution functions to explain the meaning of particular words related to a room type in a hotel.

(51) HFO, NO.171

1	Thai staff (F):	*you want **pool exist**? (.) **like a: behind have swimming***
2		***pool** (.) you want to (be) sent to pool exist?*
3	Indian guest (M):	*is that available? pool?*

| 4 | Thai staff: | *pool exist yeah* |

The Thai receptionist took a turn to recommend a *"pool exist"* room to an Indian guest. Then, after a micropause, she described the characteristic of the room saying *"like a: behind have swimming pool"* (line 1-2). It can be seen that the circumlocution could potentially explain the meaning of the words *"pool exist"*. By using the circumlocution, the words *"pool exist"* can be comprehended as *"a room near the swimming pool"* by the listener. In the next turn, the guest asked the receptionist to confirm if that type of hotel room was available by saying *"is that available? pool?"*. The guest's response indicates that he understood well the expression *"pool exist"* in the receptionist's previous utterance. Further, even if the guest initially did not understand the meaning of the expression *"pool exist"*, there was a high possibility that he was able to comprehend the meaning of the expression used by the staff following the staff's description. This preemptive strategy could prevent possible comprehension problems caused by the guest's limited vocabulary. The excerpt below shows how the use of explication by giving an example function to explain the meaning of an utterance and enhance the listener's understanding.

(52) TSC, NO.469

1	Chinese tourist (M):	*[a name of tour program]*
2	Thai staff (F):	***booking one day before (.) booking before (.) if***
3		***booking today you go tomorrow***
4	Chinese tourist:	*booking before (.) okay okay okay*

Turn 1 shows that the guest's conversation goal was to buy a tour program. In turn 2, the staff informed the tourist that he had to book the ticket one day before the trip. After providing the HT information, the staff gave an example of a situation saying *"if booking today you go tomorrow"* to explain the meaning of *"booking one day before"* and

"booking before"; this move could help prevent any problems which might occur due to the guest's non-comprehension of the earlier utterance. Again, the use of explication by giving an example of a situation could potentially clarify the meaning of the earlier utterance, decrease the possibility of the tourist's non-comprehension, and prevent HT misinformation occurring through the exchange.

6.1.3 Increasing Clarity

It is found that the use of self-repair makes the meaning of an earlier word or utterance clearer and more explicit (Kaur, 2011b; Mauranen, 2006). It impacts the conversation positively by enhancing the clarity of the message, providing a more comprehensible word or utterance, and reducing the possibility of ambiguity. The excerpt below shows how the use of self-repair could enhance the explicitness of a question at a tour service counter.

(53) TSC, NO.249

1	Chinese tourist (F):	*[a name of beach]*
2	Thai staff (F):	*how many person*
3	Chinese tourist:	*two person (.) and **the small is free? the baby is***
4		***free?***
5	Thai staff:	*how many year old*
6	Chinese tourist:	*four four*
7	Thai staff:	*okay (.) same price three ticket six hundred baht*

In the Chinese tourist's second turn, she produced a question asking the Thai staff whether she needed to buy a ticket for a child. In the question, she initially used the word *"small"* to convey the meaning of a *"baby"* (line 3). Then, she immediately repaired the question by replacing the word *"small"* with *"baby"*, which was more explicit. In the next turn, the staff asked for the age of the young person, which indicates her

understanding of the tourist's question. Although it cannot be said that the staff would not have understood the tourist's initial question if the tourist had not repaired the question, it is undeniable that the repair made the meaning of the question more comprehensible, and may have reduced the possibility of uncertainty or non-comprehension on the part of the staff.

6.1.4   Adding Detail

The use of explication, especially by giving example(s), effectively provides details relating to HT information or HT goals. This CS thus does not merely enhance listener understanding; rather, it potentially provides more detailed explanation of target information, as shown in the excerpt below.

(54) HFO, NO.2

1	Thai staff (F):	*in your room we set for* **minibar (.) minibar for drinking**
2		**water [a brand of drink] some snacks** *everything for free*
3	Indian guest (M):	*okay*
4	Thai staff:	*one time per day*
5	Indian guest:	*okay*
6	Thai staff:	*so very important we have for safety box (.) you can keep*
7		*passport keep money in safety box* และคะ {/na:ka:/ = Thai
8		ending particle to show politeness} *(.) and every day we*
9		*have for* **meeting room (.) meeting room you can look**
10		**theater you can eat snack you can relax** *everything for*
11		*free open twelve (.) to five p.m. (.) and fourth floor we have*
12		*fitness room (.) you can exercise for the gym open eight in*
13		*the morning until ten p.m.*
14	Indian guest:	*okay*

The excerpt above shows the use of explication by example by a Thai staff who is informing an Indian guest about the hotel facilities. In the first turn, the staff informed the guest about the minibar and gave examples of the minibar items in the hotel room fridge (line 1-2). It can be seen that the explication not only clarified the meaning of the word *"minibar"*, but also provided details about the food and beverages that the guest could find in the minibar. Furthermore, in the staff's third turn, she informed the guest about a *"meeting room"* and gave an example of the available activities in the meeting room (line 9-10). Mentioning such activities clarified the meaning of *"meeting room"* (a room in which the guests could relax and enjoy certain activities) and also constitutes a valuable added detail for the guest about the activities he could do in the meeting room.

6.1.5   Simplifying Word/Utterance

It is found that the use of self-reformulation could positively simplify the meaning of a word or utterance. For example, when speakers reformulate their word(s) or utterances into simpler lexical item(s) or forms, it becomes easier for listeners to understand their meaning and this reduces the possibility of non-comprehension. The excerpt below shows how the use of self-reformulation simplified the meaning of a question at a hotel front office.

(55) HFO, NO.87

1	Thai staff (F):	*you check out maybe around= **you book reservation*
2		***transfer to [a name of beach] right? (2.6) you book to go***
3		***to [the name of beach] right?***
4	Indian guest (M):	*yes yes*

In turn 1, the Thai receptionist asked the Indian guest about his next destination in order to determine his approximate check-out time. She initially used the expression *"book reservation transfer to"* to convey the action in the question. However, the staff

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did not receive a response from the guest after the question. Thus, she reformulated the expression after the 2.6-second pause by saying *"book to go to"*. The word *"reservation"* was omitted, and the verb *"transfer"* was replaced with a simpler synonym *"go"* in the reformulated segment. Although some lexical items in the utterance were reduced and reformulated, the meaning of the question was maintained. It can be seen that the reformulated question resulted from a simplification of the form of the question By using this CS, some lexical items in the prior question were replaced with simpler and easier words. The guest's answer, *"yes yes"*, in the next turn indicates his understanding of the question and the positive effect of the self-reformulation. If the guest had kept silent for 2.6 seconds because he did not understand the initial question, then it is evident that the guest later comprehended the meaning of the question because he subsequently received a reformulated form of the question from the receptionist.

6.1.6   Narrowing Scope

The insertion self-repair could narrow the meaning of an utterance. Inserting a missing word in a repaired utterance allows a speaker to adjust their prior broad meaning to the specific situation. This CS could enhance listeners' understanding and prevent ambiguity by reducing the scope of the utterance, as shown in the excerpt below.

(56) HFO, NO.83

| 1 | Thai staff (F): | ***you have towel to bring out (.) hotel towel to bring out*** |
| 2 | Russian guest (M): | *yes* |

The excerpt above occurred when the Thai receptionist asked the Russian tourist to return a borrowed towel during the checkout process. In turn 1, the staff pointed out that the borrowed hotel towel was still with the guest and should be returned before the checkout process could be completed. In the utterance, she initially produced *"you have towel to bring out"*, then repaired the utterance by providing more specific information

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saying *"hotel towel to bring out"*. The word *"hotel"* was inserted in the repaired segment because it provided narrower meaning and greater clarity to the utterance. It improved on the earlier utterance by indicating which towel specifically the receptionist was asking for (the borrowed towel of the hotel). The guest's response in the next turn, *"yes",* indicates that he understood the receptionist's utterance. Although the receptionist initially produced an utterance with a broader meaning, the guest's uncertainty is not shown in the sequence possibly because the receptionist repaired her prior utterance and narrowed its scope. The except below also shows the role of self-repair in narrowing the meaning of expressions.

(57) HFO, NO.2

1	Thai staff (F):	***the pool** (.) **the swimming pool** is behind here open seven*
2		*in the morning until seven evening* (.) *seven to seven*
3	Indian guest (M):	*okay*

The insertion self-repair is produced in the first turn of talk by the Thai staff. She informed an Indian guest about the swimming pool and initially used the word *"pool"* to convey the meaning of the facility. After a micropause, she repaired the previous reference by inserting the word *"swimming"* in front of the word *"pool"*. The repaired segment, *"swimming pool",* narrowed down the meaning by pointing out specifically the kind of *"pool"* which the staff had initially mentioned. Incidentally, this hotel also provides a coin-operated billiard table which some guests and receptionists refer to as *"the pool"*. The use of self-repair to provide more specific meaning in the conversation effectively prevented misunderstanding and misinformation on the part of the guest; it prevented the guest from using the billiard table from seven a.m. to seven p.m., which were not actually the available hours for the table, and from failing to understand the available times of the swimming pool.

6.1.7   Ensuring Accurate Information

Receiving accurate information in ELF HT interactions is important. The participants used CSs to ensure that the information which they had received from the interlocutor was accurate and not a misunderstanding. It is found in the data that the use of CSs such as other-repetition, other-reformulation, and confirmation check to verify speakers' own comprehension effectively ensured the accuracy of speakers' understanding. Although these preemptive strategies did not enhance the listener's understanding, they played a role in increasing speakers' confidence in their own comprehension. In addition, as these CSs allowed the interlocutor to assess the accuracy of comprehension achieved, they played a role in preventing misunderstanding, non-comprehension, HT misinformation, and trouble in travelling or using HT services. Generally, after using these CSs, if there was no signal from the interlocutor indicating non- or misunderstanding, the speaker could confidently accept his or her own initial comprehension, as indicated in the excerpt below.

(58) AIC, NO.51

1	Chinese passenger (M):	*tax refund*
2	Thai staff (F):	***tax refund** (1.2) inside*
3	Chinese passenger:	***inside** (.) after check in*
4	Thai staff:	*after passport control*
5	Chinese passenger:	***after passport control***

The excerpt demonstrates the use of other-repetition by both the Thai staff and the Chinese passenger. In turn 1, the passenger asked the staff for the location of the tax refund service counter. In turn 2, possibly because the staff was unfamiliar with the passenger's accent and unsure of her own understanding, she repeated the passenger's previous words, *"tax refund"* (line 2), in order to check the accuracy of her own

comprehension. The 1.2-second pause following the repetition might be because the staff was formulating the language to respond to the guest in her mind or thinking about the location of the counter to inform the passenger. It is also possible that the short pause was intentionally produced to wait for a possible reaction from the passenger to confirm the accuracy of her comprehension. When there was no sign from the passenger that her initial understanding (about the passenger's conversation goal, *"tax refund"*) was incorrect, the staff, confident of the accuracy of her own understanding, continued the turn by informing the passenger of the direction of the tax refund counter, *"inside"* (line 2). Likewise, the passenger repeated the staff's previous utterance in his subsequent turn (*"inside"* in turn 3 and *"after passport control"* in turn 5), possibly to check the accuracy of his own understanding, as this CS allowed him to ensure that his understanding was correct. The excerpt below shows an instance of how the use of other-reformulation helped the speaker to ensure the accuracy of his own understanding at a hotel front office.

(59) HFO, NO.23

1	Thai staff (M):	*you are booking without breakfast*
2	Indian guest (M):	***no breakfast***
3	Thai staff:	*no breakfast without breakfast (.) if you want some*
4		*breakfast you can pay direct to the restaurant*
5	Indian guest:	*yes yes*

In turn 1, the Thai receptionist informed the Indian guest that his reservation excluded breakfast by saying *"you are booking without breakfast"*. In the second turn, the guest displayed his understanding when he reformulated the staff's use of *"without"* to "*no"*. The display of understanding was to prevent possible misunderstanding which might have occurred due to lack of listening competence or an unfamiliar accent. Similar to the discussion above, the staff's answer in the last turn, *"yes",* enhanced the guest's

confidence in his own initial understanding (that his reservation did not include breakfast) and ensured that his understanding was accurate.

6.1.8 Making Misunderstanding Obvious

Receiving HT misinformation or making wrong assumptions about HT services might lead to significant problems. However, the data indicates that the use of other-repetition, other-reformulation, and confirmation checks effectively prevents such problems. These participants used these preemptive strategies to make misunderstandings noticeable to listeners, which led to their correction, and thus to the prevention of troubles in communication, travel, and services. In other words, the participants made misunderstandings public by using these strategies. The excerpt below shows how a mishearing was obvious because of the use of other-repetition, and how bringing it to light prevented service problems.

(60) HFO, NO.159

1	Norwegian guest (F):	*where is bath room (.) bath room*
2	Thai staff (F):	***bath bomb***
3	Norwegian guest:	*em rest room*
4	Thai staff:	*bath room yeah?*
5	Norwegian guest:	*where is it (.) is the one down there?*
6	Thai staff:	*down there and behind here near the swimming*
7		*pool*

In turn 1, the Norwegian guest asked the Thai receptionist for directions to a *"bath room"*. In turn 2, the receptionist produced *"bath bomb"* with the intention of repeating the key word in the guest's previous utterance (line 2). The other-repetition was to display and check the accuracy of her understanding. However, it displayed the receptionist's mishearing and misunderstanding. Due to the other-repetition, the guest realized the

receptionist's inaccurate comprehension. The receptionist seemed to think that the guest wanted a bath bomb (a round soap provided for guests who rent a room with jacuzzi), not directions to a bathroom. Therefore, the guest reformulated the lexical items into "*rest room*" in the next turn to repair the receptionist's understanding. From this excerpt, it is undeniable that the use of other-repetition made the misperception apparent. It is also undeniable that if other-repetition had not been used by the receptionist, the wrong service might have been offered (the staff might have supplied a bath bomb to the guest, which was not the guest's conversation goal). The mistake in service was prevented by other-repetition in this conversation. The excerpt below shows how the use of confirmation check prevented a problem in the HT service of a Thai receptionist.

(61) HFO, NO.182

1	Indian guest (M):	*excuse me (.) can we have billiard*
2	Thai staff (F):	***beer?***
3	Indian guest:	*billiard*
4	Thai staff:	*oh the pool right?*
5	Indian guest:	*yeah*
7	Thai staff:	*you have to put twenty baht*

In turn 1, the Indian guest asked the Thai receptionist for the coin-operated billiard machine service saying *"can we have billiard"*. The receptionist then asked the guest to confirm her comprehension by repeating what she understood to be the key word from the guest's utterance, *"beer"*, with rising intonation. The content of the comprehension check makes it obvious that the receptionist had misunderstood the guest's request. Possibly due to inadequate listening competence or the unfamiliar accent, the receptionist misunderstood, thinking that the guest had asked for *"beer"*, not the *"billiard"*. The obvious miscomprehension of the receptionist prompted the guest to repeat the key word

of his request, *"billiard"*, in the next turn. The receptionist's confirmation check, *"oh the pool right?"*, in the next turn shows her revised and now accurate comprehension of the guest's conversation goal. It can be seen from the excerpt that the use of confirmation check caused the misunderstanding to be revealed and rectified before a wrong service was offered.

6.1.9   Making Non-comprehension Obvious

It is noted in the data that after the speakers' use of comprehension check, most of the responses from listeners were positive. This means that most interlocutors who had their understanding checked clearly comprehended the speakers' utterance (see excerpts 14 and 15). However, there were conversations where a comprehension check made public the listener's not immediately apparent non-understanding, such as when the listener was reluctant or unable to express his or her own non-comprehension. There were a few ELF conversations in the data where the listeners' non-understanding became obvious and HT troubles were prevented by the use of comprehension check. The excerpt that follows illustrates how the use of comprehension check made public a listener's non-understanding and averted HT trouble.

(62) TSC, NO.383

1	Thai staff (F):	*today my boat leave on the next pier and then ticket boat*
2		*free car one way to the pier (3.6)* **you understand?**
3	French tourist (F):	***no***
4	Thai staff:	*we have car bring you to the pier (.) wait here first*
5	French tourist:	*okay*

In turn 1, the Thai staff informed the French tourist about the location of the pier and the availability of a vehicle for transfer to the pier, but she did not receive an immediate response from the tourist after her statement. Therefore, she continued the turn after a 3.6

second pause to check whether the tourist had understood the previous message using *"you understand?"* (line 2). In the next turn, the tourist answered the staff's question by indicating that she had not understood the staff's utterance in the previous turn (the use of *"no"* in line 3). This caused the staff to condense and reformulate her earlier utterance to enhance the tourist's understanding in the next turn. The tourist's answer *"okey"* in the last turn (line 5) indicates that the tourist finally understood the information. It can be seen from this excerpt that the tourist did not verbally show her non-understanding after receiving an incomprehensible message, but she did so only after the checking of understanding by the staff. Therefore, the comprehension check which effectively made the previously non-obvious non-understanding apparent, led to the achievement of the conversation goal (the staff's goal to convey the HT information), and prevented HT trouble (the tourist's not realizing that she had to wait for the vehicle at the counter in order to transfer to the pier).

This research has examined the functions that CSs served in relation to increasing communicative effectiveness of ELF conversations in the HT context. Relevant information is summarized in the table below.

Table 6.1: Functions of Preemptive Strategies

Item	Function	Communication Strategy
1	highlighting prominence of the key word	self-repetition
2	explaining meaning	explication circumlocution
3	adding detail	explication
4	increasing clarity	self-repair
5	simplifying word/utterance	self-reformulation

Item	Function	Communication Strategy
6	narrowing scope	self-repair
7	ensuring accurate information	other-repetition other-reformulation confirmation check
8	making misunderstanding obvious	other-repetition other-reformulation confirmation check
9	making non-comprehension obvious	comprehension check

Based on the discussion above, the functions of preemptive strategies in increasing the effectiveness of ELF HT interaction are illustrated in the figure below.
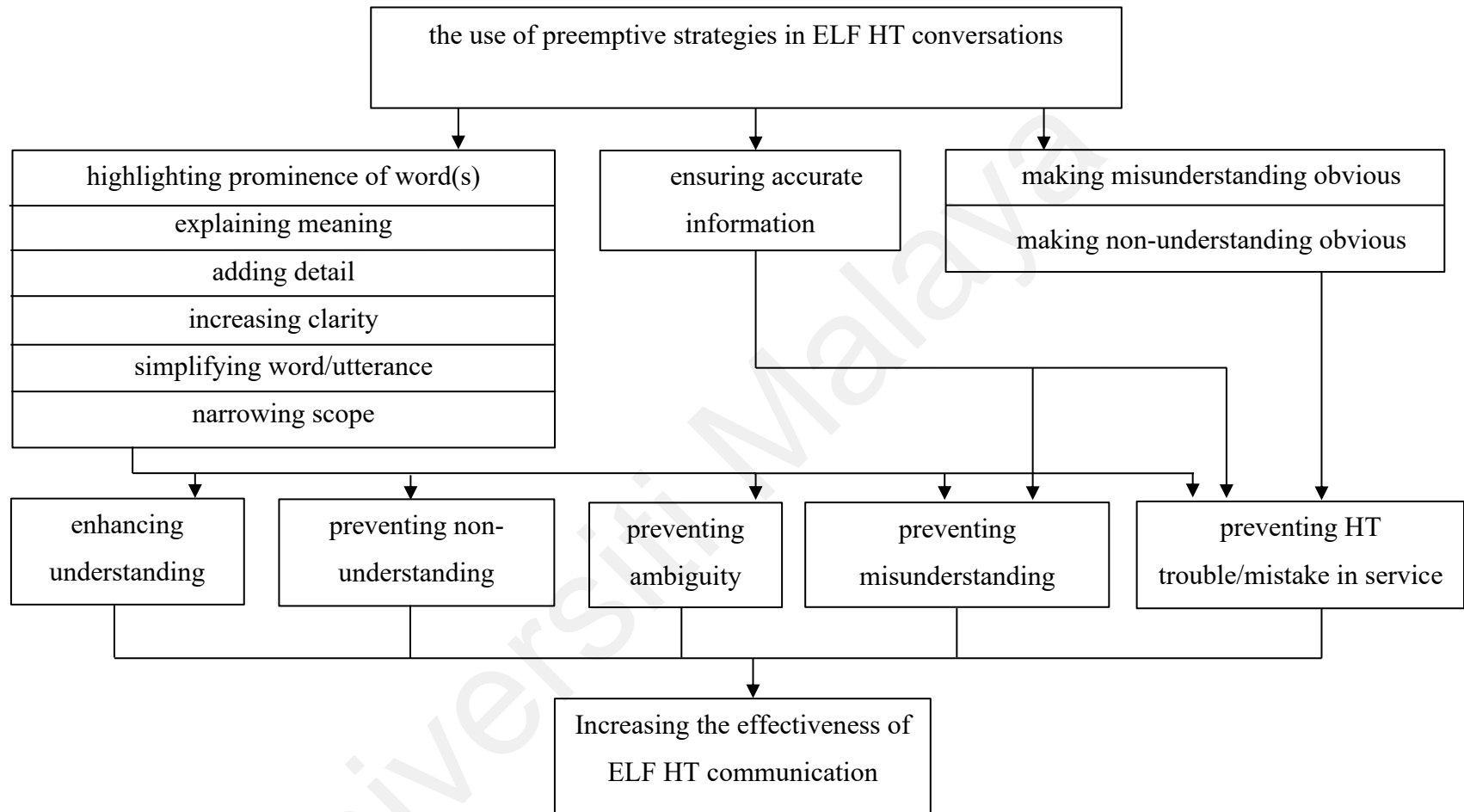
Figure 6.1: Functions of Preemptive Strategies

In conclusion, the data shows that preemptive strategies served important functions to increase communicative effectiveness and played a significant role in averting conversational challenges or HT troubles. Some of the preemptive strategies highlighted the prominence of key word(s) in the utterance, explained the meaning of word(s), added details to presented information, increased the clarity of word(s), simplified the meaning of word(s), and narrowed the scope of the meaning. This group of preemptive strategies played an important part in reducing the possibility of listeners' comprehension problems and increasing listeners' ability to grasp the meaning of the utterances. The features of the language when using the strategies potentially enhanced listeners' understanding and prevented non-understanding, ambiguity, misunderstanding, HT trouble, and mistakes in HT service (see excepts 49-57). Although some of the preemptive strategies, such as other-repetition, other reformulation, and confirmation check, did not contribute directly to enhancing the listeners' understanding they played a crucial role in helping the ELF HT speakers ensure accurate information had been conveyed and preventing miscomprehension (see excerpts 58 and 59). Sometime the preemptive strategies in this group also played a role in bringing a misunderstanding to light and preventing HT troubles and mistakes in HT service (see excerpts 60 and 61). Finally, comprehension checks did not enhance listeners' understanding or prevent miscomprehension, but effectively made non-obvious non-comprehension obvious and played a role in preventing troubles and mistakes in the provision of HT services (see the excerpt 62).

6.2   The Functions of Resolving Strategies

The data revealed that resolving strategies played an important part in addressing communicative problems in ELF HT interactions. They effectively addressed the participants' comprehension problems and helped participants to overcome low English competency or limited vocabulary. First, some resolving strategies were effective tools for expressing non-comprehension. The participants employed these CSs when they

experienced non-understanding of their interlocutor's words or utterances in order to signal the problem. According to the notion of 'third position repair' (Schegloff, 1991), the use of these resolving strategies occurred in the second position after the turn containing the problematic utterance (the first position) and before the turn containing the repair (the third position). Normally, these CSs made such non-comprehension obvious and subsequently led to the resolving of the problems by the interlocutor. Second, some resolving strategies effectively assisted the participants to overcome their difficulty in producing words or utterances. The participants used these CSs as tools to help themselves or their listeners to address difficulties in conveying the intended meaning or producing the intended utterance. They contributed to the ongoing message, clarified the meaning negotiation process, smoothed the interaction flow, and accomplished the conversation goal in spite of the speaker's limited language ability or restricted vocabulary. Finally, some resolving strategies contributed to resolving listeners' non-understanding, mishearing, misunderstanding, misinformation, or ambiguity. These strategies were used by the speakers as 'third position repair' (Schegloff, 1991), for example, to clarify, simplify, or illustrate the meaning of a word or utterance. They played a role in helping the listener to (re-) comprehend the meaning of the word or utterance after noticing an appeal for help or some other obvious problem in comprehension. The discussion below focuses on the functions resolving strategies served when communicative problems occurred in ELF HT interactions.

6.2.1 Expressing Non-comprehension

The data shows that asking for repetition, appeal for help, and clarification request were effective strategies for resolving participants' non-understanding or ambiguity. When they faced problems in comprehension, they asked their interlocutors to repeat words or utterances, appealed for assistance, asked for message clarification, or expressed their own non-comprehension. These CSs allowed the speakers to expose their problem

in understanding and made the interlocutors aware of the problems, which subsequently resulted in the interlocuters' providing them with assistance to clarify, simplify, or explicate the meaning of the problematic segment. Further, it is worth noting that the use of these CSs always led to effective problem resolution.

The use of asking for repetition was the most common method to address speakers' problems in comprehension in this context. This resolving strategy affected ELF interactions positively as a potential tool which provided the speakers with a second chance (or more) to listen to the problematic utterance. Re-receiving the utterance could enhance the listener's ability to recognize the lexical items in the utterance or grasp its meaning. Since using this strategy made interlocutors aware of the speaker's non-comprehension, interlocutors sometimes not only repeated the previous utterance but also provided meaning simplification or illustration to reinforce comprehension in the next turn. It can be said that this CS was an important tool which resulted in the resolution of non-comprehension and the achievement of conversation goals. The following excerpt depicts how the use of asking for repetition resolved a non-comprehension problem.

(63) TSC, NO.21

1	Japanese tourist (F):	*hi we want to go to [names of island]*
2	Thai staff (F):	*from this to this no have boat because weather*
3		*change*
4	Japanese tourist:	**because?**
5	Thai staff:	*weather weather (.) very much windy*
6	Japanese tourist:	*windy (.) okay*

In the Thai staff's first turn, she informed the Japanese tourist that the boat transfer to an island was out of service because of bad weather. The tourist asked the staff for repetition using *"because?"* in the next turn (line 4). This shows that the tourist did not

understand the staff's utterance in the segment which indicated the reason for the unavailable service, and the tourist therefore attempted to resolve her non-comprehension by asking the staff to repeat the problematic segment. Due to the tourist's use of asking for repetition, the staff realized the tourist's non-understanding and addressed the problem by repeating the key word *"weather weather"* and elaborating that the weather *"very much windy"* in the next turn (line 5). After the repetition, the tourist understood the meaning of the utterance as indicated by her other-repetition, *"windy (.) okay"* (line 6). The tourist's response in the last turn also indicates the effectiveness of asking for repetition as a means to flag non-comprehension so that the problem can be resolved.

In addition, the impact of both direct and indirect appeal for help was similar to the use of asking for repetition as discussed above. This resolving strategy led to the interlocutor's realization of the speaker's non-understanding and resulted in the non-comprehension being resolved by the interlocutor. The example below exhibits how appeal for help resolved the staff's non-comprehension in an ELF HT conversation.

(64) TSC, NO.468

1	Thai staff (F):	*come back er three o'clock*
2	Malaysian tourist (F):	*so they will send the same boat pick up us there?*
3		*(.) at three at the same place?*
4	Thai staff:	***i don't understand***
5	Malaysian tourist:	*i mean it the same boat pick up us there come back?*
6	Thai staff:	*yes*
7	Malaysian tourist:	*yes okay*

After the Thai staff informed the tourist of the return time from the island (turn 1), the Malaysian tourist asked the staff about the boat and the pickup point for the return trip (turn 2). In the next turn, the Thai staff expressed her non-understanding of the tourist's

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question by using indirect appeal for help saying *"I don't understand"* (line 4). It can be seen that this resolving strategy caused the tourist to repeat and shorten the question in the next turn in order to help the staff to grasp the meaning. The question was finally understood as indicated by the staff's affirmative answer in turn 5, and the tourist could receive the target HT information successfully as indicated by her response, *"yes okay"*, in the last turn.

Finally, the use of clarification request was another of the resolving strategies employed to resolve non-comprehension. This CS aided in the clarification of the problematic utterance by the interlocutor to help the speaker comprehend the utterance. The conversation that follows underscores the impact of clarification requests in overcoming ambiguity.

(65) TSC, NO.83

1	Swedish tourist (F):	*[a name of beach]?*
.		
6	Thai staff (F):	*eight hundred baht*
7	Swedish tourist:	*go and back ah?*
8	Thai staff:	*yes*
9	Swedish tourist:	*how much time is it*
10	Thai staff:	***how much time what? what time (.) what you***
11		***mean***
12	Swedish tourist:	*er: be there*
13	Thai staff:	*six o'clock last boat*
14	Swedish tourist:	*six o'clock last boat*

In the tourist's third turn, she produced a question asking the Thai staff about the duration of the tour program. The next turn shows that the staff may have found the

meaning of the pronoun *"it"* in the tourist's previous question ambiguous (whether the tourist alluded to the duration of time it would take the boat to get to the beach or the duration of time the tourist could stay at the beach). The staff resolved the ambiguity by asking *"how much time what? what time (.) what you mean"* (line 10-11) to get the tourist to clarify the meaning of the question. By using this clarification request, the uncertainty was subsequently resolved by the tourist's specification, *"be there",* in the next turn and the tourist could receive the target HT information successfully as indicated by her response, *"six o'clock last boat",* in the last turn.

6.2.2   Overcoming Difficulty in Producing a Word/Utterance

This research has found that approximation, use of all-purpose words, circumlocution, code-switching, literal translation, word coinage, self-repetition, self-repair, and other repair were significantly effective tools to help the participants overcome difficulty or inability in producing words or utterances. This is probably due to the fact that in these ELF HT interactions, the language users have English as another language and might have limited language ability or limited vocabulary, which can be a major obstacle in forming and interpreting utterances. To achieve HT goals or provide high-quality HT services, unknown word(s) or utterances sometimes need to be conveyed, inability to produce English utterances needs to be resolved, or some language anomalies need to be addressed. In the face of language difficulty or inability, these CSs played an important role in enhancing the communicative ability of the participants in this study in spite of their restricted language knowledge by maintaining the conversation, smoothing its progress, conveying the intended word, modifying previous non-understandable utterances, avoiding conversation breakdowns, and eventually achieving conversation goals.

The use of approximated words allowed speakers to convey their intended meaning in

spite of the problems in producing certain words. The data indicates that although the use of approximation resulted only in clarifying a word that was close (not exact) in meaning, it was understood by the listeners and guided the conversation towards its goal. Therefore, it can be said that approximation was one of the effective strategies which the participants used to resolve their vocabulary limitations or their failure to retrieve the most appropriate lexical item. The following excerpt illustrates how approximation helped a speaker to deliver the intended meaning during a conversation involving price negotiation of a boat ticket.

(66) TSC, NO.138

1	Indian tourist (M):	*hello (.) [a name of beach] and [a name of beach]*
2		*same island?*
3	Thai staff (F):	*same*
4	Indian tourist:	*same (.) how much **less***
5	Thai staff:	*cannot (.) only this price (.) fix price (.) it is*
6		*standard price*

In the third turn, the Indian tourist produced an utterance to attempt to negotiate the price of a tour program saying *"how much less"* (line 4). In this turn, he used the approximated word *"less"* instead of the standard word *"discount"* to attempt to negotiate a lower price on the ticket (line 4). Although the lexical item might not have been the most appropriate or the most standard word for bargaining, nonetheless its approximate meaning clarified his question, as indicated by the response of the Thai staff in the next turn. Her refusal to discount the ticket price shows that she comprehended the question well; the use of this approximation was helpful to resolve the potential communication problem when a particular word was lacking.

The impact of the use of all-purpose words when speakers lack a particular lexical item is similar to the use of approximation. When faced with restricted vocabulary knowledge, this CS helped speakers to convey the meaning, continue the conversation, and achieve the conversation goal. Although this CS resulted only in conveying the general meaning, it is observed in the data that the use of this CS did not result in ambiguity or non-understanding for the listener. Due to their awareness of the context of the utterance, listeners could surmise the meaning of a general word and thereby understand the gist of the whole message. The except below encapsulates how the use of an all-purpose word assisted the speaker with transmitting the meaning.

(67) TSC, NO.360

1	Norwegian tourist (F):	*we want to **do** the [a name of tour program] for*
2		*tomorrow (.) it has something we have to sign up*
3		*for or we just come*
4	Thai staff (F):	*If you want to go [the names of tour program] with*
5		*other people you booking one day before (.) car*
6		*pick up you in the hotel*

The first turn depicts the use of the all-purpose word *"do"* by the Norwegian tourist to book a tour program. Possibly due to the tourist's limited vocabulary, the general word was used instead of a specific verb such as *"book "or "buy"*. However, the Thai staff understood the meaning of the general word well, as indicated by her explanation of the tour booking procedure in the next turn. This excerpt indicates that the use of an all-purpose word effectively maintained the conversation and helped convey the intended meaning when a specific word was lacking.

Circumlocution is another effective tool to convey meaning when a word is lacking. Similar to approximation and the use of all-purpose words, this CS allows negotiation of

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meaning and goal achievement. The example that follows succinctly captures how circumlocution helped a speaker to reach a conversation goal in spite of restricted vocabulary knowledge.

(68) HFO, NO.232

1	Thai staff (F):	*for the bag right? (.) okay (.) two bags?*
2	Singaporean guest (M):	*yes*
3	Thai staff:	*[hotel room number]?*
4	Singaporean guest:	*yes*
5	Thai staff:	*please **write signature** for me (.) here and here*
6	Singaporean guest:	*sign*

The conversation occurred when a Singaporean guest came to the hotel front office to take his deposited suitcases. In turn 5, the Thai receptionist asked the guest to sign for it using a circumlocution describing the action and its completement *"write signature"* (line 5). The use of description here possibly occurred because the receptionist lacked knowledge of the English word *"sign"*. The other-repair performed by the guest in the next turn, *"sign"* (line 6), indicated his understanding of the circumlocution; it is evident that the description of the required action did not lead to any problem of comprehension. Instead, it helped the receptionist to convey the meaning and achieve the conversation goal (to ask the guest to sign) despite the staff's limited vocabulary knowledge.

Code-switching was the most popular CS used by participants to resolve their lack of knowledge of a particular word or inability to produce an utterance. Given their seeming restricted language ability and vocabulary, this CS allowed speakers to negotiate meaning (Cogo, 2010; Wagner and Firth, 1997). The data reveals that code-switching was effective when the listener had some knowledge of that particular language. For example, most Thai staff in all three HT sites could understand some key HT words in other languages

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(especially Chinese, French, German and Russian). In addition, it is noted that some international tourists could understand some Thai words, possibly because of their preparation before traveling to Thailand. Another reason which could explain why code-switching did not result in non-understanding or ambiguity was that the context of the utterance was adequately clear and allowed the listener to guess the meaning of the non-English word. The excerpt below exemplifies the effectiveness of code-switching during the check out process of a Chinese guest at a hotel front office.

(69) HFO, NO.80

1	Chinese guest (M):	*hello er:=*
2	Thai staff (F):	*=may I help you?*
3	Chinese guest:	退房
4	Thai staff:	退房 *(.) keycard please*

In turn 1, the Chinese guest first greeted the Thai receptionist; the prolonged *"er"* that followed suggests that the guest was searching for an appropriate word or formulating an utterance to convey his conversation goal (Liddicoat, 2011). Following the hesitation marker, the receptionist immediately took the floor to ask the guest if he required some assistance (line 2). The guest answered the tourist in the next turn using his first language *"退房"* (/tuifɒŋ/, translation: check out). It seems that the use of code-switching by the guest (line 3) was caused by his lack of knowledge of the English term *"check out"* and the absence of an alternative English lexical item to convey the meaning. Therefore, he produced a Chinese utterance to convey the meaning and achieve the goal of conversation (to check out). The receptionist's display of comprehension *"退房"* and request for the hotel keycard (line 4) in the next turn indicate that the Thai staff recognized the code-switched lexical item. It can be said that this conversation was successful because the staff was familiar with the word from the guest's first language. The guest's conversation

goal was achieved due to the fact that he risked switching his language code into his mother tongue.

From the analysis of the impact of code-switching in this ELF HT context, this research confirms that switching the language code into a different tongue when a particular word in English was lacking was effective in some instances and was thus a tool which allowed the speakers to negotiate meaning (Cogo, 2010; Wagner and Firth, 1997) in spite of their limited vocabulary. As per the discussion above, the effectiveness of code-switching depended on the listeners' comprehension of the switched word or utterance (Jamshidnejad, 2011). If the listener understands the meaning of the switched-vocabulary or if the context of the utterance is clear enough to allow them to guess the meaning of the vocabulary item, the communicative problem is resolved. However, it was apparent from the data that there were a few instances of code-switching which led to listener non-comprehension. Code-switching implies the possibility of listener non-comprehension, as when the listener cannot understand the switched word or guess its meaning from the context. The following excerpt displays the risk code-switching entails and shows how in this case it resulted in the conversation breaking down.

(70) HFO, NO.174

1	Thai staff (F):	*hello (.) hi (.) may i help you?*
2	Chinese guest (M):	*哪里 shower tub*
3	Thai staff:	*ah?*
4	Chinese guest:	*er: shower tub?*
5	Thai staff:	*shower tub? and?*
6	Chinese guest:	*shower tub*
7	Thai staff:	*shower tub?*
8	Chinese guest:	*okay okay okay (.) that's okay*

In the Chinese guest's first turn, he tried to convey to the Thai staff his conversation goal. It is obvious that he was facing a problem in retrieving an appropriate English word to convey the meaning, which resulted in a switch to his first language *"哪里"* {/na:li:/, translated: *"where"*}. The Thai receptionist's request for repetition in the form of *"ah?"* in the next turn shows that she did not understand the Chinese guest's utterance in the previous turn. Turns 5 and 7 show that the receptionist recognized the words *"shower tub?"*, but did not understand the guest's request because she did not know the Chinese word *"哪里"*. Since the guest could not explain her request in a different way, he decided to give up and terminate the interaction, as indicated by his utterance to close the conversation, *"okay okay okay (.) that's okay",* in the last turn of talk (line 8). It seems that other resolving strategies to address the difficulty in producing words such as approximation, circumlocution, or word-coinage were necessary in this situation.

The use of literal translation also allowed speakers to convey their meaning when a particular English expression was lacking or unknown. In the data, most utterances which were translated literally from the speaker's first language did not result in non-comprehension or ambiguity. Although standard English was not used, most listeners could understand or guess what the speakers were trying to convey. The following example encapsulates the effectiveness of using literal translation in HT ELF a conversation.

(71) HFO, NO.153

1	Indian guest (M):	*it is jacuzzi right?*
2	Thai staff (F):	*let me check moment ah: (.)* ***a booking for you*** {**your**
3		**booking}** *er: (6.0) you book reservation (.) you book*
4		*reservation* ***deluxe room for me*** {**my deluxe room**}
5		*(.) not grand deluxe (.) for grand deluxe with*

6		*jacuzzi and for deluxe room **no have jacuzzi***
7	Indian guest:	*no jacuzzi?*
8	Thai staff:	*yes (.) no jacuzzi (.) if you upgrade you must to pay five*
9		*hundred baht per night (.) you would like or no?*
10	Indian guest:	*no*

The staff's first turn of talk shows her use of literal translation for possessive adjectives and negative function. First, it seems that the utterances *"booking for you" ("your booking")* and *"deluxe room for me" ("my deluxe room")* (lines 2-4) were translated literally from the Thai structure describing the owner of something (*"ของเธอ"* and *"ของฉัน", "ของ"* means *"for someone"* or *"own",* and *"ฉัน"* means *"I"* or *"me", "เธอ"* means *"you"*). In addition, the negative sentence *"no have"* (line 6) was literally translated from the Thai negative structure. However, it can be seen that literal translation allowed the staff to convey meaning in spite of her limited language ability or unfamiliarity with the appropriate English structure. Furthermore, the response from the Indian guest, *"no jacuzzi?",* in the next turn serves as evidence that, although this CS resulted in non-standard forms or structures, it was comprehensible to the interlocutor and did not contribute to non-comprehension or ambiguity in the conversations.

Although the occurrence of word coinage in this context was minimal, it appeared to be an effective CS in helping speakers to convey their intended meaning when a particular word was lacking. In addition, listeners were able to understand the created word, possibly because of their basic knowledge of the use of prefixes and suffixes. Below is an excerpt showing how word-coinage helped to maintain a conversation and resulted in the conversation being successful.

(72) TSC, NO.89

| 1 | French tourist (F): | *the sea is seem very **stormly** today (.) is it safe by* |

2		*boat?*
3	Thai staff (F):	*depend where are you going*
4	French tourist:	*[a name of beach] beach*
5	Thai staff:	*[a name of beach] beach (.) safe safe*

Turn 1 shows the use of word-coinage, "*stormly*", to describe the weather by the French tourist. Although the coined-word was not a standard word used for describing weather, it appears to have conveyed the meaning of the utterance effectively. The Thai staff's responses, both in the next turn and in the final turn, indicate that she comprehended the created word. Despite facing language difficulties, the tourist's inquiry could be conveyed, the smooth progression of the conversation could be maintained, and the target HT information (about the safety of proceeding by boat to a beach despite the rough weather) could be received successfully through the use of word-coinage.

Self-repetition to gain time was another useful CSs which the participants used to resolve their difficulty in producing utterances. This CS helped the speaker to gain time when searching for an appropriate lexical item(s) or formulating an intended utterance. Compared to the manner of employing (long) pauses or keeping silent while seeking a word or forming a message, repeating the proceeding word was an advantageous CS to display the speaker's active engagement in the conversation and indicate the intention to prolong the discussion. The excerpt that follows underscores the means by which self-repetition assisted the speaker in producing a meaningful utterance.

(73) TSC, NO.282

1	French tourist (M):	*when is the **next (.) next er: next** departure?*
2	Thai staff (F):	*you wait until eight people*
3	French tourist:	*ah okay*

Turn 1 shows the use of self-repetition to gain time by the French tourist (line 1). It seems that repeating the preceding word, *"next"*, was employed because the tourist was seeking the appropriate lexical item, *"departure"*. Although this repetition may reflect some perturbation in the interaction, it nonetheless bought time for the speaker while he was searching for the most appropriate word. In addition, it played a role as a tool to express the tourist's intention to resolve his problem despite the delay in finding the intended word.

The use of self-repair could also effectively provide a more understandable message and allow for various anomalies to be addressed. This CS enabled the speakers to resolve their difficulty or failure in producing a comprehensible utterance. The following excerpt highlights how self-repair helped the speaker to produce a more comprehensible utterance.

(74) AIC, NO.8

1	Indian passenger (M):	*hello (.) i just er: in (.) i lost (1.6) I forget my card*
2		*in the bank*
3	Thai staff (F):	*you lose your atm card?*
4	Indian passenger:	*yeah*

In turn 1, the Indian passenger informed the Thai staff that he had lost his bank card. He initially produced an incoherent message *"I just er in…I lost"*, and then subsequently repaired it to *"I forget my card in the bank"* after the short pause (line 1-2). It seems that the problematic segment was caused by the passenger's difficulty in formulating the utterance. However, the message became understandable after the repair. Therefore, this is an apt example of how repair positively resolved a problem in producing an utterance.

Finally, participants used other-repair to resolve difficulty in producing utterance. However, this CS was rather different from the CSs discussed above because it played the role as assistance offered to help the interlocutor overcome a problem in forming an utterance, rather than to rectify the speaker's own problem. The use of other-repair sometimes resolved an interlocutor's word search or difficulty in forming an utterance. This is evident in the next example where other-repair decreased the interlocutor's difficulty and brought about the achievement of the conversation goal.

(75) HFO, NO.36

1	Indian guest (M):	*i need the two bed room ah: (.) er: two:=*
2	Thai staff (M):	*=**you need two separated bed***
3	Indian guest:	*yes (.) two separated bed*

Turn 1 depicts the Indian guest's difficulty in conveying his intended message to request a twin room. Possibly because of the Thai staff's experience in this matter, he understood the nature of the guest's request and immediately repaired the utterance in the next turn in order to help him produce the utterance. It can be seen in the excerpt that the Indian guest's conversation goal became clear and understandable; consequently, the conversation became smooth after the Thai staff's repair of the guest's utterance.

6.2.3 Resolving Listeners' Problems in Comprehension

It is found in the data that self-repetition, self-reformulation, explication, and circumlocution were effective tools to resolve a listener's non-understanding, ambiguity, mishearing, or misunderstanding. Generally, these CSs were employed as "third position repair" (Schegloff, 1991). They were positioned after the turn in which the listener indicated an understanding problem. This study also observed that most of these CSs affected the conversation positively by clarifying, simplifying or illustrating a word or utterance, which remedied the listener's problems in comprehension.

The use of self-repetition provided prominence and clarity to the utterance or its key words. Most of the time, the use of this CS was successful, especially as a solution to rectify a listener's difficulty in understanding different accents. The speaker's self-repetition increased the listener's ability to understand lexical items which were pronounced in an unfamiliar way. The instance below clarifies how the use of self-repetition resolved the listener's non-understanding in conversation.

(76) HFO, NO.32

1	Indian guest (M):	*do you have costume for swimming pool?*
2	Thai staff (M):	*pardon?*
3	Indian guest:	***costume costume costume (.) for swimming***
4	Thai staff:	*no have*
5	Indian guest:	*we have to get it ourselves*
6	Thai staff:	*yes*

Turn 1 shows the Indian guest's utterance asking the Thai receptionist about the availability of a swimming suit. The use of the CS asking for repetition in the form of *"pardon?"* by the receptionist in the next turn indicates that he did not understand the guest's question. The guest addressed the problem by means of repeating the key word *"costume"* thrice in the next turn. Due to the clarity and the prominence of the key word provided in the guest's self-repetition, the Thai staff was finally able to understand the guest's inquiry as indicated by his response in the negative in the next turn. Also, the guest's target HT information (about the swimming suit service) was successfully completed because he used self-repetition as a means to resolve the receptionist's non-comprehension problem.

This research confirms that the use of self-repetition was effective, and it impacted the ELF HT conversations positively as a tool to resolve comprehension problems and

enhance the listener's understanding. However, a few conversations in the data show that the use of self-repetition was sometime ineffective in addressing the listener's non-understanding in cases where the listener was confronted with an unknown lexical item(s). It is found that self-repetition to resolve a listener's non-comprehension was only effective when it was used to resolve difficulty in understanding unfamiliar accents. Despite knowing the meaning of certain words, hearing them in different accents sometimes caused non-comprehension which the repetition of the words over and over would normally help. However, it seemed that the speaker's recycling of unknown words could not always help the listener to overcome their non-understanding and could not lead to goal achievement. In this case, speakers needed to try another CS to address the listener's problems in comprehension. The conversation that follows demonstrates the ineffectiveness of self-repetition as a resolving strategy in addressing a listener's unfamiliarity with particular words.

(77) TSC, NO. 336

1	Thai staff (F):	*when you get at the beach (.) you must to pay four*
2		*hundred baht more.*
3	Russian tourist (F):	*why*
4	Thai staff:	*for the national park fee*
5	Russian tourist:	*for?*
6	Thai staff:	***for national park fee (.) national park fee***
7	Russian tourist:	*for?*
8	Thai staff:	*for the tax*
9	Russian tourist:	*oh (.) okay*

In turn 1, the Thai staff informed the Russian tourist that she had to pay a fee when she arrived at the beach. In turn 2, the tourist asked the staff the reason for the fee; the staff

answered the tourist's question in the next turn saying *"for the national park fee"*. However, the tourist's request for repetition, *"for?"* (line 5), in the next turn indicates her non-understanding of the staff's previous utterance. The staff, realizing the tourist's non-comprehension, repeated the utterance twice in the next turn to help the tourist grasp the meaning of the utterance. However, the problem still persisted after the self-repetition, as indicated by the second request for repetition by the tourist in the next turn. It seems that the tourist's non-comprehension was not caused by the unfamiliar English accent. Instead, she did not understand the message probably because she did not know the meaning of the term *"national park fee"*. Therefore, the staff subsequently resolved the problem in the next turn by using another resolving strategy, i.e., self-reformulation (line 8). The last turn shows that the tourist was able to understand the meaning of the utterance after the lexical items were reformulated. While self-repetition was effective when it was used to enhance the listener's ability to recognize differently pronounced lexical items in an utterance, it was sometimes ineffective when the listener faced unknown words.

Reformulating the problematic word or utterance was another one of the constructive strategies which helped resolve the listener's non-comprehension. This CS provided an alternate form of the non-understood word or utterance, and enhanced the possibility of the listener's understanding and the resolving of non-comprehension. In addition, sometimes this CS resulted in message simplification. The instance below captures how self-reformulation resolved a listener's non-comprehension.

(78) TCS, NO.270

1	Thai staff (F):	*you have to pay **national park fee** three hundred more*
2		*over there (.) national park fee*
3	Spanish tourist (F):	*sorry?*
4	Thai staff:	*national park fee (1.5) **the tax (.) tax tax***

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5	Spanish tourist:	*we have to pay: (.) to pay tax on the island*
6	Thai staff:	*yes (.) per person more*

Turn 1 shows the utterance of the Thai staff to inform the tourist about the national park fee. However, the tourist did not understand the staff's utterance and asked for repetition in the next turn. The staff repeated the key information in the next turn, but did not receive any response from the tourist after the repetition. She continued the turn and reformulated the words *"national park fee"* to *"tax"* after a 1.5 second pause and repeated it twice. After the lexical reformulation, the tourist displayed her understanding in the next turn and mentioned the word *"tax"* in her utterance. This shows that the staff's utterance finally became understandable because of the reformulation of the problematic term.

Further, the use of explication furnished the listener's utterance with illustration and was an effective tool to resolve the listener's problem in comprehension. By using this CS, the listener could receive an explanation, example, illustration, definition, or spelling of the unintelligible word or utterance. This could enhance the listener's ability to grasp the meaning of the problematic utterance. The following excerpt displays how the use of explication helped to resolve the listener's non-understanding.

(79) HFO, NO.203

1	Thai staff (M):	*and inside your room we have minibar (.) all of this*
2		*free of charge (.) we will serve just one time per day (2.7)*
3		*minibar inside your room for free*
4	Indian guest (M):	*mini?*
5	Thai staff:	**minibar like a: some snacks some soft drinks in the fridge**
6		*(.) everything for free*
7	Indian guest:	*okay*

Turn 1 shows the Thai receptionist's utterance to inform an Indian guest about a facility, which is, the minibar. In the next turn, the guest showed his non-understanding of the meaning of the word "minibar" when he asked for repetition, saying *"mini?"*. The receptionist noted the guest's non-comprehension and resolved the problem by giving examples of the minibar items saying *"like a: some snacks some soft drinks in the fridge"*. The explication was designed to help the tourist understand the unknown word *"minibar"* (line 5). The use of this CS allowed the guest to visualize the object in his mind and realize the meaning of the utterance. The efficacy of using this CS is indicated by the guest's response showing his understanding of the message in the last turn of talk. This indicates that he now understood the meaning of the word *"minibar"* because of the explication.

Resolving circumlocution describing a thing or action was also used as a tool to make explicit the meaning of non-understood words. The effect of this CS was similar to the use of resolving self-reformulation and explication in providing a word's meaning and illustration, as well as enhancing a listener's understanding. The following excerpt indicates how circumlocution positively affected a listener's comprehension and resolved non-understanding.

(80) HFO, NO.110

1	Dutch guest (M):	*do you have laundry?*
2	Thai staff (F):	*say it again sir*
3	Dutch guest:	*er:* **wash the cloth**
4	Thai staff:	*ah: wash your cloth (.) you can go down stair*
5	Dutch guest:	*yep (.) thank you*

This conversation occurred between a Dutch guest and a new Thai receptionist at the hotel front office. In turn 1, the Dutch guest produced an utterance to ask the receptionist for information about a laundry service. In the next turn, the receptionist showed her non-

understanding of the guest's previous utterance using the CS asking for repetition in the form of *"say it again sir"*. The staff's non-comprehension problem might have been caused by her restricted vocabulary, her limited experience as a receptionist, or possibly difficulty in understanding the Dutch guest's accent. Whatever the reason, to resolve the staff's non-understanding and achieve his conversation goal (to receive information about the laundry service), the guest chose to describe the action and its completement *"wash the cloth"* (line 3), after the turn displaying the problem, to illustrate the meaning of the problematic word. By employing circumlocution, the tourist resolved the staff's problem in understanding and received the target HT information successfully, as indicated by the staff's delivery of information relating to the location of the laundry service in the next turn.

In conclusion, ELF speakers in this context actively employed CSs to resolve communicative problems. Generally, the functions of resolving strategies were observed in three aspects: CSs which made the speakers' comprehension problems apparent and led to these problems being resolved by interlocutors, CSs which attempted to increase the listeners' understanding after evidence of trouble in comprehension, and finally CSs which helped the participants in producing the intended message in spite of limitations of language ability and vocabulary. The table below summarizes the functions of these resolving strategies.

Table 6.2: Functions of Resolving Strategies

Item	Function	Communication strategies
1	signaling non-comprehension	asking for repetition appeal for help clarification request

Item	Function	Communication strategies
2	overcoming difficulty in producing word/utterance	approximation use of all-purpose words circumlocution code-switching literal translation word coinage self-repetition self-repair other-repair
3	resolving listeners' problem in comprehension	self-repetition self-reformulation explication circumlocution

The figure below shows how the use of resolving strategies could enhance the effectiveness of communication in ELF HT interactions in Thailand.
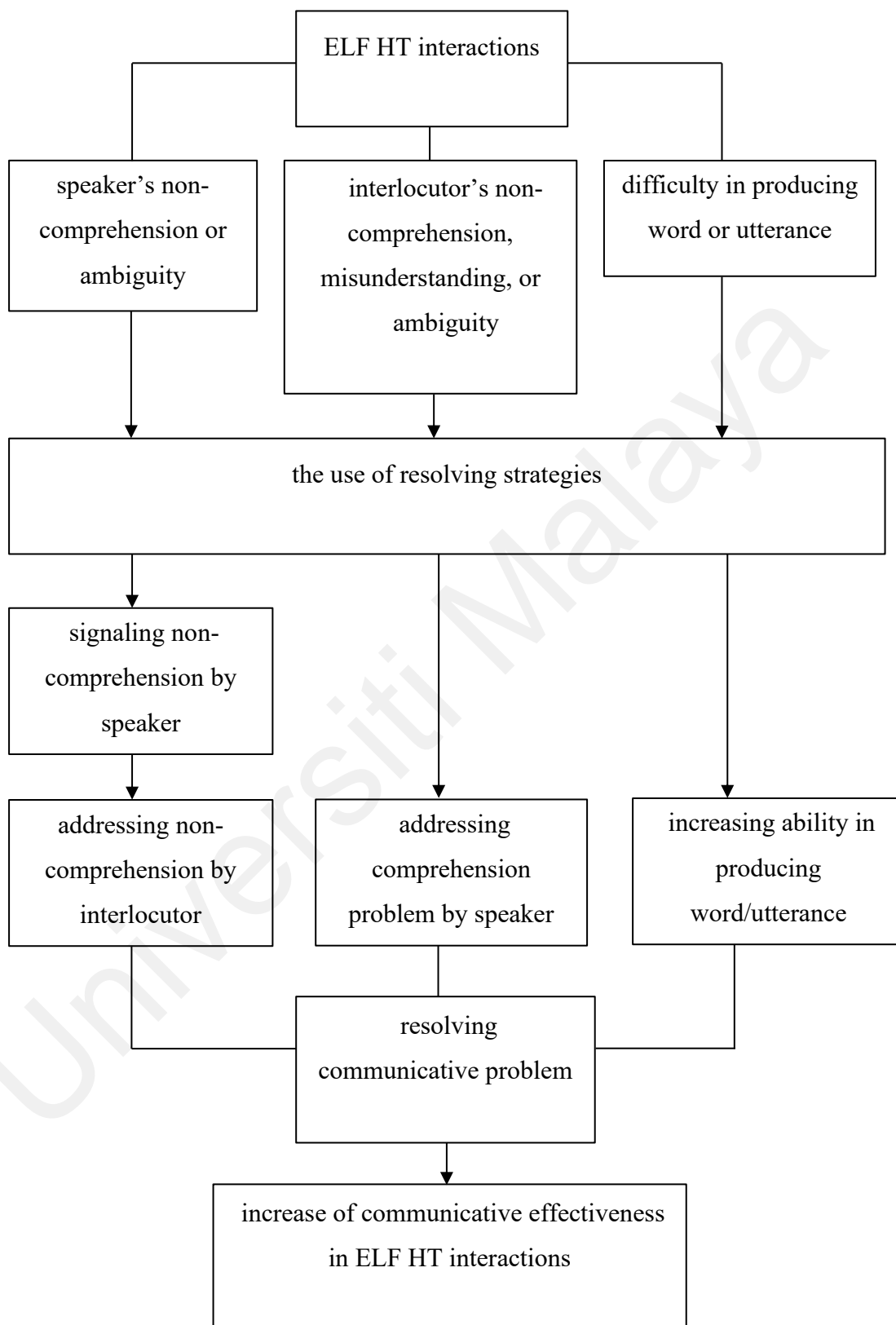
Figure 6.2: Functions of Resolving Strategies

Resolving strategies served several functions to address communicative problems. Firstly, some resolving strategies played an important role in helping ELF speakers signal problems in comprehension, and the display of non-comprehension led to the problem being resolved by their interlocutors (see excerpts 63-65). Secondly, the speakers' use of resolving strategies helped their interlocutors to overcome non-understanding, misunderstanding, and ambiguity (see excepts 76-80). Finally, resolving strategies played a major role in helping speakers to overcome difficulties in producing words or utterances due to limitations in language competence and vocabulary. They potentially increased the speakers' ability to form the word or utterance and to convey understandable messages to their interlocutors (see except 66-75).

In conclusion, the use of CSs played an important role in increasing the effectiveness of communication in these ELF HT settings. Multicultural interaction is challenging due to the varied use of English and the varying levels of language users' competence. The use of CSs, both preemptive and resolving, potentially enhanced the smooth flow of interactions, helped the speakers to fulfill their conversation goals, and played a role in enhancing the quality of HT services.

CHAPTER 7: RESULTS

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES AWARENESS LEVELS

This chapter presents the analysis of the interview data to address research question 4, which pertains to the level of the participants' awareness of their use of CSs (Dörnyei and Scott, 1995; Færch and Kasper, 1985). The findings from the Thematic Analysis are discussed in this chapter. The analytical framework (Clark and Braun, 2006), which represents the participants' level of CSs awareness and the definition of each pattern of meaning is explained. Finally, the result of the analysis, which focuses on the participants' awareness of CSs, is discussed with interview extracts.

7.1 Analytical Framework of Communication Strategies Awareness Level

The themes to answer research question 4 were built after the process of transcribing and coding the interview data (see 4.10.3). In this process, all the codes were (re)-read, and some codes were combined and shifted into larger frames of meaning or into one theme (Clark and Braun, 2006). The final analysis shows that there were five themes which could potentially answer the research question, as presented in the diagram below.
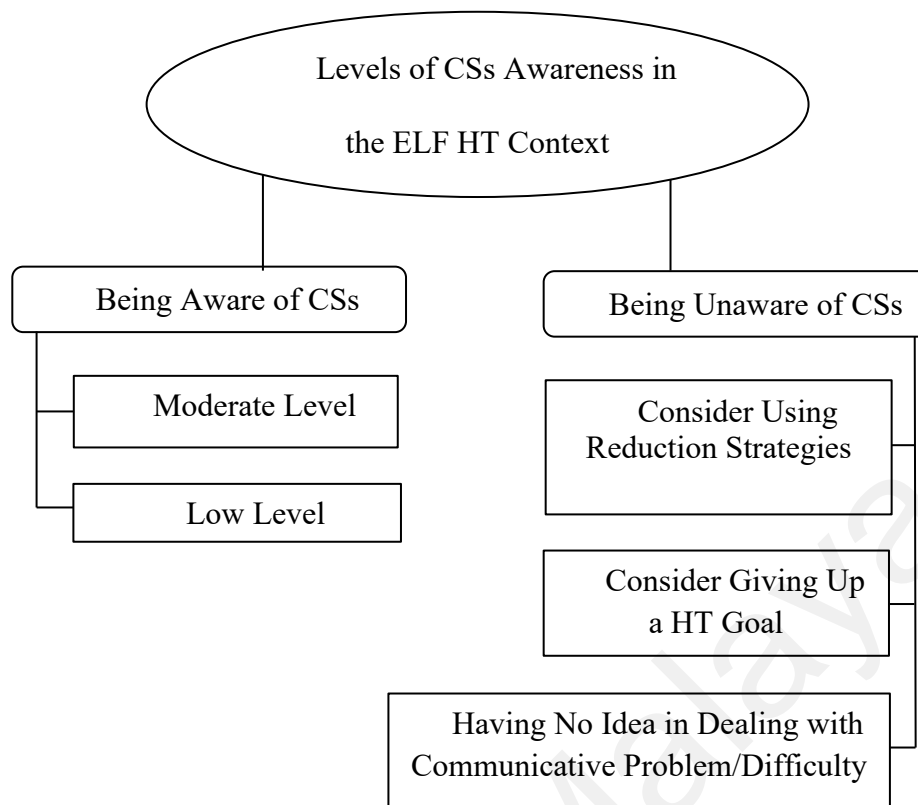
Figure 7.1: Participants' CSs Awareness Level Framework

Based on the interview questions (which asked the participants about their experiences and perspectives on ways to deal with communicative problems or difficulties) (see appendix D), the participants' answers in the interviews reflect both their awareness and unawareness of CSs. Interesting extracts were coded and categorized into the five themes which were labeled (1) "Aware of the need to use CSs", (2) "Aware of the need to use CSs to some degree", (3) "Unaware of the need to use CSs and consider using reduction strategies, (4) "Unaware of the need to use CSs and consider giving up on the communication", and (5) "Unaware of the need to use CSs and ignorant of ways to deal with communicative problems or difficulties". The definition of each theme is presented in the table below.

Table 7.1: Definition of the Themes

No.	Theme	Definition
1	"Aware of the need to use CSs"	the participants' answers reflected their experience, knowledge, and awareness of using CS(s)
2	"Aware of the need to use CSs to some degree"	the participants' answers reflected their experience, knowledge, and awareness of using CSs but they consider using reduction strategies or giving up the HT goal if the CS was ineffective
3	"Unaware of the need to use CSs and consider using reduction strategies"	the participants' answers reflected their lack of knowledge and awareness of using CSs; they would avoid a particular topic or abandon a preceding message if a communicative problem or difficulty occurred
4	"Unaware of the need to use CSs and consider giving up on the communication"	the participants' answers reflected their lack of knowledge and awareness of using CSs; they would quit the interaction if a communicative problem or difficulty occurred
5	"Unaware of the need to use CSs and ignorant of ways to deal with communicative problems or difficulties"	the participants' answers reflected their lack of knowledge and awareness of using CSs; they showed lack of

No.	Theme	Definition
		knowledge of ways to deal with communicative problems or difficulty"

7.2 Analysis of Interview Data

Research question 4: "What is the participants' level of awareness of CSs?"

Five themes which reflect the participants' level of CS awareness emerged from the TA, and these can be used as potential answers to research question 4. The discussion below shows the answers of participants with regard to their awareness level of CSs in this ELF HT context.

Theme 1: Aware of the need to use CSs

The participants in this context were aware of the need to use CSs. They knew that CSs are tools to deal with communicative problems or difficulties. They reflected on their experience of using CSs and realized the effectiveness of CSs. Furthermore, they perceived a need to use CSs when communicative problems occur instead of simply using reduction strategies or giving up on HT goals. The excerpt below reflects CS awareness on the part of a Thai receptionist.

(IV1) HFO, NO. 1

Interviewer:	*"in your opinion, what is the best way to deal with communicative problems or difficulties?"*
Thai receptionist (M):	(translated from Thai) *"for me most of the time I use translator application … but if there is no Internet I will communicate with the guest until my goal is achieved such*

<blockquote>
<p>as I will use the simple word I know to convey the meaning
or if the tourists don't understand me I can reformulate the
sentence or I can repeat the sentence again"</p>
</blockquote>

It is clear that the receptionist knew of and was aware of the need to use "self-reformulation" and "self-repetition". In his answer, he mentioned these two CSs as solutions to help resolve his listeners' problems in comprehension. Furthermore, the utterance *"I will use the simple word I know"* might reflect his awareness of "approximation" or "use of all-purpose words", because this *"simple word"* might include the use of general words or close-meaning words. The excerpt below shows that a Belgian tourist was also aware of the need to use CSs.

(IV2) TSC, NO.12

Interviewer:	*"what will you do if you don't understand the Thai staff?"*
Belgian tourist (F):	*"er… what did I do…mostly I just say excuse me? something if I don't understand very well and er … most of the time I didn't understand"*
Interviewer:	*"okay … and what will you do if the staff don't understand you?"*
Belgium tourist:	*"well … I try identify different word or I try to point at thing … I identify some words and also I use the [name of translator application] one"*

First, the Belgian tourist's answers reflect her experience in and awareness of using "asking for repetition" (as indicated by *"I just say excuse me?"*). The extract shows that she is used to asking for repetition to resolve her own non-comprehension in HT ELF interactions. Furthermore, the tourist was aware of and knew how to use "self-reformulation" to resolve a listener's non-comprehension. She also realized that there are several other ways which could effectively resolve communicative problems, including

the use of body language or translator applications. Importantly, she counted the use of "self-reformulation" as one of the best ways in addressing communicative problems. Finally, the utterance *"I identify some words"* might indicate her awareness of using "explication" or "circumlocution". The excerpt below shows how a Polish tourist was aware of the need to use CSs.

(IV3) TSC, NO. 23

Interviewer:	*"what will you do if you don't understand the Thai staff"*
Polish tourist (M):	*"I ask … I ask them to repeat … yep"*
Interviewer:	*"okay and what will you do if the staff does not understand you"*
Polish tourist:	*"I try to show like … I try to use different words"*
Interviewer:	*"in your opinion, what is the best way to deal with communicative problems or difficulty?"*
Polish tourist:	*"maybe try to describe or show something"*

The interview excerpt shows that this Polish tourist had knowledge and awareness of using resolving strategies: asking for repetition, self-reformulation, and circumlocution. First, he showed his awareness of "asking for repetition" in order to resolve his own non-comprehension. Furthermore, he thought of "self-reformulation" as a strategy to resolve his listener's non-understanding. Finally, he mentioned *"try to describe"* as the best way to deal with communicative problem and difficulties. This reflects that he was aware of and had positive attitudes toward the use of "circumlocution".

Theme 2: Aware of the need to use CSs to some degree

The data indicates that some participants had knowledge and awareness of the need to use CSs, but also consider using reduction strategies or giving up on conversation goals. Most of the extracts which were coded under this theme were participants' answers which reflected their awareness of the need to use a CS to resolve communicative problems, but

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also indicated a willingness to give up the conversation if that CS was ineffective. The example below shows the low awareness level of CSs of a South African tourist.

(IV4) TSC, NO. 28

| Interviewer: | *"what will you do if the Thai staff does not understand you"* |
| South Africa tourist (M): | *"so we just try to repeat slowly and just to try with the hands…and then if it not work that we can say it's okay…very difficult"* |

It can be seen that the South African tourist was aware of the need to use "self-repetition" to help resolve his listener's non-comprehension. However, his willingness to give up on the conversation goal if the use of self-repetition was unsuccess (as indicated by *"then if it not work that we can say it's okay … very difficult"*) indicates his low level of CSs awareness. In fact, there are other CSs which can be used to resolve listener non-comprehension and enhance understanding such as the use of self-reformulation, circumlocution, or explication. But it seems that this tourist was unaware of such CSs, and was only familiar with self-repetition as a tool to resolve listener non-understanding. The extract below shows the low level of CS awareness of a Canadian passenger.

(IV5) AIC, NO.38

| Interviewer: | *"what will you do if you cannot convey your message? like you don't know how to say in English?"* |
| Canadian passenger (M): | *"some time I use the translator on my phone or we just ask question or the last thing is just forget it…yeah"* |

The utterance *"we just ask question"* by the passenger here suggests asking an interlocutor for assistance when he faces difficulty in producing an utterance. Therefore,

it seems that this passenger was aware of "appeal for help" as a CS. However, he said he would give up on his conversation goal if the appeal for help was not effective, as indicated by his utterance *"or the last thing is just forget it…yeah"*. In fact, the passenger could also use other CSs such as explication, circumlocution, general purpose words, approximation, or code-switching to convey an intended message if the appropriate language was lacking. However, it seems that such CSs were unknown to this participant.

Theme 3: Unaware of the need to use CSs and consider using reduction strategies

Some participants in this context were unaware of the need to use CSs and mentioned topic avoidance and message abandonment as ways to resolve communicative problems or difficulties. The extract below shows a Thai ticket seller's unawareness of CSs as it reflects her intention to avoid communication when difficulties arise.

(IV6) TSC, NO.2

Interviewer: *"what will you do if you don't understand the tourist?"*

Thai Ticket seller (F): (translated from Thai) *"most of the time I avoid to communicate…if I don't understand then I avoid"*

This extract shows that the Thai staff was not aware of the need to use CSs. She did not mention any strategy to maintain a conversation or achieve communicative goals when facing non-comprehension. However, to offer good services, a tourist's target HT information or HT service should be supplied, and if the tourist's utterance is incomprehensible, it should not be ignored by the Thai staff. Although the use of topic avoidance allows the staff to refrain from participating in difficult interactions, it terminates or impairs the conversation and results in unachieved goals. It is found in the ELF interaction data that the use of topic avoidance in ELF HT interactions was rare but that when it was used it affected communication negatively. The excerpt below shows the

unawareness of CSs of a Thai ticket seller, her use of topic avoidance, and the ineffectiveness of the communication due to the use of the reduction strategy.

(81) TSC, NO.302

8	Chinese guest:	*is there some kind of beach which are not with the national*
9		*park fee*
10	Thai staff:	*just [a name of beach 1] and [a name of beach 2]*
11	Chinese guest:	***are there coral reef because we were there yesterday (.)***
12		***we didn't see any (3.2)***
13	Thai staff:	***you see information [a name of beach 2] [a name of beach***
14		***3] [a name of beach 4] national park four hundred baht***

In turn 1, the Chinese tourist asked the Thai staff for information about beaches which did not require payment of a national park fee. The staff answered the tourist's question in the next turn. Then, the tourist changed the topic of talk to ask the receptionist if there were coral reefs at these beaches. The staff kept silent for 3.2 seconds before taking a turn and producing an utterance which led the conversation back to the topic of the "national park fee" in the next turn (lines 13-14). It appears that the staff avoided the topic of "coral reef in the beach". The avoidance here might have occurred because the staff did not know the meaning of the lexical items *"coral reef"*, did not understand the entire utterance, or had trouble understanding the tourist's Chinese accent. The reluctance to respond indicates that she might not have understood the question. However, instead of using effective CSs such as asking for repetition, clarification request, or appeal for help to resolve the non-comprehension, the staff avoided the conversation topic and chose to limit her participation to a topic with which she was familiar and about which she felt she could communicate well. The use of topic avoidance in this conversation meant that the conversation was ineffective to some extent, especially in relation to the tourist's

achievement of his conversational goal (to receive information about the coral reef at the beaches). The interview extract below shows another participant's unawareness of the need to use CSs.

(IV7) HFO, NO.33

Interviewer: "*what will you do if you cannot convey your message? like you don't know how to say in English?*"

Russian guest: "*I can't speak then I don't speak…I don't know…yeah*"

The Russian guest's answer reflects his lack of CS knowledge and awareness. Based on this answer, there is strong possibility that this speaker will abandon a message if faced with a problem in producing an utterance. Instead of making use of CSs which can help in producing utterances such as code-switching, circumlocution, explication, literal translation, approximation, use of all-purpose words, or word coinage, it seems that he is likely to abandon the message if he is unable to continue the utterance. Although message abandonment helps the speaker to avoid difficulty in producing problematic utterances, it affects conversations negatively especially in terms of the speaker's conversation goal. The excerpt below shows lack of CS knowledge leading to message abandonment.

(82) HFO, NO. 256

1	Chinese guest (F):	*bag*
2	Thai staff (F):	*bag (.) your bag?*
3	Chinese guest:	*er:*
4	Thai staff:	*bag (.) what is bag?*
5	Chinese guest:	*er: bag* {the conversation ended}

In turn 1, the Chinese guest produced a single word to convey her message. The second turn shows that the receptionist was unclear about the guest's conversation goal. It seems

that the guest provided inadequate lexical items to convey clear meaning to the receptionist. Incidentally, there was more than one service in the hotel which related to the word *"bag"*, such as bag deposit service, luggage carrier, laundry bag, bin bag, or hairdryer bag. However, turns 3 and 5 show that the guest could not explain specifically which service she wanted due to her language inability. More importantly, she did not employ any CSs to convey her meaning. Instead of using CSs such as approximation, explication, circumlocution, or code-switching to convey the message, she chose to abandon the message, walked away, and gave up on her conversation goal. By using message abandonment due to a lack of CSs awareness, the conversation was unsuccessful and the guest could not achieve her HT goal.

Theme 4: Unaware of the need to use CSs and consider giving up on the communication

In addition, some participants in this context stated that they would give up on or change their HT goal if they were faced with communicative problems or difficulties. This theme is different from theme number 3 above in terms of the participants' consideration of reduction strategies. In the present case, the participants stated their intention to abandon their HT goal because of some communicative problems such as listener non-comprehension or difficulties understanding the Thai accent, but they did not mention that they would avoid a particular topic or abandon the message. It seems that the only solution which they identified as a way to resolve their communicative problems was a reduction of their initial goal or giving up on communicating. The excerpt below shows how an Indian tourist had low CSs awareness and expressed an inclination to give up on interacting.

(IV8) TSC, NO.6

Interviewer: *"what will you do if the Thai staff does not understand you?"*

Indian tourist:	*"I will smiling and walk away because if you are talking the same thing in English and try to convey the message but he or she never understand that"*

In the extract above, the Indian tourist stated that she would give up on the attempt to communicate if she found that the listener did not understand her utterance. It seems that she believed that there was no way to resolve her listener's non-comprehension, and that she would walk away if she faced such a problem. The answer reflects the tourist's unawareness of CSs such as self-reformulation, circumlocution, or explication which can help to enhance listener understanding and resolve non-comprehension. The extract below shows unawareness of CSs on the part of a Russian tourist who stated that he would give up on attempting to communicate.

(IV9) TSC, NO.9

Interviewer:	*"what will you do if you don't understand Thai staff?"*
Russian tourist:	*"if I don't understand er…nothing…just do nothing…it hard it very hard…they don't speak English…everybody speaks Thai accent I don't understand"*
Interviewer:	"*okay…well and what will you do if you cannot convey your message? like you don't know how to say in English?"*
Russian tourist:	*"again…I just do nothing"*

The Russian tourist's answers reflect his lack of awareness of CSs to deal with non-comprehension problems (e.g., asking for repetition, clarification request, or appeal for help) and difficulties in producing utterances (e.g., explication, circumlocution, word-coinage, approximation, or use of all purpose-word). He said he would give up on the conversation if he could not understand the interlocutor's Thai accent or produce an intended utterance. Although giving up on the HT goal allows the participant to avoid

difficult communicative situations, his HT goal or his target HT information would have to be abandoned because of his lack of CSs. The conversation below shows a German passenger's unawareness of using CSs and his decision to give up on acquiring his target HT information because he had difficulty communicating with the Thai staff in English.

(83) AIC, NO.308

1	Thai staff (F):	*hello*
2	German passenger (M):	*speak german?*
3	Thai staff:	*english please*
4	German passenger:	*english* {the conversation ended}

From the excerpt above, it is obvious that the passenger came to the information counter with a particular HT goal. In the second turn, he asked about the Thai staff's ability to communicate in German. In the next turn, the staff informed the passenger that he needed to communicate in English. The passenger repeated the word "English" in the next turn and ended the conversation. Instead of using CSs to explain his conversation goal, he gave up on receiving his target information and walked away from the counter. His action indicates that he lacked awareness and knowledge of CSs to deal with difficulties in producing intended utterances such as explication, circumlocution, word-coinage, approximation, or use of general-purpose words.

Theme 5: Unaware of the need to use CSs and ignorant of ways to deal with communicative problems or difficulties

Finally, it was found that some participants in this context lacked ideas about how to deal with communicative problems or difficulties. They stated that they had no idea about ways to resolve their own or their interlocutor's non-comprehension or to achieve communicative goals when faced with limited language ability. It can be said that this group of participants lacked knowledge and awareness of the need to use CSs. The extract

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below shows a Finnish guest expressing lack of knowledge of ways to deal with communicative problems and difficulties.

(IV10) HFO, NO.18

Interviewer: *"in your opinion…what is the best way to deal with communicative problem or difficulty"*

Finnish guest: *"what is the best way…er…I don't know…hahaha"*

The answer shows the guest's unawareness of CSs. His answer reflects the fact that he did not know how to employ strategies to resolve or avoid communicative problems, how to achieve communicative goals despite limited language proficiency, how to resolve his own non-comprehension, or how to help his interlocutor overcome non-understanding. The excerpt below shows an Italian passenger's unawareness of CSs.

(IV11) AIC, NO.29

Interviewer: *"what will you do if the Thai staff does not understand you?"*

Italian passenger: *"that one I don't know what to do"*

Interviewer: *"okay, and if you don't understand the staff what will you do?"*

Italian passenger: *"to say don't worry…I don't know"*

The Italian passenger's answers reflect lack of knowledge of ways to help address an interlocutor's non-comprehension (e.g., self-repetition, self-reformulation, explication, or circumlocution) and of ways to resolve his own non-understanding (e.g., appeal for help, asking for repetition, clarification request).

7.3 Conclusion

The ELF speakers in the ELF hospitality and tourism context in Thailand had different levels of CSs awareness. With the use of TA to analyze the participants' CSs awareness level, this research categorized the participants into five groups. The first group

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comprised participants who had awareness of CSs. They reflected knowledge, awareness, and experience of using CSs in their interview responses. Furthermore, the extracts reflect their positive attitude towards CSs. They realized the effectiveness of CSs and stated that they use CSs to resolve communicative problems and difficulties. The second group consisted of participants who had low levels of CS awareness. The participants in this group were aware of the need to use CSs, but stated that they would employ reduction strategies or give up on conversations if the CSs did not help. The third group was made up of individuals who were unaware of the need to use CSs and mentioned reduction strategies as tools to resolve their communicative problems. They stated that they would avoid topics they felt were difficult to talk about or abandon messages if they felt unable to produce meaningful utterances. The fourth group was composed of participants who were unaware of the need to use CSs and stated that they would give up on communicating when faced with communicative problems. The participants in this group did not indicate an intention to avoid a particular topic or abandon a message, but instead stated an intention to abandon the interaction altogether, either when their listeners did not understand their question or when they could not understand their Thai interlocutors' accent. The final group consisted of communicators who were unaware of the need to use CSs and indicated a complete lack of knowledge of ways to deal with communicative problems or difficulties. For example, they did not know how to help to resolve their listeners' non-comprehension, they were not aware of the need to use CSs to resolve their own problems of understanding, and they had no idea of how to achieve conversation goals in contexts of limited language proficiency.

Although the ELF interaction data shows that the participants commonly used CSs to avoid and resolve communicative problems, and the use of reduction and abandonment strategies was rare, the analysis of interview data conducted thematically and qualitatively reveals that there were some participants who had low CS knowledge and awareness and

others who lacked CSs to deal with communicative problems in ELF interactions. Both sets of data presented here indicate that having low or zero awareness and knowledge of the need to use CSs leads to unsuccess communication and unachieved goals.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1　Summary of the Findings

This thesis reported on an investigation of communication strategies in lingua franca interactions in selected hospitality and tourism settings in Thailand. It focused on the strategic moves that international tourists and Thai HT staff made to preempt and resolve communicative problems. The study concerned the speakers' ability to enhance intelligibility and increase communicative effectiveness in multicultural HT communication.

Based on the findings of the study, it appears that all research objectives have been achieved (see research objectives, section 1.3, page 7). The summary of the research findings is presented according to the research objectives, as follows:

8.1.1　The Frequency of CSs

The findings of this research indicate that ELF speakers in ELF HT setting use a wide range of CSs to preempt and resolve communicative problems in conversations. The use of preemptive strategies was more frequent than the use of resolving strategies; it is highly likely that the use of resolving strategies was less frequent than the use of preemptive strategies because of the infrequent occurrence of communicative problems in this setting. The findings reflect the fact that the ELF HT speakers commonly used CSs to prevent possible communicative breakdown whereas they used resolving strategies when facing difficulties in communication.

8.1.2　The Use and the Functions of CSs

ELF HT speakers used preemptive strategies in various ways to ensure the accuracy of their own comprehension and that of their interlocutors. Such strategies were employed to avoid possible misunderstanding, mishearing, nonunderstanding, ambiguity, or HT misinformation. The most common CS which the speakers used to prevent

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communication difficulties in this setting was that of comprehension checking; this was to check the accuracy of understanding. Speakers repeated utterances they had just heard spoken by their interlocutors in an earlier turn (other-repetition); reformulated their interlocutors' previous utterances (other-reformulation); or asked their interlocutors to confirm the accuracy of their understanding (confirmation check). The speakers' use of these CSs seemed motivated by the need to display their understanding to their interlocutors and check whether the understanding achieved was accurate and matched the HT information provided. This category of preemptive strategies often led to the speakers' understanding to be confirmed by their interlocutors and enhanced speakers' confidence in their own comprehension after the confirmation. In addition, these strategies sometimes made misunderstandings apparent and prevented practical tourism-related difficulties arising or mistakes in HT service occurring.

The second most frequently used preemptive strategies in this setting were CSs which the speakers used to enhance and secure interlocutors' understanding. To avoid problems in comprehension, speakers actively adopted various practices to increase their interlocutors' ability to grasp the meaning of words or utterances. Self-repetition was the CS used most frequently for this purpose. The speakers repeated HT key words to highlight important HT information, and provide their interlocutors with a second chance (and sometimes more) to listen to the information. Preemptive self-repetition appeared to be designed to prevent interlocutors' nonunderstanding, especially when interlocutors were faced with an unfamiliar English accent. The speakers also explicated the meaning of words used by defining terms or giving examples of things or situations. This CS potentially explained the meaning of words or added details that were related to the meaning of words. Therefore, explication appears to have at times prevented interlocutor incomprehension possibly caused by limited vocabulary or language proficiency of interlocutors. Moreover, to reduce the incidence of interlocutors failing to understand,

speakers reformulated earlier words or utterances using simpler synonyms. The use of self-reformulation provided other forms of words or utterances and was a potential tool to simplify the meaning of the message for the interlocutors. The speakers also repaired utterances to make their meaning more explicit or narrow. Ambiguous utterances, inappropriate word choice, or the use of lexical items with broad meanings might lead to ambiguity. However, self-repair could potentially prevent such problems. Circumlocution was the least frequently used preemptive strategy to enhance interlocutors' understanding. Although the strategy of describing a thing or action can effectively enhance listeners' understanding and prevent problems in comprehension, it was uncommon among the participants of this study to choose this CS as a preemptive strategy. Finally, ELF speakers in this setting checked their interlocutors' understanding to ensure that they had received a message successfully. This CS helped speakers to verify interlocutors' comprehension. More importantly, it played a role in making hidden misunderstandings come to light.

Resolving strategies were used differently depending on the communicative problems that the speakers were facing. The most frequently used resolving strategy in this setting was asking for repetition. This may have been because most communication problems in this setting related to the listeners' failure to understand a speakers' word or utterance; such failures led to frequent instances of asking their interlocutors to repeat the word or utterance to resolve the incomprehension. The speakers also employed appeal for help and clarification request to resolve their nonunderstanding, but these strategies were used less frequently than asking for repetition. These findings indicate that ELF HT speakers preferred to ask their interlocutors to repeat a problematic word or utterance when confronted with nonunderstanding rather than informing them that they had not understood or asking them to clarify the meaning of the problematic segment. The findings of the research reveal that asking for repetition, clarification request, and appeal

for help were the tools most often used to signal a speakers' incomprehension or need for language help, and the use of these strategies frequently led to the resolving of the nonunderstanding by interlocutors.

The findings also reveal that resolving strategies played an important part in resolving speakers' problems in producing words or utterances. When they were hampered by limited vocabulary or an inability to form words or utterances, they employed CSs to overcome such problems. The resolving strategy which the speakers used most often to convey their meaning when they did not know a word in English was code-switching. That is, when they could not find an English word to convey their intended meaning, they often switched the language code into their mother tongue. From a traditional ELT perspective, code-switching might be classified as a language error, and even putting this aside it is a risky CS since its success depends on the listeners' understanding of the switched word(s) (Jamshidnejad, 2011). However, unsurprisingly, most Thai staff in this ELF HT setting were observably able to understand some HT keywords in other languages. Likewise, some international tourists were observed to be able to understand basic Thai words, possibly due to preparations they had made before traveling to Thailand or the result of previous visits. Therefore, code-switching in this ELF HT context was often a helpful way for the speakers to convey their message despite their limited vocabulary, and it did not generally lead to the listeners' incomprehension. In addition to code-switching, the speakers sometimes used words with approximate or general meanings to attempt to convey the meaning of the missing word (approximation and use of all-purpose words); they also described the thing or action to convey an unknown verb or noun (circumlocution) or coined a new English-like word using a suffix (word coinage). Word coinage was the least frequently used CS to convey the meaning of words they were unable to produce. It was rare for the ELF HT speakers to create a new English word when they confronted difficulty in finding an appropriate word to convey meaning.

The findings of this research show that this group of CSs – code-switching, approximation, use of all-purpose words, circumlocution, and word coinage – played an important part in enhancing the speakers' ability to produce utterances to convey their intended meaning given their restricted vocabulary resources and lack of ability to use the language.

The findings of this research reveal that ELF HT speakers often borrowed language forms or structures from their first language to produce unknown or unfamiliar English functions. The Thai HT staff frequently applied Thai language structure to English sentences (i.e., transliterated) when needing to create negative sentences, questions, sentences with possessive pronouns, or other simple sentences such as sentences to describe the weather. Language forms resulting from the use of literal translation did not result in problems of comprehension in the conversations observed in this research. On the contrary, transliteration was an effective tool which helped speakers to convey their meaning in spite of unknown or unfamiliar English forms or structures. Furthermore, when speakers were having difficulty in finding a word to convey their meaning, they repeated preceding word(s) to gain time to produce complete utterances. Repetition was used not only to gain time to retrieve an appropriate lexical item, but was also to express the speakers' intention to resolve the problem despite the delay in locating the intended word. Repair was another CS that ELF speakers used to resolve their difficulties in producing English utterance. Both self-repair and other-repair were used as resolving strategies in this setting. Speakers repaired their own utterances when they judged that they had initially produced an incomprehensible message due to issues such as mispronunciation, poor word choice, or false starts. This CS increased the quality of the utterance and made the meaning of the message more explicit and transparent. Importantly, it was used as a tool to help speakers resolve their own language infelicities and provide more understandable words or utterances for their interlocutors. The use of

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other-repair also played a role in helping speakers overcome difficulties in producing English utterances. Interlocutors took the floor to repair the speakers' utterances if they judged that the interlocutors were having trouble formulating them. Thus, interlocutors sometimes provided language assistance to the speakers, which potentially enhanced the smooth flow of the conversation.

Speakers used self-repetition, self-reformulation, explication, and circumlocution to resolve their interlocutors' problems of comprehension. Repetition was the most frequently employed CS used by speakers to resolve interlocutors' nonunderstanding of words or utterances. After observing signals of comprehension problems on the part of their interlocutors, speakers often attempted to help them to understand the problematic segment by repeating the whole utterance or the keyword(s), sometimes more than once. This allowed the interlocutors to rehear the problematic word or utterance and resolve the nonunderstanding or misunderstanding. Such repetition appeared to generally resolve the interlocutors' comprehension problems, especially when an interlocutor's lack of understanding was caused by difficulty in understanding the speaker's accent. Difficulties in understanding unfamiliar English accents were commonly resolved if speakers provided listeners with an opportunity to listen to the utterance again. To resolve their interlocutors' problems in understanding, speakers also sometimes reformulated problematic words or utterances by presenting them in a different or simpler form. This CS potentially simplified the problematic utterance and resolved the interlocutors' comprehension problems. Explication was also sometimes used to resolve interlocutors' problems in comprehension. The HT ELF speakers defined the meaning of problematic words, spelled words out, or gave examples which related to the meaning of the earlier problematic segment. The impact of explication was similar to that of self-reformulation in that it was able to increase listeners' ability to grasp the meaning of the message and resolve problems of comprehension. Finally, speakers sometimes described

characteristics of things or actions when particular words (noun or verbs) were unknown by their interlocutors. Although circumlocution was the least frequently used CS to resolve the interlocutors' comprehension problems, it was able to resolve interlocutors' nonunderstanding in a manner similar to the use of self-repetition, explication, and self-reformulation.

8.1.3 The Awareness Level of CSs

This research also investigated the CS awareness levels of the ELF speakers in this HT setting. The findings indicate that the ELF HT speakers sampled had varying levels of CS awareness. The speakers may be divided into three groups. The first group comprised ELF speakers who appeared to be highly aware of the usefulness of CSs and seemed to use them frequently to deal with difficulties in ELF HT conversations. The interviews reflected their knowledge of CSs, their experience in using CSs, and their positive attitude towards CSs. The second group identified by the researcher consisted of speakers who used CSs to some degree. These speakers appeared to be aware of CSs and used them to some degree, but tended to employ reduction strategies such as avoiding a particular topic or abandoning an unfinished message or giving up on communication altogether if the use of such CSs was not successful. The final group was made up of ELF HT speakers who were not aware of the benefits of using CSs. The interview answers of these speakers reflected their lack of CS knowledge and their lack of experience in using them. The speakers in this group tended to reduce or abandon their conversation goals if they confronted communicative problems. For example, they used reduction strategies, gave up on communication altogether, or displayed minimal familiarity with ways to deal with communicative problems. The results of the research show that although some ELF speakers in HT setting used CSs to enhance communicative effectiveness, others lacked CS knowledge and awareness in this context. This lack of awareness might reduce the

range of strategies available to them and curtail their ability to deal with communicative problems.

8.2   Implications of the Research Findings

This study investigated CSs in authentic hospitality and tourism settings in Thailand. The findings of this research expand on existing knowledge of the phenomenon of CSs which are particularly used by ELF speakers in HT settings. The findings of this study have implications for ELF knowledge base, for pedagogy, and for the local HT community. These implications are dealt with in separate subsections below.

8.2.1   Implications for ELF Knowledge Base

Investigations of the language used by multilingual speakers in the ELF context have been underway for several decades. Scholars have examined and explained the ways in which ELF speakers use language to negotiate meaning in real-world conversations. This study adds to knowledge in the ELF field, and suggests implications for the ELF academic community by providing a better understanding of the strategic moves which ELF HT speakers employ to enhance communicative effectiveness in multicultural interactions. The implications for ELF knowledge base are explored in more detail below.

The findings of this research reflect a key characteristic of ELF communication in the HT setting. ELF HT speakers strive to maximize their intelligibility for the benefit of their interlocutors, emphasize conversation goals over language correctness, and employ a wide range of CSs to prevent problems in communication and resolve them when they manifest. The findings of this research support the findings of earlier studies by noting that in ELF conversations, mutual understanding appears more important than producing native-like English (Nomnian, 2014; Sirikhan and Prapphal, 2011), and CSs are frequently used by ELF HT speakers to enhance intelligibility and achieve communicative goals in ELF interactions (Jaroensak, 2018; Van, 2015; Wilson, 2018).

This study also reveals that ELF HT speakers need to use both "preemptive" and "resolving" strategies to enhance communicative effectiveness in intercultural HT communication. Conversations in the ELF HT setting examined in this study displayed various CSs that speakers used to prevent and resolve communicative problems, which support the view that both CS types affect ELF HT communication positively by enhancing the effectiveness of communication. However, the inventory of CSs associated with communication in this setting would benefit from further expansion. The findings of this research indicate that some CSs which have generally been neglected by ELF scholars, such as asking for repetition, circumlocution, appeal for help, and literal translation, are authentically used in the ELF HT conversations, and more importantly, significantly influence the effectiveness of the communication.

The findings of this research also support the view that most of the CSs used in ELF HT conversations are used for the purpose of preventing possible communicative problems, i.e., for prevention, while the use of CSs for resolving problems is less frequent. This research suggests that the use of preemptive strategies, which is very common among ELF speakers in HT settings, aims to prevent problems in comprehension and difficulties in tourism experiences. The findings of this study and the relative infrequency of resolving strategies in conversations confirm the effectiveness of preemptive strategies in reducing the possibility of problems in communication in ELF HT conversation.

This research provides evidence that resolving strategies are effective tools which ELF HT speakers use to overcome communicative problems and difficulties. Importantly, this research suggests that such strategies are indispensable to resolve problems in comprehension and overcome the speakers' limited language proficiency, limited vocabulary resources, and difficulties in multicultural communication. It is confirmed by this research that, although CSs such as code-switching, literal translation, or word coinage are likely to be seen as errors in traditional ELT and are not commonly used by

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native speakers in native speaker communities, they can be effective tools to negotiate meaning between speakers in ELF HT communication.

The findings of this research also support the view that, to achieve conversation goals in HT settings, speakers' ability to deploy suitable CSs take precedence over speakers' language proficiency (Björkman, 2010). The speakers in this setting use English as a second or third language, and they have to communicate with interlocutors who are from different linguistic backgrounds. This means they may have limited ability to use English and may face some challenges in intercultural communication such as varied accents and unfamiliar English usage patterns. However, in spite of the difficulties in communicating seen in these ELF settings, the breakdown of conversations was rare. One possible explanation for this may be that the use of CSs filled the gap between the restricted language abilities of the ELF speakers and their language needs in communication. The findings of this study confirm that even ELF speakers with low language abilities can communicate effectively and achieve conversation goals successfully if they have the ability to employ CSs (Kwan & Dunworth, 2016). For example, when listeners were unable to understand their interlocutors, their ability to use CSs to flag the problem or ask for language help increased the possibility of the problem being resolved by their interlocutors. In the same way, when speakers faced difficulty in producing utterances in English, their ability to use CSs helped them to convey their message in spite of their limited vocabulary. CSs were also helpful when competent speakers interacted with interlocutors who had poor language abilities. For example, CSs helped speakers to enhance their interlocutors' understanding and resolve non-comprehension (which may occur when listeners have poor listening skills or language competence). The speakers' ability to use self-repetition, self-reformulation, explication, and circumlocution helped resolve their interlocutors' comprehension problems. Therefore, this research suggests

that the success of communication in ELF HT settings depends far more on participants' abilities to use CSs than on language proficiency.

8.2.2 Implications for Pedagogy

It has been proposed that ELT should move from focusing on the native English speaker context to focusing on an international context (Dewey, 2014). English language teachers, trainers, and curriculum designers should prepare language learners not only for conversations with native speakers but also for conversations in English between speakers from or in the outer and expanding circles (Kachru, 1985). In other words, language learners ought to be taught how to interact with nonnative speakers of English, not only with native speakers. The findings of this research have implications for ELT, TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language), and TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) courses which prepare language learners to encounter real-life ELF HT situations such as courses with names such as "English for hotel staff" or "English for tourism".

This research has revealed that CSs play an important role in enhancing communicative effectiveness in multicultural HT interactions. Therefore, this research claims that to enhance language learners' ability in communication in the ELF HT setting, it would be beneficial to acknowledge the importance of CSs in language classes. As noted above, Thais' English proficiency is not generally regarded as high, possibly due to the monolingual nature of Thai society (Kirkpatrick, 2010) or unsuccessful attempts to develop Thai learners' English proficiency in schools (Baker, 2012). However, it would be advantageous if Thai speakers could be prepared to communicate effectively in ELF HT settings despite their low English language abilities. CSs potentially fill the gap between Thai speakers' restricted language proficiencies and their needs in communication. CSs help speakers to convey their meaning, resolve problems in

comprehension, ensure understanding, and avoid communication breakdown. Language educators in Thailand and other countries who are preparing their language learners to encounter ELF HT interactions are advised not to ignore the usefulness of CSs. Such strategies may be taught in language classes to develop learners' communicative abilities.

In fact, instruction on CS use is not only helpful for speakers with low language proficiency: high proficiency language learners may also benefit from training in CS use. Having good English might enable speakers to communicate effectively when interacting with native speakers of English, but communication in ELF settings is different. In ELF settings, the speakers face different English accents, varied English usage patterns, and interlocutors who may have low language proficiency. The ability to use CSs helps even high-proficiency speakers to communicate effectively when faced with unexpected communicative situations. For example, CSs help speakers to enhance or ensure interlocutors' understanding, and importantly, can be effective tools that assist interlocutors when faced with comprehension problems. Having high English proficiency but lacking skills to resolve interlocutors' problems in comprehension or being unaware of ways to facilitate the understanding of low-ability interlocutors might lead to unsuccessful communication outcomes. The present research argues that CSs are useful for all learners regardless of proficiency level. Learners at every level of language proficiency, including high-proficiency language learners, can be trained to use CSs to develop their communicative ability, particularly in ELF HT interactions.

Furthermore, this research suggests that both preemptive and resolving strategies ought to be taught in language classes to develop language leaners' communicative ability. Recent CS training in language classes has mainly targeted the resolution of communicative problems and difficulties (Kongsom, 2016; Maleki, 2010; Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh, 2014), while preemptive strategies have been largely ignored by ELT practitioners. However, this research underscores the importance of preemptive strategies

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in enhancing communicative effectiveness, decreasing the possibility of communicative problems, and increasing the possibility of communicative success. Language educators are advised not to neglect the utility of preemptive strategies; on the contrary, it would be advantageous to instruct language learners on how to preempt possible troubles in communication. Language learners may benefit from being trained to use keyword repetition to highlight important information and prevent listeners' problems which may be caused by their difficulties in understanding unfamiliar English accents or recognizing the meaning of utterances which are correctly formulated and words which are correctly inflected. This research recommends that learners be trained to use language to enhance their interlocutors' understanding before the occurrence of comprehension problems by, for example, reformulating or explicating the important word(s) used. In addition, language learners might benefit from learning how to repair ambiguous words or utterances and use CSs to adjust their utterances to prevent listeners' uncertainty or nonunderstanding. The use of preemptive circumlocution is currently rare in ELF HT settings. However, given its effectiveness, the use of circumlocution should ideally occur more frequently in such settings. The skill of describing a thing or action to enhance listeners' understanding could be more strongly emphasized in language training and teaching. Furthermore, language learners could be trained to check their own understanding using CSs, and to this end the functions of other-repetition, confirmation checking, and other-reformulation should be taught. Also, highlighting the fact that the use of preemptive strategies could reduce their own difficulties when traveling or engaging HT services would be beneficial. Finally, learners may benefit from being made aware that checking their interlocutors' comprehension is common, and is potentially a way to uncover any nonunderstanding.

This research also proposes that the resolving strategies identified in this research could be taught in language classes to increase the possibility of communicative success

when learners face problems in communication. Language learners should be prepared to deal with unexpected communicative difficulties in ELF HT contexts. In order to prepare language learners to resolve their own incomprehension in ELF HT conversations, they should be encouraged to display their lack of understanding or ask for language help from their interlocutors, and to support this, practices that signal comprehension problems such as asking for repetition, appealing for help, and requesting clarification should be taught. Moreover, language learners may benefit from practice in using language to help their interlocutors overcome comprehension problems. If their interlocutors face difficulty in understanding different English accents, language learners could employ CSs to help their interlocutors overcome the problem through the use of self-repetition of key words, explication, or even spelling out the problematic lexical items. If interlocutors do not know the meaning of important words in the speakers' utterances, self-repetition and spelling will not help to resolve the incomprehension. In such cases, speakers will need to develop the ability to help resolve their interlocutors' nonunderstanding by reformulating problematic words using simple synonyms, explicating the meaning of the problematic words by giving definitions or examples, or describing things or actions to clarify the meaning of the words. To increase the possibility of resolving communication problems, language learners need to be familiar with and adept at employing more than one CS to resolve their interlocutors' nonunderstanding. Finally, language learners would benefit from developing the ability to produce meaningful words or utterances and convey them clearly and effectively despite the limitations in their language proficiency and vocabulary knowledge. They should be made aware of the potential effectiveness of approximation, use of all-purpose words, circumlocution, code-switching, literal translation, and word coinage. If a lexical item is irretrievable but the intended meaning needs to be conveyed, learners could be trained to use words which have approximately the same meaning or even words which have general meanings, or to describe things or

actions to convey the meaning of the unknown word. Furthermore, language learners should be made aware that when they have trouble producing correct English forms and structures they may, in ELF HT situations, resort to using structures taken directly from their mother tongue, or even translate expressions from their native language word for word into English. This is because utterances transliterated from other languages to English may still convey enough meaning to be understood. Likewise, language learners should be taught to risk switching to their first language and using a word from that language if they cannot produce an English word that is essential to their message. Since code-switching in ELF HT conversation is often effective, it would be beneficial if language learners were not taught to avoid code-switching. If code-switching is unsuccessful because the interlocutors do not understand the foreign word, learners can employ one or more of the aforementioned CSs such as circumlocution, approximation, or use of all-purpose words. Therefore, language learners can be trained to use a wide range of CSs to increase their ability to overcome difficulties in producing English utterances. Although word coinage is rarely used in ELF HT contexts, it can be effective and potentially convey the message. Thus, the use of prefixes and suffixes with root words could be taught, and language learners should be made aware that creating new English words is permissible in certain circumstances and in line with the inventiveness and fluidity of English. Coined words can convey meaning effectively in ELF HT settings. Finally, language learners would benefit from developing the ability to repair their own or their interlocutors' utterances, especially ambiguous utterances, and false starts to enhance the smooth flow of the conversation.

The CSs above can be taught explicitly or implicitly (Dörnyei, 1995). Teachers can instruct learners directly on the language used to produce CSs, including CSs' types, values, and functions. This research suggests that teachers should devise activities such as role-plays, impromptu question-and-answer sessions, or chatting online with foreign

friends from abroad after the explicit instruction of CSs to allow learners to practice using them. The inexplicit instruction of CSs, on the other hand, can include the use of OSGD (Observed Small Group Discussion), a teaching technique proposed by Hino (2018). In using OSGD, a group of 4 students will be tasked with having a discussion on a given topic in front of the class while observed by their other classmates in terms of their communicative problems, the CSs they use, the efficiency of the use of those CSs, and the like.

Finally, this research suggests that language learners' ability to use CSs could be subjected to assessment and evaluation. Language learners who are preparing to enter HT careers could be assessed mainly on their ability to communicate. The language norms used to assess such learners should be flexible. The criteria on which assessments are based might include the ability to use CSs to negotiate mutual understanding and the ability to signal, resolve, or preempt communicative problems. The assessment instruments could include tasks which allow the ability of learners to communicate to be assessed; such tasks include role-play, impromptu question and answer, debate, and the like. Compared to multiple-choice tests or other paper-based tests, this kind of test allows evaluators to assess learners' ability to convey their intended meaning and deal with unexpected communication situations. Even CSs not commonly used in native speaker communities such as literal translation, code-switching or word coinage may be considered acceptable in the assessment of ELF language learners if such strategies potentially help learners convey their meaning. Learners who use non-lexical items with question intonation such as *"em?"* or *"ah?"* to request repetition are not necessarily low-ability speakers. As this research has indicated, the effectiveness of these abbreviated methods of asking for repetition is similar to that of full and correctly formulated repetition requests. Language tests in communicative classes should therefore be based on authentic conversations in authentic target settings. Assessment which emphasizes

intelligibility and the use of CSs to enhance the effectiveness of communication is necessary for learners who are going to be part of the ELF HT community.

8.2.3   Implications for the Local HT Community

This research investigated CSs used in unscripted, authentic ELF HT conversations in Thailand. The findings of this study have implications for local ELF HT speakers, human resource management teams in local HT companies, and the Thai government.

First, it is suggested that ELF speakers prepare themselves to communicate in HT settings by paying attention to CSs. Before traveling to Thailand, ELF tourists should ideally pay attention not only to identifying attractive places to visit, local food to try, and other interesting HT activities to do, but also to how to communicate effectively with Thai staff who have different linguistic backgrounds from them. It would be beneficial for them to think beforehand of ways to prevent possible communicative problems or to resolve communicative troubles during interactions with Thai staff. To do so, CSs should be employed. For example, it would be beneficial for international tourists to consider ways to enhance the understanding of Thai staff and prevent potential communication problems caused by accents which may be unfamiliar to Thai staff. In addition, they should familiarize themselves with a number of resolving strategies to overcome communicative problems. Some HT keywords or basic words in the Thai language should be learned in order to ready themselves for code-switching in conversation. Likewise, Thai staff engaged in the HT sector should have the ability to enhance the quality of their service by employing preemptive strategies and resolving strategies. It would also be useful for them to learn a number of key HT words in other major languages to prepare themselves to deal with any code-switching by the tourists. Preparing to communicate effectively by familiarizing themselves with various CSs prior to joining the ELF HT community would be helpful.

The HT industry in Thailand is prominent, but the communicative ability of Thai HT staff is not regarded as high (Charunsri, 2011; Prachanant, 2012). To resolve such problems and enhance the quality of service provided by Thai staff, the Thai government and local HT human resources departments should devote more attention to CSs. In addition to promoting various local attractions, food, or other HT activities, the communicative ability of Thai staff should be enhanced to make a good impression on international tourists and improve the image of the Thai tourism industry. Although the language proficiency of Thais is not generally regarded as high, and the attainment of reasonable levels of proficiency in languages such as English among them seems to be problematic (Baker, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2010), instruction in CSs would be useful as it may enhance their communicative effectiveness despite their restricted language knowledge. The Thai government and local HT human resources are thus encouraged to enact policies and put in place training sessions that familiarize Thai staff with the use of CSs. Enhancing Thai staff's communicative ability by applying CSs, both preemptive and resolving, would enhance the quality of the service they provide and maintain or enhance the popularity of the Thai HT tourism industry.

8.3   Recommendations for Further Research

This study investigated the use of various CSs in selected ELF HT settings in Thailand. The findings of the research cannot be generalized to the HT settings in other parts of the world. Nevertheless, the researcher believes that the findings of this research can pave the way for more research into the study of CSs in ELF HT conversations with a view to providing research-based guidance to those involved in the Thai tourism industry.

This study was conducted under time limitations, and it was not possible to collect data from a broad range of HT contexts. In addition to investigating the use of CSs in hotel front offices, tour service counters, and airport information counters, the investigation of

CSs in other HT sites is suggested. Based on the observations presented here, it appears reasonable to assume that CSs may be used in other HT settings in Thailand as well, including for example in restaurants, tour guide situations, and rock climbing, kayaking, diving, massage, spa, and Thai boxing contexts. It is envisaged, for example, that the use of CSs would be obvious in conversations between foreign tourists and boatmen, street food sellers, and taxi drivers, to name a few. Investigating CSs in such unique HT sites might uncover subtleties in the contextualized use of CSs which is absent in this research. The investigation of the characteristics of CSs in a range of additional HT sites might lead to a better understanding of CSs, both generally and in particular settings, which in turn may be beneficial for the further development of ELF HT speakers' communicative ability through instructional programs.

In addition to the CSs categories which have been proposed in this study, the use of other CSs in the ELF HT setting should be explored. Since the data collection process of this study was limited by the lack of permission to use video recording, this research was unable to investigate non-verbal CSs, which must be analyzed visually. Therefore, the use of CSs related to the use of body language, such as gestures, facial expressions, and other non-verbal communications should be undertaken by further studies in ELF HT settings in order to shed further light on the issue of the actual and potential use of CSs in the Thai tourism industry.

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