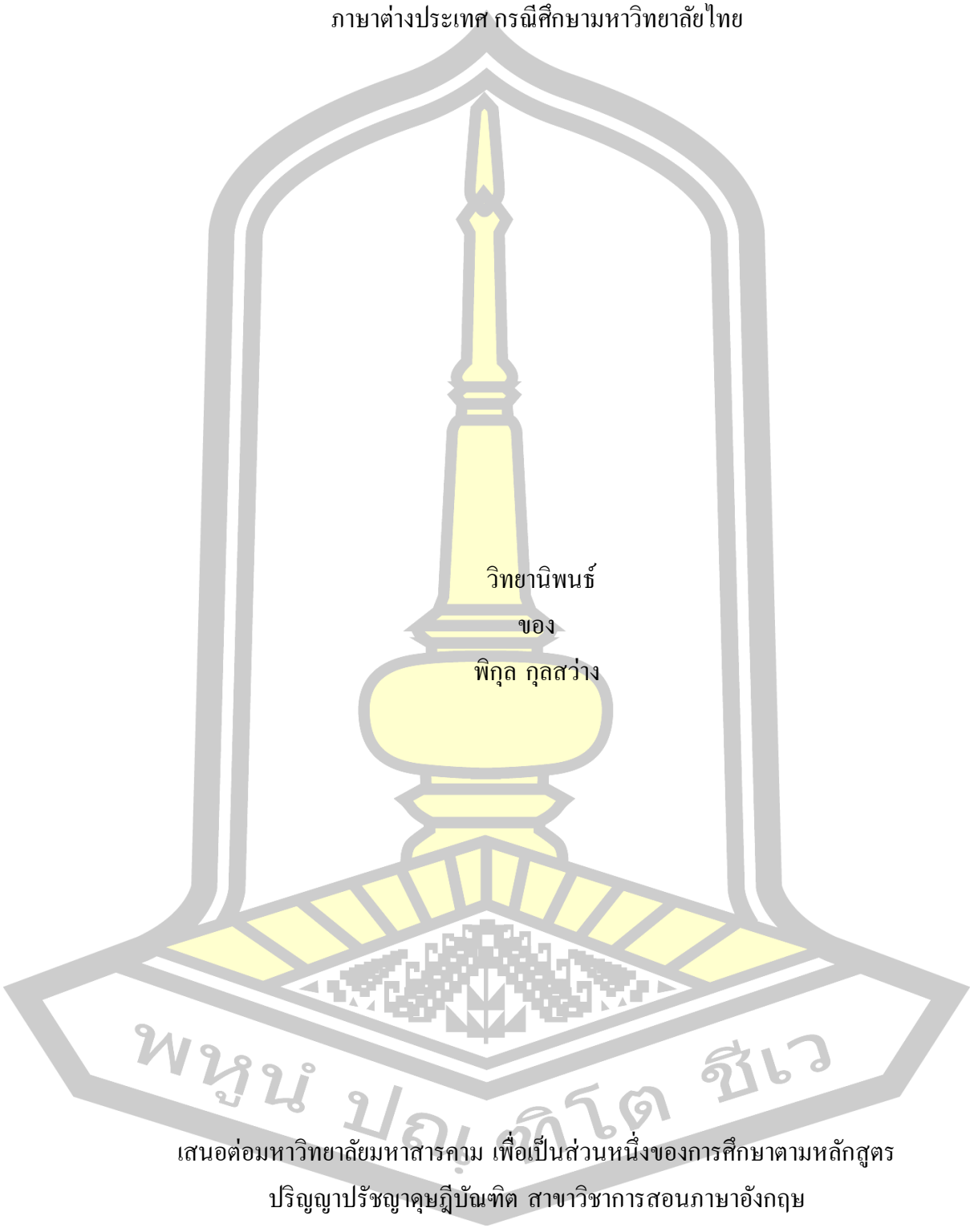
Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Foreign Language Classroom Interaction in a Thai University Setting

Pikul Kulsawang

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for
degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Teaching
October 2025

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October 2025

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The examining committee has unanimously approved this Thesis, submitted by Miss Pikul Kulsawang , as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy English Language Teaching at Mahasarakham University

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the application of Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a foreign language classroom interactions in a Thai university setting. The study seeks to (1) examine the use of IPSs by teacher and students in the classroom, (2) investigate how such interactants resource IPSs to resolve communication problems during teaching and learning in the classroom, and (3) explore interactants perceptions of IPSs in the classroom

Adopting a qualitative research design, the study collected empirical data from naturally occurring classroom interactions in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting. Two primary data collection methods were employed: classroom observations and semi-structured interviews. Observations, supported by audio recordings and detailed field notes, captured the real-time use of IPSs by both teacher and students, offering contextualized insights into interactional practices. In parallel, interviews provided reflective perspectives on participants' attitudes and experiences regarding IPSs usage. The data were analyzed using qualitative methods. Discourse analysis was applied to the observation transcripts to investigate how IPSs functioned in resolving communication challenges. Meanwhile, interview data were subjected to qualitative content analysis to extract recurring themes and deepen the understanding of participants' perceptions.

Findings revealed that both the teacher and students employed a diverse range of IPSs. These included commonly recognized strategies such as repetition (RPT), repair (RP), clarification (CRF), prompting (PT), and guessing (GS), as well as context-specific strategies like encouragement (ECR), modeling (MDL), reinforcement (RFM), scaffolding (SCF), and translanguaging (TLG). While students predominantly used IPSs reactively to overcome linguistic barriers, the teacher often applied them proactively to model effective communication and foster learners' strategic competence. The study further showed that IPSs played a pivotal role in managing various types of communication breakdowns. These included linguistic issues (e.g., pronunciation errors, grammatical gaps, limited vocabulary), interactional difficulties (e.g., mishearing, incomplete discourse, referential ambiguity), and factual misunderstandings (e.g., content-related confusion or unclear instructions). Notably,

strategies were frequently used in combination—a process referred to as *strategic chaining*—which enabled collaborative meaning-making. The effectiveness of IPSs was often reinforced through multimodal resources such as gestures, facial expressions, and prosodic features like intonation, which contributed to greater clarity and engagement. Despite their benefits, the use of IPSs was not uniformly successful. The analysis identified several factors that hindered the effective deployment of strategy. These included learners' attitudes (ATT), such as anxiety, fear of making mistakes, and low confidence, and pedagogical skills (PDS), such as inadequate scaffolding, unclear task design, or a lack of explicit strategy instruction. Additionally, knowledge-related barriers (KL), including limited awareness of when and how to apply specific strategies, further impacted students' ability to use IPSs effectively. In such instances, students often avoided risk-taking, used overly simplified language, or refrained from participating actively. The role of the teacher was particularly crucial in facilitating the use of IPSs. When teachers intentionally modeled, scaffolded, and reinforced strategic behavior, students were more likely to experiment with and internalize these communicative tools. Conversely, a lack of pedagogical support often resulted in missed learning opportunities. Overall, the interview data showed that both the teacher and students viewed IPSs as valuable tools for enhancing communication, increasing participation, and reducing anxiety in the classroom. Students, in particular, appreciated structured, interactive tasks, such as role-plays and peer discussions, which created supportive environments for practicing IPSs. Nevertheless, ongoing challenges such as unfamiliar pronunciation, fast-paced speech, and psychological barriers continued to impact their practical use.

This study thus highlights the central role of IPSs in facilitating effective, purposeful communication in EFL classrooms. It offers theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical contributions to the fields of pragmatics and ELF communication. The findings underscore the importance of integrating IPSs more systematically into language teaching practices, teacher training programs, and curriculum design. Creating interactive, supportive learning environments that promote the strategic use of language can significantly enhance learners' academic performance and intercultural communicative competence. This research provides valuable insights into EFL classroom discourse in the Thai context and lays a foundation for further studies in similar multilingual, multicultural educational settings.

Keyword : Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs), Classroom Interactions, Thai University Setting, English as a Foreign Language

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I am deeply indebted to my students and colleagues who participated in this study. Their willingness to share their experiences and insights has provided the foundation for this research, and their contributions are sincerely appreciated.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the general background of the research, beginning with the background of the study (see 1.2), the purposes of the study (see 1.3), and the research questions (see 1.4). Additionally, the chapter delves into the rationale for the study, encompassing discourse analysis and communication in English language teaching, pragmatic in English as a lingua franca, and intercultural competence in pragmatics (see 1.5). It further explores the significance of the study (see 1.6) and outlines the scope of the research (see 1.7). The chapter concludes with a definition of terms (see 1.8) and the organization of the thesis proposal (see 1.9). But first, my inspiration for this line of research inquiry for my PhD dissertation is discussed (see 1.1).

1.1 Research Inspiration

Growing up in Thailand, I have been immersed in English education from a young age, experiencing various teaching methods. In the initial stages, my English lessons primarily involved repetitive exercises with fixed models, where the emphasis was on altering a single word, typically the verb, and applying it within the context of the targeted tense for that lesson. During this period, effective communication was not the primary goal, and attention to pragmatics was minimal. The main focus was on form, particularly grammar, and the utilization of fixed dialogues to rehearse 'conversations' in English. Fortunately, these teaching approaches have evolved over time, becoming more dynamic and engaging.

Nevertheless, the 'fixed' conversations oriented towards native speakers were predominantly memorized, as no alternative English models were introduced in the classroom. Consequently, our dialogues closely resembled those found in our textbooks. However, some pragmatic elements were embedded in the materials we learned, particularly those associated with greetings. It was in this context that I acquired the habit of responding with 'I'm fine, thank you' whenever asked 'How are you?'. At that time, I adhered strictly to the prescribed formulas in order to achieve the highest grades possible. Despite consistently earning good marks, I soon realized that

I faced challenges in being understood when attempting to communicate with other English speakers. Additionally, I found myself unable to employ effective strategies to convey my thoughts, resulting in awkward and embarrassing situations.

It was not until I had the opportunity to explore the course on Discourse Analysis in English Language Teaching during my Masters and PhD coursework that I discovered there were alternative ways to communicate beyond the fixed dialogues taught in school. Through this coursework, I came to understand that it was not obligatory to respond with 'I'm fine, thank you' to every inquiry about my well-being. Instead, I could opt for responses like 'not so bad,' 'fine,' or 'very well, thanks'. Furthermore, I learned the value of using expressions such as 'sorry' or 'could you repeat, please?' in situations where I did not understand what the other person was saying. There was evidently a deficiency in my knowledge of both vocabulary and pragmatics. Nonetheless, while studying another course on Global Englishes in English Language Teaching, I gained a deeper understanding of the English language and communications in English, including the implicit culture and traditions specific to the geographical regions where it is spoken.

These experiences in the aforementioned courses provided me with additional insights into the English language and effective communication strategies. One notable aspect I observed was the manner in which individuals communicated in English, irrespective of whether they were native or non-native speakers. As a university lecturer, I keenly observed interactions in both English and my native language (Thai) within my classes and those of my Thai and foreign colleagues. This prompted me to realize that specific strategies are employed, especially during conversational pauses. Intrigued by this observation, I delved into literature on strategies utilized by non-native English learners for effective communication. My motivation for this exploration stemmed largely from being a non-native English lecturer myself, having learned English as a foreign language, and the desire to enhance my communication skills. This exploration led me to delve deeper into the concept of English as a lingua franca. Therefore, when it was time for me to choose my Ph.D. research topic, I decided to focus on uncovering how the English language could be effectively utilized for communication in educational contexts, expanding

my research to encompass Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs). Consequently, I refined my research objectives, concentrating on how speakers, particularly teachers with students, navigate understanding issues signaled through conversational breakdowns within English classroom interactions.

1.2 Background of the Study

The development of communication and the globalization of the past century has transformed the world into one in which intercultural communication is a salient feature. Individuals communicate with those from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, both in native languages and through languages acquired. While intercultural communication takes place in many of the world's languages, it is difficult to ignore the rapid spread of English internationally and the fact that more and more interactions are taking place in contexts where it functions as a lingua franca by serving as a shared language for speakers of different native languages. In such contexts, English is frequently used as a tool for classroom teaching (McConachy, 2018). The importance of communicative competence has been successfully recognized as a goal of language teaching and learning in second language acquisition since the concept of communicative competence was introduced (Murcia, 2007). It is argued that learners must learn to speak grammatically and appropriately to achieve communicative goals. Language learning also entails acquiring pragmatic competence that dictates appropriate ways of conveying communicative intent in various situations. Beyond communication strategies, pragmatic competence also involves sociocultural rules of appropriateness, politeness, and interactional norms, which shape how speakers manage relationships, express respect, and maintain harmony in classroom discourse. Therefore, learners must acquire linguistic rules such as morphology, syntax, phonology, vocabulary, and sociocultural rules of language use (McConachy & Liddicoat, 2021).

In an English as a Foreign Language (EFL henceforth) classroom, using language appropriately does not mean merely correct phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics but involves pragmatic knowledge or, to be more specific, cultural knowledge to avoid misunderstandings or communication breakdowns (Vu, 2017). Pragmatics in the language classroom is important because there is a demonstrated

need for it and because it has been proven effective (O'Keeffe et al., 2018). Many authors, Taguchi (2019), Chen (2022), Nogami (2020), Cutting and Fordyce (2021), and Clark (2022), highlight the importance of instruction in pragmatics, which helps prevent the consequences of pragmatic failure in a foreign language context. A lack of pragmatic knowledge might prevent the learners from being successful in their communication and, thus, may result in a breakdown in the interpersonal relationship between the speakers and listeners. According to Byram (2021), to successfully master the English language in international communication, learners must have intercultural communicative competence as well as communicative competence as successful non-native speakers. Besides emphasizing only grammar, teachers should encourage language learners to pay more attention to using language appropriately in different contexts and avoid making pragmatic mistakes to break down communication. To help learners avoid making pragmatic mistakes, teaching them the sociocultural rules of English is necessary.

The study of pragmatics has received considerable attention more recently from researchers in the field (Yang & Li, 2022; Ren, 2022). Research on pragmatics in lingua franca communication has been documented to find out how non-native speakers, due to the influence of their native language, differ from native speakers in understanding a particular strategic competence to deal with communication breakdown. Studies on pragmatic competence have paid great attention to second and foreign-language learners' pragmatic competence in terms of strategic competence (Taguchi, 2021). Byram (2021) pointed out that communication strategies guide individuals in adjusting their language use and delivery techniques to suit academic settings, while interactional pragmatic strategies provide insights into the sociocultural norms and expectations that influence communication dynamics within these settings. Both communication strategies and interactional pragmatic strategies emphasize the importance of adapting communication style and behavior to specific contexts, both of which are essential for successful communication in academic contexts. Given the importance of strategic competence in classroom interaction, several studies on EFL students' pragmatic competence have been conducted in the light of Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs henceforth) as valuable linguistic

tools that teachers and students can utilize to overcome classroom conversational breakdowns and enhance effective communication (Franceschi, 2020). It is, therefore, essential to understand the appropriateness of these strategies and how teachers and students can use them in EFL contexts, including when and with whom, since speaking English does not only involve knowledge of the foreign language but also familiarity with strategies that aid communication. Thus, the language classroom has become a significant context for studying ELF interaction in this sense (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021). Additionally, being aware of these strategies facilitates reflexive actions concerning interaction and pedagogy and enhances interlocutors' awareness of their language comprehension and production. According to Toomaneejinda and Saengboon (2022), such IPSs awareness is crucial in the language classroom for effective English language teaching and learning.

In most Thai universities, teachers and students use English to communicate and maintain partnerships. Thus, "English" plays a subtle role in negotiating classroom relationships (Nilsson, 2020, p. 3). As Ozdemir (2022) stated, teaching in line with the communicative approach should also focus on the strategic and pragmatic competence of the EFL learners in authentic situations. As a result, the cultivation of pragmatic competence has been emphasized in most Listening and Speaking university courses. Students in the current research site who are English majors must study the Listening and Speaking 2 course, a compulsory subject in the university curriculum from the first year to the third year. As one of the compulsory courses, the overall course design attempts to offer more opportunities for English major students to develop communicative competencies in different contexts to give and receive information in different situations in their daily life and the workplace, and to live and work more effectively for lifelong learning, which can ultimately enhance their pragmatic competence. Additionally, this course hopes to lead to understanding and promoting a sense of globalization, contributing to developing personal qualities and competencies in learning English and understanding different cultures.

Previous research has explored IPSs from various perspectives. Some researchers have focused on IPSs in the classroom (Maritza, 2017) and politeness

strategies and speech acts in EFL contexts (e.g., Sánchez-Hernández & Barón, 2022), while other studies have examined the strategies employed by English as a lingua franca (ELF henceforth) speakers to facilitate or resolve communication difficulties (e.g., Franceschi, 2020). However, limited research has addressed the multimodal aspects of IPSs (Verman et al., 2023). Furthermore, with the growth of ELF in English language teaching, research on how ELF speakers use IPSs in classroom interaction in Southeast Asia remains limited (Franceschi, 2020). Given the context-dependent nature of IPSs, studying them in under-researched settings like Thai EFL classrooms is particularly important.

IPSs offer a critical lens for understanding communication nuances in ELF classrooms (Jenkins et al., 2018; Seidlhofer, 2018; Mauranen, 2018). Yet, there is a lack of research into the specific pragmatic strategies used in English-medium classrooms at Thai universities, particularly those that capture communication breakdowns and their resolution in natural interactions. Prior studies have often examined IPSs in isolation, with few emphasizing their co-construction (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021).

From a pedagogical perspective, there is also a practical gap in how IPSs are explicitly taught, modeled, and embedded in EFL curricula in Thailand. While theoretical literature highlights the role of strategic competence, there is limited understanding of how teacher scaffolding, interactive and communicative task design, and multimodal, culturally responsive strategies can be systematically implemented to meet learners' real-world communication needs. Addressing this gap could inform curriculum design, enhance teacher training, and improve classroom interaction quality. Given these research and pedagogical gaps — particularly the lack of studies exploring IPSs in authentic Thai ELF university classrooms and their role in resolving communication breakdowns — this study adopts a micro-ethnographic approach to provide a holistic account of IPSs use. It examines how teacher and students negotiate meaning and maintain interaction, and how these strategies can inform English language teaching practices in culturally diverse settings.

In light of these gaps, this micro-ethnographic study aims to provide a holistic view of IPSs use in Thai ELF classrooms, examining how teacher and students

employ interactional strategies to achieve mutual understanding and how these strategies facilitate teaching and learning. The findings have direct implications for English language teaching and teacher education in Thailand and similar EFL contexts, emphasizing the importance of explicitly teaching IPSs, modeling their use, and designing interactive, communicative tasks. They also highlight the vital role of teacher scaffolding in overcoming linguistic and psychological barriers and the value of integrating multimodal and culturally responsive strategies that reflect students' real-world needs. These contributions can guide curriculum development, teaching practices, and teacher training programs, ultimately enhancing classroom interaction and communicative effectiveness.

A recent revision to standard English teaching and learning regulations suggests the need to include non-native speaker interaction models besides the traditional native-like models (Boonsuk et al., 2021). Such an insertion implies having a more comprehensive panorama of how English is used nowadays in international settings and what lies behind it. In other words, the productive application of the English language to foster communication. To achieve understanding, therefore, various elements are needed. The first refers to how understanding occurs in conversation and the elements involved. Such elements include IPSs such as repetition, rephrasing, repair, and translanguaging (Ambele, 2023). Thus, strategies are often intertwined within interaction and provide support to reach mutual understanding and communication. This derives into a need to explore classroom interaction from different perspectives. This micro-ethnographic study, therefore, aims to contribute to a better understanding of IPSs usage in the Thai ELF context by taking a holistic view of classroom interaction, exploring how teachers and students utilize interactional strategies to achieve mutual understanding, and examining how these strategies facilitate the teaching and learning process. Using IPSs (teachers and students utilizing language appropriately) has become an important and urgent issue. Thus, classroom interaction, which explores the utilization of IPSs, has as its starting point of investigation communication breakdowns and how they are resolved in conversation. Previous studies have mostly examined IPSs in isolation, with few emphasizing their co-construction (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021). In Thailand, there is a

lack of research examining instances of communication breakdown/negotiation in natural conversations within educational settings from an interactional perspective, mainly focusing on the pragmatic usage and understanding of classroom interaction at the tertiary level and the perceptions of such interactants regarding IPSs. Moreover, investigating IPSs in a Thai university setting holds broader implications for pedagogical practices and cross-cultural communication through its application in pedagogy. By uncovering the intricacies of language use in the Thai classroom context, the study contributes to the refinement of language teaching methodologies, creating a more inclusive and effective educational environment that caters to the diverse linguistic backgrounds of students in university classrooms (Ambele & Boonsuk, 2020).

1.3 Purposes of the Research

Globally, higher education is increasingly emphasizing internationalization, often involving the use of English as the primary means of communication. Thus, proficiency in English encompasses not only mastery of the language itself but also the ability to navigate communication challenges that enhance understanding. This proficiency is crucial for establishing a productive teaching-learning environment, generating positive impacts in our globalized society (Chiang, 2009). Recent updates to the standard regulations for English teaching and learning (see Pitzl, 2015) underscore the necessity of incorporating non-native speaker interaction models alongside traditional native-like models. This integration not only broadens our understanding of how English is currently employed in international settings but also delves into the practical application of the language to facilitate effective communication.

To attain a comprehensive understanding, several elements come into play. The initial aspect involves understanding the dynamics of classroom interaction and the contributing elements. This array of elements encompasses interactional pragmatic strategies, including but not limited to repetition, rephrasing, repair, and translanguaging. While extensive literature exists on each of these strategies individually, they have often been studied in isolation. However, an underlying reality suggests that these strategies are interconnected. For instance, repetition has been

proposed as a method for repair in teaching contexts (see Seedhouse, 2004). Therefore, these strategies are frequently intertwined in interactions, collectively providing support for achieving mutual understanding and, by extension, effective communication.

As an illustration, within the context of classroom interaction, one of the roles of the teacher is to 'shape' the learner's second or foreign language learning, as highlighted by Walsh (2011, p. 168):

> *A reconsideration of the teacher's role is proposed to foster a more nuanced understanding of interaction, thereby assigning a more central role to the teacher in molding learner contributions. The concept of 'shaping' entails taking a learner's response and actively manipulating it, as opposed to merely accepting it. This manipulation can take various forms; for instance, a response may be paraphrased using slightly different vocabulary or grammatical structures. It could also be summarized or extended, requiring scaffolding to assist learners in expressing their intended meaning. Another approach involves recasting, as discussed by Lyster (1998), wherein the response is 'handed back' to the learner but with some subtle alterations incorporated.*

This necessitates an exploration of classroom interaction from various angles. One aspect involves examining how interactants employ interactional pragmatic strategies to attain mutual understanding and how these strategies contribute to the teaching-learning process. Again, a key starting point rooted in this concept revolves around instances of communication breakdowns and the methods used to overcome them in interaction. While several studies have addressed issues of understanding (Varonis and Gass, 1985; Bremer et al., 1996; Pitzl, 2015; Cogo and Dewey, 2012), there is a limited focus on the practical utilization of interactional strategies to achieve effective communication. Hence, the objective of this research is to understand and interpret instances of communication breakdowns in natural interactions within a Thai university classroom setting, adopting an interactional perspective with a specific emphasis on their pragmatic application. Put differently; this study was conducted using a micro-ethnographic approach to explore IPSs in English as a lingua franca

classroom interaction in a Thai university setting. Additionally, the research aims to investigate the perceptions of interlocutors (teacher and students) regarding the use of interactional pragmatic strategies. These objectives hope to enhance the understanding of classroom interaction in tertiary language education within a Thai university setting. To further illustrate, the study consists of three purposes: a) to examine the use of IPSs by teacher and students in the classroom, b) to investigate how such interactants resource IPSs to resolve communication problems during teaching and learning in the classroom, and c) to explore interactants perceptions of IPSs in the classroom.

Although previous studies have highlighted the importance of IPSs in ELF and EFL classroom contexts, most have primarily examined strategies that successfully facilitate communication and mutual understanding. What is already known is that learners and teachers employ a range of IPSs such as clarification, confirmation, repetition, and translanguaging to negotiate meaning and resolve communication breakdowns. However, what remains less understood is how these strategies manifest in specific sociocultural contexts, particularly within Thai university classrooms, where cultural discourse, teaching practices, and learner expectations may shape the ways IPSs are used. Moreover, there is still limited knowledge about how IPSs function in unresolving communication problems (unsuccessful cases), where breakdowns persist despite strategy use. Addressing these gaps is essential to advancing our understanding of both the effectiveness and the limitations of IPSs in multilingual classroom interactions. Accordingly, this study seeks to investigate the interactional pragmatic strategies employed in a Thai university English classroom, focusing not only on successful negotiations of meaning but also on unresolved communication challenges.

1.4 Research Questions

The research purposes in Section 1.3 are achieved through the following research questions:

1. What interactional pragmatic strategies are deployed by a teacher and her students in a Thai university English language classroom interaction?

2. How do the interlocutors (i.e., teacher and students) resource interactional pragmatic strategies to resolve communication problems during teaching and learning in the classroom?

3. What are the teacher's and students' perceptions of interactional pragmatic strategies in a Thai university English language classroom?

These research questions encompassed two key dimensions. Firstly, an in-depth exploration of classroom interaction was undertaken, providing natural and factual data on strategies employed in English language classroom interactions. Secondly, an investigation was conducted into participants' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies. The uniqueness of this research lies in the introduction of an alternative model for analyzing classroom interaction—from the occurrence of a breakdown in conversation to the attainment of mutual understanding among learners. This model, termed Interactional Pragmatic Strategies, is elucidated in Chapter II.

1.5 Justification of the Study

1.5.1 Discourse Analysis and Communication in ELT

An explicit consideration of the relationship between discourse and ELT is essential. This connection is crucial for learners to achieve mutual understanding (Reddy, 1979; Sperber & Wilson, 1995). Effective communication in ELT underscores the importance of understanding discourse in the English language. ELT aims to equip learners with the skills necessary for real-life communication. This study explores the relationship between discourse and ELT with the goal of enhancing the communicative competence of learners. Additionally, discourse analysis provides illumination on the process of language acquisition and proficiency development. By understanding how discourse structures convey meaning, educators can tailor language instruction to support learners in progressing from basic to more advanced proficiency levels. Importantly, discourse analysis contributes to a deeper understanding of linguistic competence, encompassing not only grammatical accuracy but also pragmatic and sociolinguistic appropriateness. ELT goes beyond academic success, preparing learners for real-world communication. A study on discourse in

ELT bridges the gap between classroom language use and authentic communication, better-preparing learners for diverse communication contexts.

Previous studies on discourse analysis and language classroom practice have highlighted the emergence, significance, and application of discourse analysis (DA) in classroom environments. They emphasize the dimensions of DA and its relevance to English language teaching, enhancing the quality of language teaching and learning. This study supports the notion that language cannot be learned or taught in isolation; effective language learning and teaching require engagement in actual social contexts to apply knowledge and skills for successful communication—the ultimate goal of language learning (Alsoraihi, 2019). It posits that learners who connect linguistic knowledge to social and cultural contexts demonstrate high levels of communicative performance and self-confidence.

Classroom discourse analysis is a vital element of classroom practice, aiding teachers and students in understanding the extent to which language can be employed in the classroom. The intricate process of teaching and learning English involves various factors related to teachers, students, and the classroom environment. This complexity has attracted scholars from disciplines such as sociology, pedagogy, linguistics, and psychology. Classroom discourse is a 'hot' topic in classroom research and second language acquisition, as it elucidates the mechanisms through which teachers and students communicate and interact in the classroom environment. It identifies ways in which teachers and students communicate during daily teaching practices. Moreover, employing discourse analysis in the language classroom is not an end in itself but rather a means to make the teaching and learning process more effective. It develops students' communicative competencies and skills, including linguistic competencies and discourse sociolinguistic skills (Qomi, 2019). Thus, discourse analysis serves as a mechanism through which linguistic competence is built, enabling students to succeed (Shahani & Chalak, 2017). The use of discourse analysis in the language classroom as an analytical technique is not an easy task, requiring a reevaluation of teaching and learning processes by focusing not only on the language itself but also on harnessing language for diverse communicative purposes. This is particularly crucial in improving the quality of education in current

globalized economies that heavily depend on communication among individuals (Alsoraihi, 2019).

1.5.2 Pragmatics in ELF Interactions

The inquiry into how speakers can effectively communicate using English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) to achieve their goals has been instrumental in shaping research in the field. Björkman (2011) emphasizes the crucial role of pragmatic strategies in ELF communication, noting that "pragmatics has led the way" (p. 27). Pragmatic strategies, as highlighted by Walkinshaw (2022), significantly contribute to the effectiveness of communication in ELF. In ELF research, pragmatic strategy is broadly conceptualized to extend beyond practices that enhance understanding, encompassing those that foster rapport and solidarity among interactants (Taguchi & Ishihara, 2018). While the strategies themselves may often be similar (e.g., repetition and code-switching), their functions vary based on the local context and communicative needs of the speakers. Two primary categories of pragmatic strategies in ELF interaction can be discerned based on their macro-functions. The first category involves comprehension-enhancing pragmatic strategies, serving either to anticipate problems of understanding or to resolve them when they arise (Mauranen, 2012; Kaur, 2011, 2012). An explicitness strategy, a sub-category, encompasses both micro-functions of pre-empting and resolving communication issues. The second category consists of rapport and solidarity-promoting pragmatic strategies employed by speakers to align and engage with their interlocutors (Cogo, 2012). Considering pragmatic strategies separately based on their macro-functions provides clarity amidst the fluid use of the term in the literature. However, it acknowledges that the same devices may serve the sometimes overlapping functions of these strategies, skillfully deployed by speakers to engage in meaningful and effective communication.

Previous studies have investigated speakers' use of pragmatic strategies aimed at enhancing understanding and facilitating ELF communication. Although not exhaustive, some frequently cited works in the field include Kaur's exploration of explicitness strategies such as 'self-repair' (lexical replacement, lexical insertion, metadiscourse), 'repetition' (parallel phrasing, keyword, combined, and repaired repetition), and 'parenthetical remark' (clarification by defining, describing,

exemplifying, comparing and contrasting) in various studies. Pietikäinen (2018) delves into 'pragmatic strategies,' 'Pre-emptive strategies,' 'clarification request' (direct clarification question, echoing, paraphrasing), 'self-repair' (clarifying, repeating, paraphrasing), 'code-switching,' 'extralinguistic means' (pointing, showing, drawing, acting, deixis, onomatopoeia), 'discourse reflexivity,' and 'confirmation checks.' Findings from these studies indicate that speakers in ELF interaction employ these strategies in anticipation of understanding difficulties or in response to displayed problems. Repetition and paraphrasing emerge as salient practices in many examined classroom ELF interactions. Repetition, for instance, not only aids understanding but also signals non-understanding and serves as a request for confirmation or clarification, contributing to the promotion of solidarity between speakers. For Lichtkoppler (2007, p. 59), repetition is deemed "a vital constituent of ELF talk."

1.5.3 Intercultural Competence in Pragmatics

Intercultural Pragmatics focuses on the utilization of the language system in social interactions among individuals with different native languages, communicating in a shared language and often representing distinct cultures (Kecskes, 2023). It emphasizes pragmatic competence in lingua franca communication, illustrating how pragmatic acts dynamically emerge in discourse between intercultural speakers. Understanding intercultural competence in pragmatics is crucial for comprehending how L2 learners collaborate in intercultural interactions. Additionally, intercultural capabilities encompass the capacity to engage in intercultural communication, where pragmatic knowledge, as a component of communicative competence, directly contributes to this ability. Therefore, pragmatic competence in intercultural settings can be considered a constituent of intercultural competence. Situating pragmatics within intercultural competence transcends the conventional focus on how second or foreign-language learners perform pragmatic acts, expanding to a broader understanding of how they participate in intercultural interactions (McConacy & Liddicoat, 2021).

Previous studies have explored intercultural competence in pragmatics. Hart and Okkali's study (2021) concentrate on the intersection of common ground and positioning, examining Turkish-L1 university students' socialization and interaction

patterns in an intensive EFL course co-taught by both a Turkish-speaking and an English-speaking teacher. The findings indicate that English-speaking instructors spend more time establishing common ground, resulting in a focus on fluency and meaning. Bardis et al. (2021) delve into conversational interactions in the classroom and highlight the significance of developing cross-cultural pragmatic competence in the EFL context. They find that EFL students lack cross-cultural pragmatic competence in the classroom, and textbooks often lack pragmatic knowledge. Cross-cultural pragmatic competence, they argue, enhances English language skills. Kentment et al. (2023) analyze EFL learners' understanding of conversational implications. The results revealed that participants in the study exhibited a low degree of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features, with some struggling to offer suggestions due to cultural and natural appropriateness. The analysis based on gender for the MCDT and DCT shows no significant differences, but females tend to use more pleasant and polite words, while males demonstrate better vocabulary but lack pragma-linguistic appropriacy. In summary, a study on intercultural competence in pragmatics serves as a foundation for understanding how second or foreign-language learners collaborate in intercultural interactions.

1.5.4 A Case Study Approach

Case study research focuses on examining one or more cases situated in a real-world, contemporary context. A “case” may represent a tangible entity—such as an individual, a small group, an organization, or a partnership—or a more abstract construct, such as a community, a relationship, a decision-making process, or a particular project. While some view case study research primarily as the selection of what will be studied—specifically, a case within a clearly defined system that is bounded by time and place—others regard it as a broader approach, encompassing a strategy of inquiry, a methodological framework, or even a comprehensive research design. (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

This study adopts a case study approach to explore Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs) within a specific classroom interactional context. The focus is on a single university, one Filipino English teacher, and one class of first-year English major students in a Listening and Speaking 2 course. As such, this research meets the

criteria for a qualitative case study, which seeks to gain an in-depth understanding of complex phenomena within a bounded system.

This case study is its emphasis on a particular classroom situated within a real-life setting—a Thai public university in the Northeast region—where English is used as a lingua franca in classroom interaction. The bounded nature of the case (one university, one teacher, one group of students) allows for a focused examination of IPSs in naturally occurring ELF communication in an educational setting. The study does not aim to generalize across all Thai classrooms but rather to provide rich, context-sensitive insights into how IPSs are deployed and perceived within this particular setting. Specifically, this study investigates what IPSs are used by the teacher and students in this unique classroom context and how these strategies function to facilitate understanding.

The classroom was selected because it represents both its representativeness and uniqueness. The university is located in a multicultural region of Thailand and enrolls students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, including students from Cambodia and Thai. None of these students speaks English as a first language, and even the teacher herself is a non-native English speaker from the Philippines. This reflects a real-world ELF context where English serves as a bridge language among multilingual speakers. The classroom thus presents an ideal site to study how interlocutors navigate communication challenges, co-construct understanding, and employ IPSs to mediate meaning in a multicultural, multilingual environment.

The implementation of the case study approach involves an in-depth, micro-ethnographic examination of classroom discourse through classroom observations, audio recordings, field notes, and semi-structured interviews. This allows for triangulation of data sources and supports a thick, detailed description of how IPSs emerge in classroom interaction. The single case enables the researcher to analyze the process of understanding, misunderstanding, and strategic negotiation in greater depth than would be possible in a broader, multi-site study.

Ultimately, this case study approach aligns with the study's epistemological stance, which views knowledge as socially constructed and situated. By focusing on

this particular university and classroom context, the research contributes to a deeper understanding of IPSs in ELF classrooms, especially in Southeast Asian multilingual academic settings, and provides insights into pedagogical practices that can inform similar EFL contexts in Thailand and beyond.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The significance of this research study is reinforced by three key elements: firstly, the advantages it offers to teachers and students in terms of a deeper comprehension and professional development of Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs); secondly, the promotion of awareness among teachers and students; and thirdly, its contribution to achieving communicative pedagogical goals and enhancing the English curriculum.

First, this research holds significance by contributing to the professional development of both teachers and students. It delves into the exploration of IPSs among interactants to foster mutual understanding and address communication challenges during teaching and learning in the classroom, a dimension not extensively studied in Thai University settings. Therefore, this study is poised to yield practical outcomes that can enhance the comprehension of IPSs in managing communication breakdowns and improving classroom interaction. Through the identification and analysis of IPSs in real-life classroom scenarios, the research aims to raise awareness among students and teachers about communication problems, equipping them with effective strategies to tackle challenges in diverse contexts. Furthermore, the research illuminates the critical role of IPSs in facilitating the acquisition of knowledge and skills, aiding in problem identification, and navigating communication breakdowns successfully when the problems are solved and unsuccessfully when the problems are not solved, as well as why and what happens. Proficiency in understanding and utilizing IPSs has become crucial for students and teachers in adapting to a linguistically diverse environment, particularly in educational settings where encountering various forms of English is commonplace. The ability to strategically deploy interactional devices to overcome communicative challenges emerges as a valuable skill for future professionals.

Secondly, the research bears significance in terms of raising awareness among teachers and students. Focused on the specific context of Thai universities where English serves as a medium of instruction (although not in all Thai universities and programs), the study aims to highlight the importance of teachers' and students' awareness of IPSs for effective communication.

Thirdly, the study's findings provided valuable insights to support the communicative pedagogical goals and English curriculum for English majors, enhancing students' overall communicative competencies. By deepening their understanding of IPSs and their application in the classroom, students can cultivate stronger communication skills, which will prove beneficial for their future careers.

1.7 Scope of the Research

This micro-ethnographic research was conducted to examine the use of IPSs by a teacher and students in the classroom, to study how such interactants resourced IPSs to achieve mutual understanding and resolve communication problems during teaching and learning, and to explore interactants' perceptions of using IPSs in the classroom. The context of the study involved 1st-year undergraduate English major students' and teachers' classroom interaction in a public university in Northeast Thailand. The teacher in this classroom was a non-native Filipino English teacher. In this context, the teacher and students, who had different backgrounds, shared their knowledge within the same context. Data was collected over the course of a semester. The Listening and Speaking 2 course was selected as the source of data collection for this study.

The course description involved the study and practice of English listening and speaking in diverse contexts. In alignment with the course description, the teacher adapted classroom activities by focusing on speaking on different topics, depending on the lesson plans. Classroom interactions centered around topics relevant to the student's age, stimulating active participation and fostering dynamic conversation. This included activities such as exchanging information in various daily life situations.

The negotiation of meaning model based on Varonis and Gass (1985) was employed to analyze the deployment of IPSs by the teacher and students in classroom interaction. Based on Schreier (2012) and Ritchie et al. (2014), discourse analysis was used to analyze and interpret the data collected from classroom observations and field notes. Qualitative content analysis (Selvi, 2021) was applied to analyze and interpret the data from semi-structured interviews with the teacher and students.

1.8 Definitions of Key Terms

Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs) refers to the strategies employed to address communication breakdowns and resolve misunderstandings. They may also be used in situations where the conversation continues without a complete resolution. Within the language classroom, these strategies are crucial, serving as valuable linguistic resources that teachers and students can draw upon to facilitate effective language use (Hedge, 2000; Maritza, 2017)

English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) refers to classroom situations in which, for example, a teacher from the Philippines and students from Thailand use English as a shared language for teaching and learning. It involves the use of English as a common means of communication between individuals who do not share the same first language (Jenkins, 2007).

The Listening and Speaking 2 Course refers to a course for English major students at the selected university for data collection. The course involves the study and practice of English listening and speaking in diverse contexts. This includes activities such as exchanging information in various daily life and workplace situations, delivering oral presentations, conducting interviews, engaging in academic debates, note-taking, following instructions, and analyzing main ideas through listening and speaking.

Classroom Interactional Competence is defined as the understanding of classroom discourse and its influence on learning. Specifically, it denotes the ability to convey intended meaning to establish shared understandings, attend to the local context, listen actively, demonstrate understanding, clarify meanings, repair breakdowns, and so forth (Walsh, 2011).

Communication Breakdown refers to a failure or interruption in the process of exchanging information or ideas between two or more people. It can happen for a variety of reasons, such as misinterpretation, miscommunication, or even lack of communication (Vu, 2017). In the context of this study, communication is understood as classroom interaction between teacher and students, or among students, where meaning is negotiated through both linguistic and sociocultural resources.

Mutual Intelligibility is defined as a situation in which two or more speakers of a language (or of closely related languages) can understand each other (Jenkins, 2006).

Perception refers to the teacher's and students' interpretations and evaluations of IPSs in the Thai EFL classroom, encompassing their views on the strategies' effectiveness, usefulness, and challenges in facilitating communication and learning.

Positive Perception refers to participants' favorable views of IPSs, recognizing them as effective tools for overcoming communication barriers, reducing anxiety, building confidence, and fostering meaningful classroom interaction.

Neutral Perception refers to participants' balanced or ambivalent views of IPSs, where strategies were seen as sometimes useful but not consistently effective, often depending on context, task design, or individual proficiency.

Slightly Negative Perception refers to participants' critical views of IPSs, highlighting challenges such as difficulty applying them during fast-paced speech, limited vocabulary, or fear of making mistakes, which reduced their effectiveness in spontaneous communication.

1.9 Thesis Organization

The thesis consists of six chapters, structured as follows:

Chapter I: Introduction

This chapter provides the background of the study, highlighting the importance of communicative competence in achieving the goals of language teaching and learning in the field of second and foreign language acquisition, pragmatics in lingua franca communication, and the gap in utilizing IPSs in EFL classrooms. It also

provided information regarding ELF and IPSs. Additionally, this chapter presented the purposes of the research, the research questions, its significance and justification, and the scope of the study, including the definition of key terms.

Chapter II: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

This chapter focuses on discourse analysis and communication in English language teaching, pragmatics in ELF interactions, intercultural competence in pragmatics, and Interactional Pragmatic Strategies.

Chapter III: Research Methodology

This chapter presents the theoretical and analytical frameworks derived from the reviewed studies and their adaptation to the current research. Additionally, it outlines the research design and data collection procedures and elucidates the data analysis, theoretical framework, and ethical considerations in the current study.

Chapter IV: Findings and Discussion (RQ1 & RQ2): IPSs In Thai EFL Classroom Interactions

This chapter summarizes and presents the findings on the first two research questions: (1) What are the interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs) deployed by a teacher and students in a Thai university English language classroom? and (2) How do the interlocutors utilize IPSs to aid mutual understanding and resolve communication problems during classroom interaction? Drawing on data from classroom observations, audio recordings, and field notes, the chapter highlights the range, functions, and patterns of IPSs in authentic English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) communication. The discussion integrates these findings with relevant literature to illustrate how IPSs function as essential tools for managing interaction, supporting comprehension, and co-constructing meaning in the EFL classroom.

Chapter V: Findings and Discussion (RQ3): Participants' Perceptions of IPSs Use

This chapter summarizes and presents the findings on the third research question: (3) What are the teacher and students' perceptions of IPSs usage in a Thai

university English language classroom? Data from semi-structured and stimulated recall interviews are analyzed to explore participants' attitudes, experiences, and reflections regarding their use of IPSs. The chapter provides insight into how both the teacher and students view the role of IPSs in enhancing communication, building student confidence, and overcoming linguistic challenges. The findings are discussed in light of existing research, with attention to both the perceived benefits and difficulties associated with IPSs use in the EFL context.

Chapter VI: Conclusion

This chapter offers a summary of the study's key findings, linking them back to the research questions and the broader objectives of the research. It outlines the pedagogical implications for English language teaching, discusses the limitations of the study, and offers recommendations for future research. Additionally, the chapter highlights the theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions of the study, emphasizing the central role of IPSs in fostering effective communication and strategic competence in Thai EFL classrooms.

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

The exploration of pragmatics within the language classroom is extensive (Taguchi, 2011). This encompasses instructed pragmatics, where the goal is to teach pragmatic competence, either explicitly or implicitly (Taguchi, 2015, for a detailed review), and extends to interactional-based research that centers on strategic communication (e.g., Classroom Interactional Competence by Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010; Walsh, 2011). This current study explicitly delves into the pragmatics that play a strategic role in communication within classroom interactions, particularly examining how communication problems, namely breakdowns, are addressed to achieve understanding. In this chapter, therefore, three primary concepts—pragmatics, strategies, and interaction—are characterized, along with the three theories supporting Interactional Pragmatic Strategies: Classroom discourse (see 2.1), Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (see 2.2), pragmatics in English language teaching (see 2.3), communication theory (see 2.4), and pragmatics in English as a Lingua Franca (see 2.5). This diverse array of study fields is considered in this chapter because they all focus on how understanding is attained in communication. They serve as the foundation to underpin the study's aim of investigating interactional pragmatic strategies within classroom interaction.

2.1 Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse possesses distinctive features that are crucial to consider when examining language interaction. These features encompass input-output, flooring control, speech modification, communication breakdown, and patterns, among others. Input and output, in the context of the classroom, pertain to the interaction initiated by speakers. Interaction occurs when input, representing the teacher's language or what learners hear or read, interfaces with output—the learners' production of language. Generally, both input and output align with the teacher's control of the interaction, known as flooring control. The teacher, viewed as the 'authority,' organizes turns, determines topics, and assumes a directive role, while learners occupy a receptive role. This control establishes an asymmetric dynamic between teachers and learners in the classroom. Flooring control allows teachers to

employ speech modification, and alterations are made to facilitate understanding and enhance learning.

In studies of classroom interaction, modifications are predominantly observed in teachers who intentionally slow down speech, adjust volume, introduce pauses, or emphasize particular aspects. This aligns with Shepard, Giles, and Le Poire's accommodation strategies, which reflect speakers' flexibility in adapting their speech to suit their interlocutors, incorporating convergence techniques. Additionally, paralinguistic adaptation, involving body language and gestures, is employed. Speech modification serves three primary purposes: ensuring learners comprehend teachers for effective learning, maintaining appropriate pronunciation, intonation, sentence structure, and word stress, and confirming that learners follow explanations. Teachers can adapt their speech in response to these considerations. Despite teachers' efforts to articulate their thoughts clearly, communication problems may arise, leading to communication breakdowns due to interruptions, forgotten words, and other reasons. Communication breakdown is defined as 'trouble occurring in interactive language use.' The causes of breakdowns vary, ranging from linguistic issues, such as grammatical difficulties, to pedagogical challenges, including instruction-related problems. This research aims to explore patterns that facilitate overcoming communication breakdowns.

Therefore, interactional patterns are utilized to depict the dynamics occurring within interactions, and various patterns have been identified through the examination of classroom interactions. These patterns encompass descriptions of participants' involvement, such as instances where the teacher is (very) active while students are primarily receptive, a more balanced distribution of activity between teacher and students, or situations where students are (very) active with the teacher in a mainly receptive role (Ur, 1996). Additionally, patterns extend to the behavior of utterances, including well-known models such as IRF (Initiation, Response, and Feedback) and T-I-R-RR. IRF, introduced by Sinclair and Coulthard in 1975, represents a triadic structure illustrating the fundamental turn sequence in classroom interaction (Walsh, 2011). It is also referred to as IRE (Initiation, Response, and Evaluation), with some practitioners equating Feedback to Evaluation. The IRF model emphasizes the

constant assessment of the correctness of utterances by teachers, who provide feedback to learners accordingly. On the other hand, T-I-R-RR, proposed by Varonis and Gass in 1985, stands for Trigger, Indicator, Response, and Reaction to Response. This sequence model is identified as a pattern observed during the negotiation of meaning, emphasizing the centrality of meaning in diverse turns and illustrating how interactants navigate through interactions to achieve shared understanding. Both patterns offer insights into pedagogical functions through the implementation of interactional strategies, such as paraphrasing (Tsui, 2001). The discussions hereafter delve into two major theories within the framework of classroom interaction: classroom interactional competence and repair theory.

2.1.1 Classroom Interactional Competence

From a social perspective, the process of learning is viewed as an intricate and dynamic system that is locally coordinated by participants in response to evolving communicative needs (Walsh, 2011, p. 62). Here, the trigger points for these emergent communicative needs serve as catalysts, igniting the motivation to understand, clarify, or confirm knowledge. Thus, rather than conceiving learning as a tangible possession, it is construed as an active process involving the collaborative construction of meanings to facilitate communication (Walsh, 2011; Larsen-Freeman, 2012). Nevertheless, English language teaching has predominantly concentrated on cultivating grammatical competence in the classroom, often neglecting strategic competence (Friedrich, 2005, p. 39), where the effective use of interactional devices is crucial for effective communication.

Additionally, the inherent nature of Communicative Competence elements directs its focus on individuals, emphasizing what is intended for a student to learn or acquire in a lesson. This perspective overlooks the fundamental aspect of language learning, which involves two or more speakers rather than isolated individuals (Larsen-Freeman, 2012). Communication fundamentally occurs between a speaker and a recipient. Walsh (2011) advocates a shift away from the conventional Communicative Competence model, primarily centered on individual language development, towards a more 'collaborative enterprise. This approach emphasizes the development of language through interaction, highlighting the central role of

interactants in managing communication to achieve interactional competence. Henceforth, Walsh (2011) proposed the concept of Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC) with the aim of enhancing the comprehension of classroom discourse and its impact on learning. Here, the teacher influences the learners and vice versa, as represented in Figure 1.

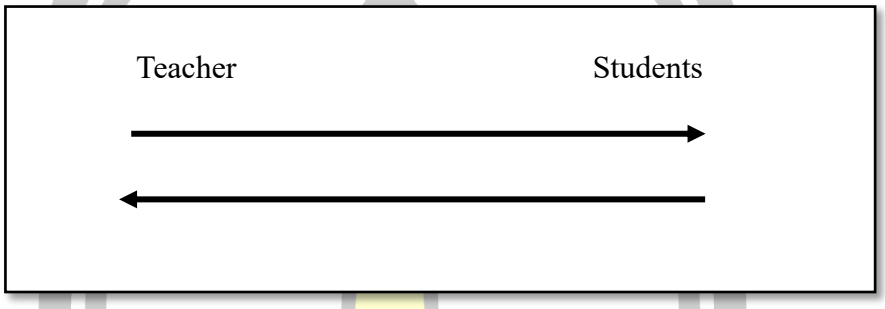


Figure 1 *Classroom Interaction (Walsh, 2011)*

CIC is defined as "the ability to communicate intended meaning and to establish joint understandings" (p. 160). According to Walsh (2011), the primary goal of CIC is to empower learners to effectively manage interaction, necessitating the ability to:

> *Speakers of an L2 must be able to do far more than produce correct strings of utterances. They need to be able to pay attention to the local context, listen, and show that they have understood, clarified meanings, repaired breakdowns, and so on (Walsh, 2011, p. 159).*

It is crucial to note that focusing solely on accuracy and fluency does not suffice for complete language learning. While these aspects are vital for communication, interaction involves contextual elements such as setting, task type, and the roles of speakers, contributing to the emergence of understanding. Being cognizant of these features aids in overcoming breakdowns. Given its contextual nature, various aspects of CIC warrant investigation. Walsh (2011), for instance, has proposed:

> *Given the context dependency of interactional competence, we are attempting here to identify some of the features of classroom interactional competence (CIC). How are meanings co-constructed in the unfolding interaction? What*

do participants do to ensure that understanding is reached? How do they deal with repair and breakdown? More importantly, how does CIC influence learning? (p. 166)

The primary inquiries central to this current research are: 'What actions do participants take to ensure the attainment of mutual understanding? How do they address communication breakdowns?' These questions serve as the driving force behind the current research, as outlined in the aims and research questions in Chapter I. The objective is to contribute by delving into how understanding is achieved in classroom discourse. Communication breakdowns inherently signify a specific issue linked to comprehension.

Interaction is primarily achieved through two means of communication: language and non-verbal means of expression. Non-verbal resources play just as important a part as language does. This holds for a classroom as well as for other social situations. The one thing that makes the classroom different from any other social situation is that it has a primary pedagogic purpose. Teachers spend a considerable amount of time talking, lecturing, asking questions, and giving instructions. The teacher not only uses language for these functions but also frequently demonstrates and uses mime.

Participants in classroom interaction are the most frequent way of organizing classroom interaction, depending on who communicates with whom:

a) Teacher–students

b) Teacher-student/a group of students

c) Student/a group of students – teacher

d) student – student

The first form of interaction (teacher–students) is established when a teacher simultaneously talks to the whole-class. He/she takes the role of a leader or controller and decides about the type and process of the activity. The primary function of such interaction is the controlled practice of specific language structures or vocabulary.

Mostly, they are in the form of repeating structures after the teacher (the model). This type of practice is also referred to as a drill.

The second arrangement is conducted when the teacher refers to the whole-class but expects only one student or a group of students to answer. It is often used to evaluate individual students. This arrangement can also be used for an informal conversation at the beginning of the lesson or leading students into a less guided activity.

The third type of interaction occurs when a student or a group of students needs to ask a teacher for information.

The fourth type of interaction is called 'pair work.' Students receive an assignment that they must complete in pairs. The teacher serves as a consultant or adviser, assisting when needed. After the activity, he puts the pairs into a whole group, and each pair reports on their work. The last type of classroom interaction is called 'group work.' As with pair work, the teacher's function here is that of a consultant, and individual groups report on their work as a follow-up activity.

The last two organizational approaches are beneficial for encouraging student interaction. In large classes, they present the only possibility for as many students as possible to use the foreign language. Research has shown that students use more language functions in pair- and group work than in other forms of interaction. It has also been proven that students perceive them as the most pleasant way of learning because they feel relaxed and communicate better (Markee, 2000). Such work encourages independent learning and gives students some responsibility for learning. It approaches real-life communication where students talk to their peers in small groups or pairs. Nevertheless, the whole-class organization should be addressed since it is still more appropriate for guided and controlled activities.

An important point to emphasize is that achieving proficiency in a language cannot be complete if it focuses only on accuracy and fluency. While they are essential for communication, interaction involves contextual factors such as the setting, task type, and even speakers' roles that let understanding emerge; knowing or being aware of these features would help to overcome breakdowns. Given its

contextual nature, several facets need study. Walsh (2015) proposes that due to the contextual nature of interactional competence, the goal is to define specific characteristics of CIC. How can meanings emerge via the collaborative process of interaction? How do participants ensure that they achieve mutual understanding? What is their approach to handling repairs and breakdowns? More importantly, how does CIC influence learning? The two primary questions arising from the above that directly concern the current research are as follows: "What are the IPSs deployed by teachers and students in ELF classroom interaction? How do interlocutors resource IPSs to aid mutual understanding and resolve communication problems during teaching and learning in the classroom?" Those are the main questions that motivate the present research (see aims and research questions in Chapter I) as a way to contribute by exploring how mutual understanding and resolving communication problems are reached in classroom talk.

Communication breakdowns are related to specific problems associated with understanding. Chiang (2009) researched communication problems between assistants and students in an American college. He concentrated on the difficulty of comprehension and the strategies employed by speakers to overcome it. According to Chiang (2009), comprehension difficulties may arise from grammatical and socio-cultural factors. Chiang (2009) identified two methods, corrective and preventative, through the analysis of participant interaction. These procedures assist speakers in achieving mutual understanding. Speakers were seen as issue solvers, employing various tactics such as repetition, repair, reformulation (namely rephrasing), confirmation requests, clarification requests, comprehension checks, and so on. By employing Interactional Pragmatic Strategies, they could choose communicative tactics strategically to understand one another. According to Chiang (2009), there are communicative procedures for correcting and preventing problematic understanding when it occurs due to some linguistic and cultural differences. Nevertheless, Smit's (2010) comprehensive analysis expanded this viewpoint and proposed that not only linguistic repairable (namely problems) but other possibilities, such as interactional and factual problems, can also happen in educational settings.

Furthermore, additional research has demonstrated difficulties associated with using L1 in educational settings. Previous research has indicated the influence of learners' native language (L1) on communication in language education settings and the involvement of various interactional strategies in resolving communication problems. An example of this is the study conducted by Mussin (2010) on code-switching in the language classroom. In this context, code-switching was regarded as being connected to repairing speech, which in turn was strongly associated with the acts of repeating and rephrasing. However, the author refers to this as reformulation. Awareness of the emergence of interactional pragmatic strategies may arise at this point. The problems identified in Mussin's (2010) research include speaking, hearing, and understanding. These align with the researcher's work, which examines different speaking tasks, analyzes speaking and communication breaks, and identifies how to overcome them to reach an understanding. Hall and Cook (2012) conducted a more recent study that examined the utilization of L1 in the language classroom.

2.1.2 Pragmatics in Classroom Interaction

Teaching, especially in the context of ELT, and research on classroom interaction are closely interconnected. Classroom language encompasses studies on interactional strategies that specifically examine "language use by the teachers and learners, the interaction generated, and their effect on L2 learning," along with exploring "the underlying factors (e.g., beliefs, culture, etc.) which shape interaction in the classroom" (Tsui, 2001, p. 120). Similar to any other form of interaction, classroom discourse is intricate. Its complexity arises from its diverse functions pertaining to language and interaction and is integral to teaching and learning processes (Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010; Walsh, 2011), where communication patterns are scrutinized (Davies & Pearse, 2000).

Language and interaction, therefore, play a foundational role in various aspects of the classroom, including lesson organization, task fulfillment, term clarification, language repair, and more. This underscores the significance of studying interaction patterns. On this subject, Walsh (2011) has proposed that:

> *Crucially, in a classroom, it is through language in interaction that we access new knowledge, acquire and develop new skills, identify problems of understanding, deal with 'breakdowns' in communication, establish and maintain relationships, and so on (p. 2).*

Studying language in interaction offers various perspectives, and one aspect that can enhance teaching and learning involves addressing communication breakdowns. This is crucial because breakdowns pose challenges not only to the flow of conversation but also to comprehension, a fundamental aspect of effective learning. Additionally, there is limited understanding of how to navigate communication breakdowns in classroom interaction, and investigating this aspect could contribute valuable insights into managing communication disruptions within an educational setting. Such research has the potential to shed light on the interactional strategies employed, offering support to teaching practices.

> *Despite extensive efforts by researchers to delineate the interactional dynamics of the language classroom, there has been a limited application of this knowledge to assist teachers in refining their instructional methods (Walsh, 2011, p. 3).*

Hence, it is necessary to contribute through research on interactional dynamics within the classroom. Noteworthy contributions in this domain encompass sequence models such as IRF (Initiation, Response, and Feedback), proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Varonis and Gass's (1985) negotiation of meaning, and repair theory (Schegloff et al., 1977), among others, all aiming to comprehend classroom interaction. These models incorporate various interactional devices that collaborate toward a common goal: effective communication. To gain a more comprehensive understanding of the components supported by these sequence models, it is imperative to elucidate key concepts. Thus, we now delve into the essence of classroom interaction or, in simpler terms, its characteristics.

2.1.3 Repair Theory

The present thesis aims to explore the process of overcoming breakdowns, which inevitably involves addressing and rectifying language issues. This leads to an

examination of repair theory, as the term "repair" involves addressing trouble in interactive language use, where communicative problems arise during interaction and necessitate resolution for mutual understanding and the continuation of the conversation (Seedhouse, 2004). Early research on repair, notably discussed by Schegloff et al. (1977), with subsequent mentions by Markee (2000) and other authors, has made significant contributions to the field. The types of repair include:

1. Self-initiated self-repair: The speaker of the trouble source initiates and executes the repair.
2. Other-initiated self-repair: The speaker of the trouble source carries out the repair initiated by the interlocutor.
3. Self-initiated other-repair: The speaker of a trouble source attempts to have the interlocutor repair the trouble.
4. Other-initiated other-repair: The speaker of a trouble source turns both initiates and executes the repair.

The model's objective is evident in the work of Schegloff et al. (1977), where repair serves the purpose of identifying the initiator and executor of the repair. Although initial studies on repair were rooted in everyday conversations, its application extended to classrooms, contributing to pedagogy. An example is the use of the strategy of repeating the original question or initiation as a non-evaluatory means of repair (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 165). While all extensively analyzed cases fall under repair theory, a secondary definition considers repair as a specific strategy among others that aids in overcoming communication breakdowns during interaction.

Research on repair has encompassed various types of interactions, including those among native speakers, classroom interactions, interactions between native and non-native speakers, and interactions among non-native English speakers. Similar features have been identified across these interaction types. In the context of classroom breaks treated as 'errors,' Walsh (2011) proposes four fundamental ways to address them:

1. Ignore the error completely.
2. Acknowledge that an error has occurred and correct it.

3. Acknowledge that an error has occurred and have the learner who made it correct it.

4. Acknowledge that an error has occurred and have other learners correct it (p. 14).

Walsh (2011) suggests that repair actions align with the findings of conversation analysts like Schegloff et al. (1977) in naturally occurring conversations. For instance, the second bullet point may correspond to 'other-initiated other repair' if the teacher identifies and corrects the error. Similarly, bullet point number three might be related to 'other-initiated self-repair.' The discussion on repair is further explored to focus not only on considering repair as a theoretical feature in classroom discourse but also as a crucial strategy in interactions that aids in overcoming communication breakdowns.

Both classroom interactional competence (CIC) and repair theory significantly support this current study. While CIC proposes a range of phenomena to be examined within classroom interaction, one of which involves overcoming breakdowns (Walsh, 2011), Repair theory provides a comprehensive and consistent framework for understanding how interactants manage repair (Cameron, 2001; Markee, 2000; Seedhouse, 2004; Smit, 2010). In this context, it can be argued that the act of overcoming communication breakdowns is essentially an act of repair. However, the quadruple schema (self-/other-initiated self-/other-repair) does not offer a detailed description of the micro-strategies employed by interactants to overcome these breaks. While acknowledging that breakdowns undergo repair, the same term cannot be used within my analytical framework. Instead, repair is considered one of the micro-strategies working in conjunction with others (e.g., repetition and rephrasing) to achieve understanding.

Building on this understanding, the concept of repair trajectories (RTs) provides a structured way to analyze how repair unfolds in interaction. Repair is not always a singular action but can involve multiple sequential moves, forming complex patterns within conversations. This leads to the notion that a repair exchange is composed of one or more RTs. Each RT includes a repairable (depicted as a rectangle in the figure) and its corresponding repair (illustrated as an ellipsis), as shown in Figure 2.

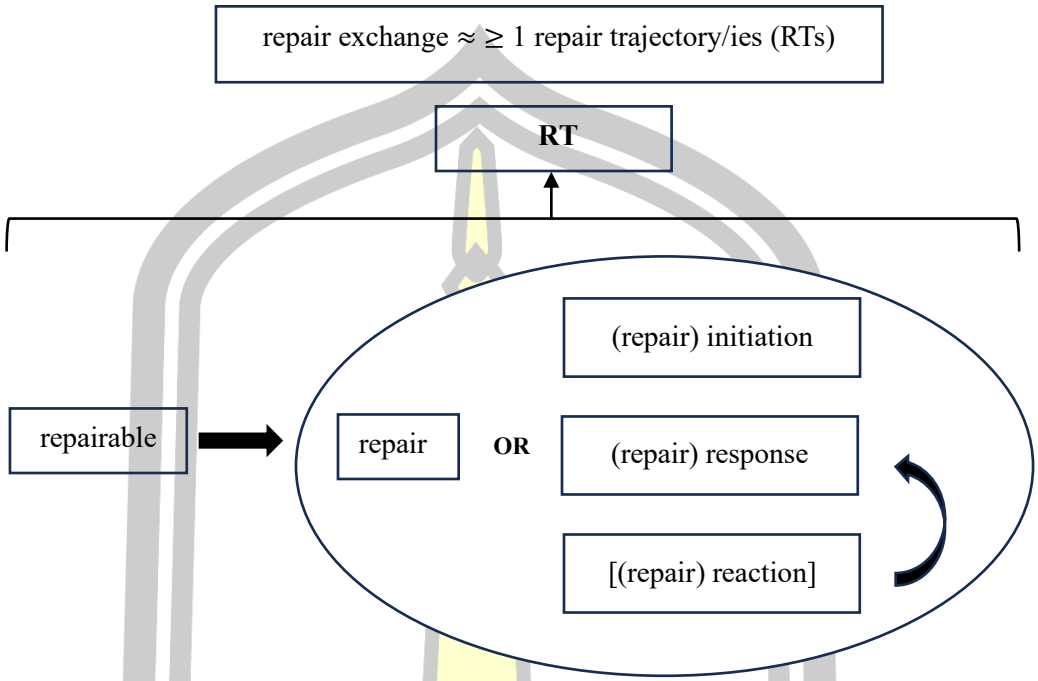


Figure 2 *The Interactional Repair Plus's Model*

Figure 2 illustrates that a repair can either occur as a single action or involve an initiation followed by a response, which may lead to a subsequent reaction. Additionally, the repair may take a more complex form, incorporating multiple cycles of response and reaction moves. In addition to depicting the moves that constitute repair exchanges, Figure 2 aims to illustrate the fundamental sequential structure of repair exchanges (Markee, 2000; Schegloff et al., 1977; Ten Have, 1999).

In a detailed study of classroom interaction, Van Lier (1988) describes the sequential progression of repair exchanges as being primarily influenced by two factors: the speaker (SELF or OTHER) and the turn (first, second, third). While the combinations of these factors could theoretically result in numerous possibilities that are challenging to fully represent on paper, actual repair trajectories tend to be less intricate (Dalton-Puffer, 2007), as demonstrated schematically in Figure 3.

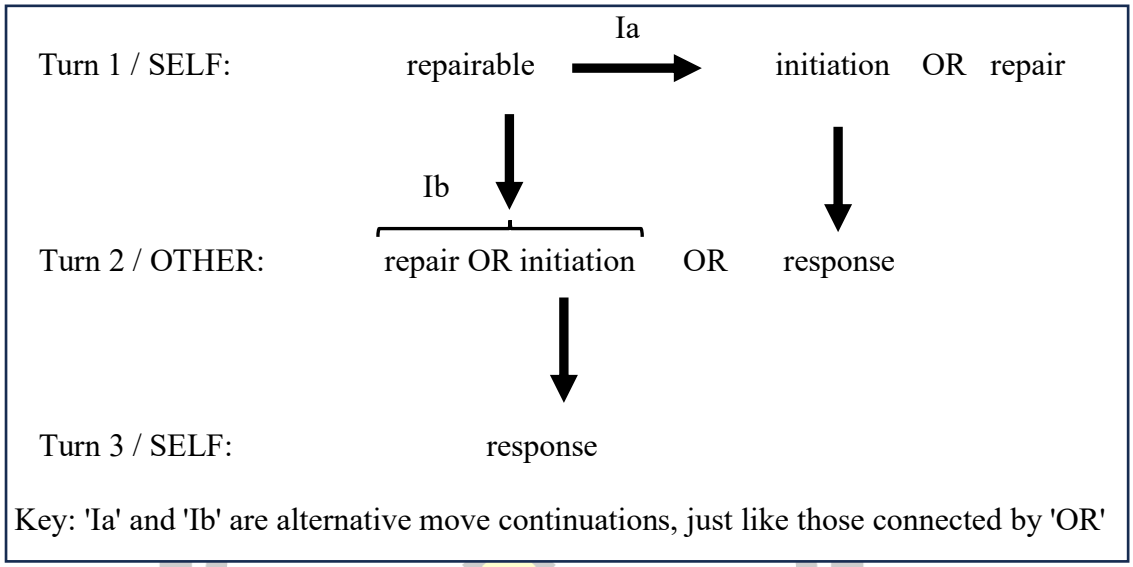


Figure 3 *Schematic Representation of Repair Trajectories*

As shown in Figure 3, the research trajectory begins with the repairable in turn 1. This either progresses within the same turn (Ia), where the speaker self-repairs or initiates a repair, or continues into turn 2 (Ib), where another speaker either provides a repair or initiates one. When a repair initiation occurs, the corresponding responses follow in turn 2 or turn 3.

Some of the resulting repair trajectories are illustrated in the example extract below, as demonstrated in the example extract.

Example Extract: Front Office Management

1→AKL: well it's belongs to
2 Holiday Inn= RT 1
3→ Kosk: =Sheraton *repairable 1* SELF
4→ AKL: **sorry ?** *initiation 1* OTHER RT 2
5→ Kosk: Sheraton *response 1* SELF *repairable 2* SELF RT 3
6→ AKL: **Sheraton is a sepa-** *repair 2* OTHER *repairable 3* SELF
7 **rate chain again**
8→ SX-m: **separate ?** *initiation 1* OTHER
9→ AKL: yeah *response 3* SELF

To ensure clarity in the example extract, the acts and/or turns being analyzed are marked in bold. As indicated in *italics* in the three right-hand columns, this extract features three repair trajectories (RTs), identified by the repairs shown in bold in lines 4, 6–7, and 8. This example illustrates that a repair can be completed either within a single speaker's turn or across multiple turns (as seen in repair 2 compared to repairs 1 and 3). Additionally, it demonstrates that a single speaker turn can serve different functions within various RTs (lines 5–7) and that one speaker can take on both self-repair and other-repair roles within the same turn (as AKL does in lines 6–7).

Repair addresses a variety of problems, and although it has been examined across different fields, a specific strand focuses on studying repair and other strategies among groups with limited or non-native speakers of English, where English serves as a Lingua Franca. Given that most students in Thailand are Thai speakers and the education system aims to prepare them for the globalized market, similar to other Asian countries, learners are likely to use the acquired foreign language not only to communicate with native English speakers but also with other non-native speakers. This type of interaction reflects English as a Lingua Franca, which is discussed in the following section, presenting its own framework of pragmatic strategies.

2.2 Pragmatics in English as a Lingua Franca

The inception of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) study occurred around 2000, marked by the publication of a phonological study (Jenkins, 2002) observed in both language classrooms and social English interactions. This approach differed significantly from the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory, which traditionally emphasized notions of 'correct' English performance. Under the ELF paradigm, English was viewed in terms of communicativeness, where 'incorrect' performance did not hinder mutual understanding among interactants (Jenkins, 2006). Another influential study that initiated ELF investigations reflected on how English usage had evolved in the global era compared to its continued teaching in language classrooms (Seidlhofer, 2001). Seidlhofer (2001) clearly described the distinctions between these two paradigms, ELF and SLA, and advocated for further exploration of English used as a Lingua Franca. According to Mauranen (2012), these early ELF research endeavors marked the advent of a new paradigm. Furthermore, there has been a

noticeable surge in ELF research in recent years, encompassing interactional studies (Jenkins et al., 2012).

Researchers focusing on ELF have explored various aspects and proposed additional attributions to the concept. Jenkins (2007) delves into the intricacies of ELF, starting by highlighting that the term "Lingua Franca," rooted in Latin, implies a contact language used by speakers with different first languages (L1) as a second language (L2) for communication (p. 1). However, she contends that the primary objective of English as a Lingua Franca is not exclusively limited to interactions among non-native speakers; it also encompasses interactions involving native speakers (L1 users) and non-native speakers using English as an L2. Jenkins (2012) provides an alternative definition of ELF, stating that it is a means of communication among individuals from diverse first-language backgrounds, thus broadening the range of ELF speaker characteristics.

Similar definitions of ELF are put forth by Seidlhofer (2011), who defines ELF as any use of English among speakers of different first languages, where English is the communicative medium of choice and often the only option (p. 7). Mauranen (2012) contributes to this discourse by arguing against treating ELF as a 'target language,' especially in academic settings, emphasizing that ELF is a vehicular language in its own right, functioning as a tool for achieving communication (p. 6). In summary, these scholars characterize English in the context of ELF as a valuable instrument for facilitating communication.

In summary, these scholars characterize English in the context of ELF as a valuable instrument for facilitating communication. Within this framework, interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs) play a central role in sustaining mutual understanding, especially in classroom climates where interlocutors bring diverse linguistic repertoires and sociocultural backgrounds. Research shows that ELF communication often relies less on native-like accuracy and more on the strategic use of clarification, confirmation, repetition, and rephrasing to negotiate meaning and avoid communication breakdowns (Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Kaur, 2009). These strategies are not only tools for overcoming misunderstandings but also mechanisms for co-constructing meaning in real time. In ELF classrooms, teachers and students

deploy IPSs to scaffold interaction, foster inclusivity, and build a collaborative learning environment. For instance, Pitzl (2015) highlights how repair and repetition are vital in resolving breakdowns, while Mauranen (2006) emphasizes “let-it-pass” strategies, where interlocutors temporarily ignore unclear items to maintain conversational flow. Moreover, Seidlhofer (2011) notes that such strategies highlight the pragmatic orientation of ELF users, prioritizing intelligibility and rapport over strict adherence to native-speaker norms. Thus, IPSs within ELF classroom contexts should be understood as both communicative and pedagogical resources that reflect the sociocultural and interactional dynamics of language learning.

2.2.1 ELF and ELF Users

Most definitions commonly incorporate a fundamental characteristic regarding English as a Lingua Franca performer: an ELF group is comprised of individuals with 'different first language backgrounds' (Jenkins, 2009, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011). Jenkins (2012) extends this notion by suggesting that native speakers of English can also be part of ELF groups, albeit they may require a certain level of adjustment or accommodation to ELF interaction (p. 487) due to its linguistic multiculturalism. While most ELF studies adhere to this characteristic, encompassing a variety of languages and cultures, it is worth contemplating the scenario when ELF research is conducted within a single-nationality community. In such settings, individuals may choose between their first language and English, the latter being used as a second or foreign language for communication, as seen in Thailand, where Thai is the primary language, but English is adopted in schools.

In such contexts, it becomes conceivable that communication in English among individuals who share the same first language might be considered English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). This contemplation may seem to challenge the conventional understanding of who ELF speakers are. However, Seidlhofer (2011) introduces another dimension to ELF, incorporating not only characteristics related to the type of English and speakers involved but also emphasizing the aspect of the language being the 'medium of choice' (p. 7), where English is 'often' the preferred choice. In other words, speakers in a group may have the option to choose English over other languages, even if those other languages are also shared within the group. The critical

factor in such cases seems to be the intention or purpose behind choosing to use English. For instance, consider an academic meeting of native Thai university lecturers, all of whom teach English. Although the group is proficient in both Thai and English, they decide to communicate in English during the meeting. In this scenario, this interaction could be viewed as an ELF situation. This raises questions about the reasons for opting for English over Thai—whether for practice, due to local policies mandating meetings in English—and whether this qualifies as an ELF setting. According to Seidlhofer's (2011) concept of the 'medium of choice,' a group of speakers with these characteristics can be considered engaged in ELF interaction. This perspective expands the scope beyond traditionally conceptualized groups with various first languages that communicate in English; ultimately, they are using English for communication despite their diverse first languages. In the case of the Thai lecturers, the type of English spoken may be associated with parallel interaction. This concept is further illustrated through a more English Language Teaching-oriented example that considers 'parallel language use' (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012, p. 432) in teacher-student classroom interactions conducted in English, even when the participants share the same first language.

Thus, according to Seidlhofer's (2011) perspective, it may be argued that bilingual groups conversing in English while sharing the same first languages (L1s) could be categorized as English as a Lingua Franca talk. However, this categorization might diminish the multicultural richness inherent in ELF groups—a noteworthy aspect to consider in any multilingual setting. Furthermore, the presence of parallel interaction in a language classroom, staff meetings, or other settings does not undermine the overarching objective of any conversation, which is to facilitate communication. Therefore, for this research, both terms —ELF interaction and parallel interaction —are employed. The former aligns with Jenkins's (2012) definition, situating ELF as the 'means of communication between people who come from different first language backgrounds' (p. 486). The latter denotes communication occurring among individuals sharing two identical languages (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012). This choice is consistent with the recognition that both types of groups—bilingual (English and Thai) and multilingual (English and other local languages)—

are likely to be encountered in the Thai context where this study is conducted. The following section will turn to ELF communication strategies.

2.2.2 ELF Movements

Over the last several years, the English as Lingua Franca movement has produced extensive research on the nature of English produced by non-native speakers in the Expanding Circle. This attention has been generating considerable academic discussion and debate on the use and teaching of English for international communication.

Jenkins (2006) touches on each aspect when she says: "mutual intelligibility is the most satisfactory criterion for pronunciation (and probably lexicogrammar too. . .) in ELF contexts, but that is something to be negotiated and developed by ELF speakers themselves rather than imposed from "above" by NSs or NNSs admirers." Although it is uncertain whether it is mutual intelligibility or pronunciation (perhaps along with word choice and sentence structure) that is to be negotiated and developed, there is no mention here of the negotiation of meaning, i.e., what occurs when communication breaks down due to misunderstanding of what a speaker means by a word or utterance, when their intention cannot be interpreted. However, Jenkins' primary concern is not negotiation for interpretability (or comprehensibility); rather, it is the ELF speakers' rights to their pronunciation and their ultimate independence from the top-down imposition of notions of a correct accent by native speakers.

In Jenkins' ELF studies, the responsibility for intelligible speech lies with the individual speakers. It is they who need to achieve confidence in their accent and not allow it to be a barrier to communication (Ambele, 2023). It is they who are to be taught how to speak English as a Lingua Franca according to the norms of the non-native English-speaking international language community that has established them. But communication is not between a sender with a correct ELF accent and a receiver with a correct ELF accent. It is between two (or more) individuals who bring their own experiences with English, their own attitudes toward English and English speakers (whether Inner, Outer, or Expanding Circle), and their own cultural norms – all of which impact the outcome of the interaction. It is true that "if a person does not

speak enough to be understood, his message is lost" (Smith, 1981, p. 8). However, communication is a two-way street, which means that "both the speaker and the listener share the responsibility for effective communication." Each carries the responsibility to be understood; each must make an effort to understand.

Making an effort to understand is linked with tolerance of varieties of English, and not just on the part of the native speaker, as Smith (1981) outlines:

> *Although native English speakers will need to change their attitudes and assumptions in shifting toward English as an international language, some changes need to be made for non-native speakers. They, too, must become more tolerant of the many varieties of educated English and learn about the ways other non-native speakers use English (p. 9).*

Thus, native speakers have an important role, not as norm-setters, as they have historically been, but as partners with non-native speakers, regardless of their linguistic, social, or cultural backgrounds, when negotiating meaning for intelligibility, comprehensibility, or interpretability, or all three. Establishing norms and negotiating the sociolinguistics of the situation involves every participant, and norms may need to be renegotiated when a participant from an underrepresented language and cultural background joins the conversation. The target intention of concern to Jenkins would be disadvantaged without the flexibility to accommodate and be accommodating in such encounters. Confidence in one's accent alone is unlikely to be sufficient to meet the challenge.

Marginalization of the native speaker in international communication is essential to the aims of ELF. In championing the rights of Expanding Circle users of English to establish their norms of use, ELF can give no role to speakers of the Inner Circle in negotiating understanding (as either speaker or listener) in situations in which English is used for international communication (as English as an International Language). This is illustrated in Jenkins' (2002) argument for a pedagogical approach that does not involve the Inner Circle user:

> *To prevent the disintegration of international phonological intelligibility, there is, it follows, a strong case for the pedagogic intervention of a new kind: an intervention that is no longer based on idealized NS models or NS corpora, but that is both more relevant (in terms of EIL needs) and more realistic (in terms of teachability) (p. 86).*

2.2.3 ELF Communication Strategies

Communication strategies within ELF studies have been extensively examined through at least two primary research avenues. The first pertains to studies focused on (non)understanding and misunderstanding (Bührig & ten Thije, 2006), where specific instances of communication trouble may arise and (may not) necessitate resolution. The second branch encompasses studies aligned with the Communicative Accommodation Theory (Shepard et al., 2001), wherein a range of strategies assists participants in strategically 'negotiating social distance' (p. 34). For instance, when speakers engage in convergence, they adjust to each other, similarly to speech modification, during the conversation to enhance communication.

2.2.3.1 Understanding Strategies

The exploration of understanding and non-understanding studies appears to emerge from diverse communication research, including a significant presence in intercultural communication literature. Many studies on non-understanding and misunderstanding (Bührig & ten Thije, 2006; Jenkins et al., 2012) are encompassed within this field, with pragmatic strategies integral to this understanding study. These tactics serve as tools for ELF speakers to succeed in their conversations, ultimately enhancing communication. However, before delving into the role of pragmatic strategies, it is crucial to conceptualize understanding, distinguish it from non-understanding, and consider the interplay between them.

Understanding, in a broad sense, refers to a process crafted by interactants to "build common ground and joint knowledge" (Jenkins & Dewey, 2012, p. 115) within a conversational setting. Conversely, non-understanding occurs when an interlocutor realizes that what is said is not comprehended by their interactants, signifying instances in the conversation when "the listener does not know what is said"

(Deterding, 2013, p. 13). Both understanding and non-understanding are considered natural extremes (Pitzl, 2005). On the other hand, misunderstanding pertains to occasions when "the listener thinks they know what is said but gets it wrong" (Deterding, 2013, p. 13). In such instances, speakers may misinterpret the intended meaning, resulting in a significant breakdown in communication. The significance of misunderstanding studies lies in understanding how ELF speakers signal (using questions, repetition, and indirect signals) and prevent (through confirmation checks or repair) misunderstandings. Various types of misunderstandings related to linguistic categories (e.g., lexical, grammatical), cultural issues, and grasping propositional content are identified. These types of misunderstandings serve primary and often overlapping functions, such as clarifying meaning, smoothing interaction, and gaining more planning time.

This study aims to explore how ELF pragmatic strategies (e.g., repetition, repair, translanguaging, among others) contribute to overcoming conversational breaks. These strategies are seen as key elements that support other communication strategies, such as meaning negotiation and accommodation, collectively shaping the dynamics of communication. The subsequent section elaborates on this concept while highlighting the connection between accommodation and understanding studies.

2.2.3.2 Accommodation Strategies

Accommodation, our second communication strategy, has been extensively researched. The origins of accommodation studies may be rooted in a more linguistic perspective, as reflected in the Communicative Accommodation Theory in the literature. However, over time, this viewpoint has evolved into a sociolinguistic approach, expanding beyond face-to-face interaction to include socio-related issues such as beliefs and attitudes (Giles et al., 1991; Shepard et al., 2001).

Accommodation studies have delved into how speakers express solidarity or dissociation during their interactions (Shepard et al., 2001). In this context, accommodation has been identified as serving various functions for ELF speakers to facilitate communication. These functions include resolving or preventing misunderstandings by acknowledging understanding (Cogo, 2009; Cogo & Dewey,

2012) and enhancing clarity (Cogo & Dewey, 2006, 2012; Kaur, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2011), maximizing explicitness (Cogo & Dewey, 2006, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011), or preempting, avoiding, or repairing potential communication troubles by demonstrating cooperation and support during interaction (Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2012). An illustration of how these functions operate can be observed in the repetition and/or rephrasing of previous utterances (Lichtkoppler, 2007; Mauranen, 2012). Collectively, these functions aid in overcoming communicative problems (e.g., communication breakdowns) and enhancing communication (e.g., preventing problems).

2.2.3.3 ELF Pragmatic Strategies

Contributions from ELF literature to the comprehension of pragmatic strategies can be categorized into two main branches: those associated with business settings and those occurring in academic environments. Both strands hold significance for this research regarding interactional strategies aimed at resolving communication issues, even though the study of pragmatic strategies in ELF lacks a clearly defined framework in the current literature. Up to now, non-ELF publications have not proposed a specific definition for this term. Furthermore, while some ELF authors designate phenomena like repetition, rephrasing, repair, code-switching, or other interactional strategic devices as pragmatic strategies (Cogo, 2009), other researchers opt for the broader term' communication strategies' (Mauranen, 2012). From my perspective, both terms encompass the strategic use of tactics that facilitate communication. In Jenkins et al. (2012) state-of-the-art article, ELF pragmatics encompasses phenomena such as repetition, paraphrasing, and code-switching, among others, aiming to study 'miscommunication and the negotiation and resolution of non-understanding' (p. 293), often signaled through breakdowns in interaction.

2.2.4 ELF in the Classroom Setting

Many claims have been made regarding the variety status of ELF. For example, Jenkins (2006) affirmed that "lingua franca varieties of English are emerging in their own right and exhibiting shared features which differ systematically from NS English norms, regardless of the ELF speaker's L1." Then, when it became

apparent that such codifiable varieties were somewhat chimerical, there was a sudden functional "turn" in ELF research, and emphasis was placed on ELF's inherent fluidity and pragmatic strategies. Particular "surface-level" formal features are now only deemed necessary because of the functions they are symptomatic of in ELF interactions (Ferguson, 2009; Firth, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2011; Cogo & Dewey, 2012), and many ELF researchers look rather pityingly at backward language teachers and course-book writers who still ask what formal ELF features might be presented in the classroom.

Cogo and Dewey (2012) have cannily redefined codification to cater to the fluidity of ELF:

> *The codification of ELF can begin to take place without that much stability; we can document emerging trends in how speakers in ELF select from a 'feature pool' (Mufwene, 2001) of linguistic choices available to them. [...] We contest that [...] codification can only take place when 'endonormative stabilization' (Schneider, 2007) occurs. [...] We are not so concerned with the codification of surface-level linguistic features in our discussion of ELF data. However, instead, how speakers collaboratively achieve communication through accommodative manipulations of an ever-emerging bank of communicative assets [...] In other words, it is not so much the codification of form in a conventional sense that matters, but rather a redefined (dynamic) notion of codification concerned more with communicative practices and interactive processes (p. 89).*

Ferguson (2009) suggested that is fair enough, but what should the poor English teacher do? How do you get to the point where learners can manipulate their bank of communicative assets? He states that "teaching ELF is far more than teaching a collection of forms, though this is, of course, still necessary" and that the forms taught must include both those that appear in standard English and those that are distinctive of ELF use. Teaching the forms is necessary because most are also widely used in World Englishes in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean (especially in their written forms) and, necessarily, in ELF. Moreover, most English learners at schools

worldwide likely believe they are learning English rather than English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Ferguson opined that:

> *Going beyond forms, teaching for ELF will need […] to focus more on processes of communication – that is, on how to adapt what one wishes to say to the needs of the interlocutor through paraphrasing, repetition, exploitation of redundancy, variation in lexis, through the exploitation of shared plurilingual resources (e.g., borrowing, code-switching, cognate lexis), and so on. In short, what seems required is an increased emphasis on communication strategies and processes, and this lends itself less to a methodology of presentation and practice and somewhat more to one of awareness-raising. Specifically, awareness of variation in language, awareness of how successful communication of meaning is negotiated in ELF contexts, awareness of crosslinguistic similarities and differences, and awareness that different normative regimes operate in different places and at different scale levels (p. 38).*

This sounds fun, but although the teacher can try to teach the various pragmatic skills listed, they can only turn some English classes into lectures on variational sociolinguistics and communication strategies. Standard (and non-standard) English forms will still have to be presented and practiced. Walsh (2011) suggested that in the classroom setting, there are four areas for teacher development under interactional competence, including improving questioning strategies, enhancing communicative discourse, enhancing interactive decision-making, and addressing reticence.

Ambele and Boonsuk (2020) also studied learners' voices in Thai ELT classrooms: a wake-up call towards teaching English as a lingua franca. This study aims to determine students' perspectives on teaching English in a lingua franca setting. The results were obtained through a semi-structured interview with 25 undergraduate students studying English across five universities in Southern Thailand. Using the qualitative content analysis approach, the results showed that the majority of participants unanimously agreed that the main objective of ELT is to equip language learners with the skills needed for communication with interlocutors from

diverse cultural backgrounds rather than pressuring them to achieve native-like English proficiency. Therefore, there is a call for the revision of ELT curriculums. Targets should avoid being overly focused on a single center with an overwhelming concentration of Inner Circle components and cultures. More local content should be used as they help learners associate inputs with familiar cultures. In addition, teachers should enhance students' understanding of different forms of English and pronunciations and encourage an adaptable attitude to embrace variations in communication.

2.3 Pragmatics in English Language Teaching

The field of ELT research has two primary areas of focus that are relevant to this study: pragmatics and communication strategies.

While the study of pragmatics dates back to Morris's semiotics in the 1930s, it gained significant attention with Austin (1962), Searle (1965), and Grice's (1967), shaping pragmatics as "the study of the meaning and use of words and expressions" (Nerlich & Clarke, 1996, p. 5). Early conceptualizations emphasized its primary function as the study of meaning, distinguishing between direct meanings (semantics) and contextual meanings (pragmatics) (Harmer, 2007). Context is a key feature in pragmatics, as evident in various descriptions within the ELT field:

- The word "pragmatics" was initially introduced in semiotics, which focuses on the study of signs as components of communication. Pragmatics identified three domains of investigation within semiotics: syntax, which examines the formal relationships between signs; semantics, which explores the connections between signals and the objects they represent; and pragmatics, which investigates the relationship between signs and those who interpret them. Essentially, syntax and semantics deal with the utterance and meaning of a statement, whereas pragmatics focuses on the speaker's intended meaning behind the statement and how the listener interprets it (Morris, 1938).
- The concept of "context" is incorporated into the definition by describing pragmatics as the study of the grammaticalized interactions between language and context encoded in the language's structure (Levinson, 2011, p. 44).

- Pragmatics is understood as characteristics that emerge during the process of interaction. Generating meaning involves the speaker and listener negotiating the intended message within the physical, social, and linguistic environment, as well as considering the potential meanings of an utterance (Thomas, 2014).
- Pragmatics is the study of language from the perspective of those who use it, mainly focusing on the decisions people make, the limitations they face while using language in social interactions, and the impact their language usage has on other participants in the communication process (Crystal, 1997).
- Pragmatics is the study of "speaker meaning" and "contextual meaning" as well as "how more gets communicated than is said" and "the expression of relative distance" between/among interactants (Yule, 1996, p. 66).
- The study of how people typically convey meaning in context (Carter & Nunan, 2001).
- Conversely, pragmatics is positioned within a broader sociological context since it is defined as the study of language usage and the societal factors that influence it, namely how speakers use language to achieve personal goals in a society (Mey, 2001).
- It involves conventions for conveying and interpreting the meaning of linguistic strings within their contexts and settings (Brown 2007, p. 388).

These definitions represent a sample of how ELT has approached pragmatics. Notably, ELT pragmatics appears to have minimal connection with classroom strategies. The gap between these two aspects has been clearly delineated in the Communicative Competence theory (Hymes 1972, Canale & Swain, 1980), a discussion that follows next due to its significant influence on language teaching.

2.3.1 Communicative Competence

Communicative Competence encompasses both knowledge (competence) and skills (performance) essential for communication (Hymes, 1972; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). It comprises various components that have evolved over the years. The variations among the different models of Communicative Competence stem from the intentions to contribute specific elements crucial for language teaching

and learning. Despite these changes, certain components remain fundamentally unchanged.

For example, Grammatical Competence involves the 'mastery of the language code (verbal or nonverbal),' dealing with aspects such as lexical items, rules of sentence formation, pronunciation, and literal meaning (Canale, 1984, p. 112). In simpler terms, it pertains to language usage, encompassing knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology/graphology (Bachman, 1990), aligning with Hedge's (2000) Linguistic Competence description, albeit with more ELT-oriented terms: 'the knowledge of spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure, and linguistic semantics (p. 47).

During the 1960s, Chomsky (1965) proposed a prominent theory of language that introduced the concepts of 'competence' and 'performance'. According to Chomsky, competence refers to the underlying grammatical system that he claimed to be intuitively known by all native speakers of a language, and performance refers to actual language use in real situations. Chomsky's primary focus was on competence, considering performance, which includes memory limitations, distractions, and verbal mistakes, as errors from the ideal competence model. In reaction to Chomsky, Hymes (1972) argued that there was more to language than idealized grammar, invoking the term communicative competence to refer to the competence that is required in real communication. Language use was also worthy of study and had its own (situationally defined) conventions and patterns. His famous dictum was, 'There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless.' However, the most commonly cited model of communicative competence in language teaching is that of Canale and Swain (1980), who divided communicative competence into three sub-components:

• Grammatical competence: knowledge and skill about lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar semantics, and phonology.

• Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge and skill regarding formality, politeness, and appropriateness of meaning to a situation.

• Strategic competence: strategies to compensate for communication breakdowns and enhance language learning.

Later, Canale (1983) added a fourth component, discourse competence, which referred to the knowledge of and skill in combining linguistic elements to achieve a unified textual whole. A problem with adding this extra component, however, is that it is at a different level; grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence are all parts of overall discourse competence. After this, Celce-Murcia (1995) added two components, linguistic competence, and actional competence, to the combination of sociolinguistic competence.

Moreover, Hedge (2000) adopted and adapted the model to include more language elements, such as pragmatics (as a primary category) and fluency. The competencies relevant to this investigation are Pragmatic Competence and Strategic Competence; the former focuses on meaning within a social and contextual orientation, while the latter encompasses communication strategies where 'achievement strategies' (Hedge, 2000) are connected to interactional devices (e.g., repetition, code-switching). These competencies are highly relevant to the theoretical and methodological contributions to exploring 'understanding.'

Realizing this, Celce-Murcia (2007) has proposed a more complex yet better-integrated communicative competence model, emphasizing the central role of discourse competence. Celce-Murcia's revised model is shown in Figure 4.

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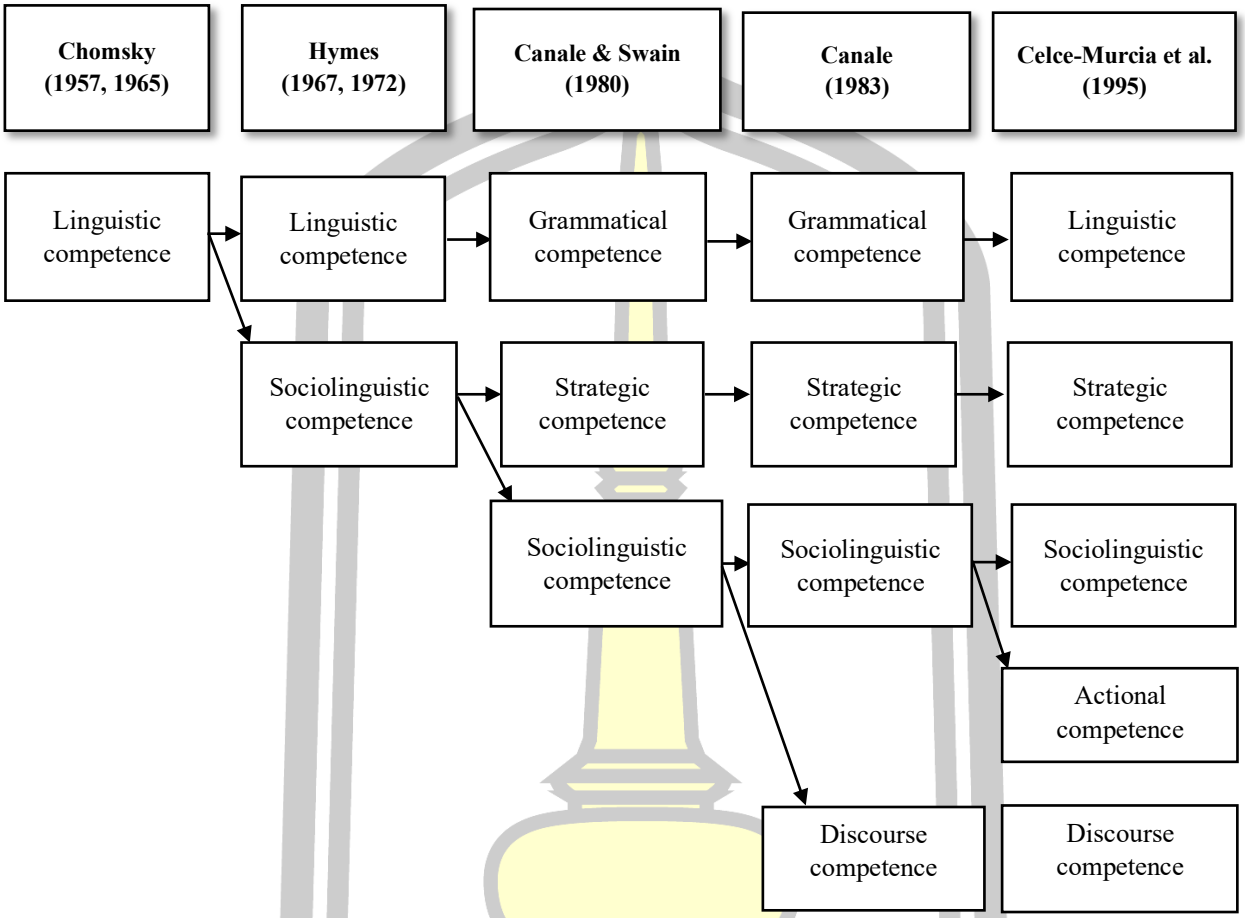


Figure 4 *The Development of Communicative Competence*

In the model, sociocultural competence refers to the speaker's pragmatic knowledge, including social contextual factors such as the participant's age, gender, and social status; stylistic appropriateness, such as the use of politeness strategies; and cultural factors, including background knowledge about the target language group. Following Celce-Murcia's conceptual framework delineating communicative competence, the model is subdivided into five constituent elements:

• Linguistic competence is equivalent to Canale and Swain's grammatical competence.

• Formulaic competence is the counterpart to linguistic competence; it refers to the fixed, prefabricated chunks of language that do not behave generatively as grammatical items do.

• Interactional competence includes actional competence (the ability to perform speech acts) and conversational competence (the ability to operate the turn-taking system of conversation).

• Strategic competence consists of strategies for language learning or maintaining the flow of interaction, similar to Canale and Swain's original strategic competence component. This component is represented in Figure 2 as linking up with the other components, allowing for the resolution of ambiguities and deficiencies in these other parts of the model.

• In Celce-Murcia's model, discourse competence plays a central, controlling role; it 'refers to the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message' (Celce-Murcia, 2007). This is where the other elements in the model come together: the lexical and linguistic levels, the formulaic patterns, and the socio-cultural and interactional knowledge are united to create a coherent text. Discourse competence is thus a level above the other sub-competencies in Celce-Murcia's model, a level that both incorporates and controls all of the other elements.

Emphasizing Celce-Murcia's (2007) perspective, it is crucial to underscore that the model is to be perceived as a dynamic process characterized by ongoing and continual interaction among its components. The illustration of communicative competence can be visually represented, as exemplified in Figure 5.

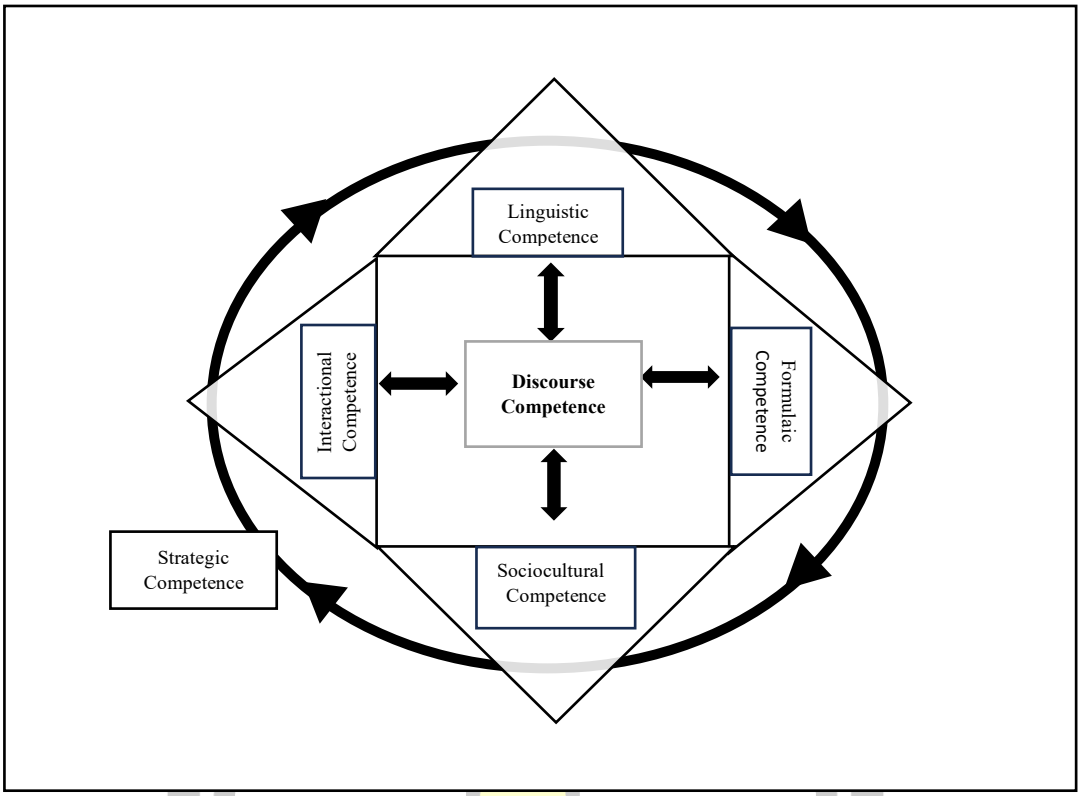


Figure 5 *Communicative Competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 45)*

2.3.1.1 Pragmatic Competence

The consideration of pragmatic competence in English Language Teaching (ELT) has been a subject of debate for an extended period, emerging when researchers-initiated discussions about its inclusion in the language classroom (Cohen, 2008; Félix-Brasdefer, 2008). Due to the inherent complexity of pragmatics, which involves 'forms, functions, contexts, social relationships, cultural conventions, and norms' (Taguchi, 2011, p. 305), it presents a challenge in language teaching settings. Despite the challenges, a significant body of research has explored pragmatics under various theories (Kasper & Rose, 2002), providing a review of theories and offering diverse suggestions on how to teach pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Taguchi, 2011). Studies have investigated both explicit and implicit teaching (Tateyama, 2001) and deductive and inductive teaching (Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001), with the primary focus on finding optimal ways to develop learners' pragmatic competence.

However, within this framework, pragmatic competence is typically confined to the relationship between 'language users and the context of communication

(Bachman, 1990), neglecting individual characteristics that influence communicative development, such as speakers' background (e.g., culture, first languages, etc.). Although pragmatic competence encompasses both illocutionary competence (knowing how to use language) and sociolinguistic competence (social knowledge that shapes language use based on context, people's roles, and status) (Hedge, 2000), it appears that the former receives more emphasis in the language classroom.

The incorporation of pragmatic competence into language teaching predominantly occurs through speech events and acts (Cohen & Ishihara, 2013), such as offering, refusing, and requesting, which are accomplished formally or informally, politely or impolitely, depending on the context (Johnstone, 1989). However, the speech event models in textbooks often do not closely resemble fundamental interactions, as they adhere to 'homogeneous native speaker norms' (Taguchi, 2011, p. 303). Thus, there is a pressing need to introduce not only authentic encounter models but also diverse forms of interactions, including native (e.g., British or American), non-native (e.g., English as a Lingua Franca), and mixed native and non-native (e.g., ELF) interactions. This approach helps students gain awareness of various features (e.g., culture, traditions, meanings, etc.) embedded in such conversational models.

According to the definitions of pragmatics in 2.2, they center around meaning derived in context. To explore meaning, the utilization of strategies becomes necessary, but what exactly are these strategies? When delving into the concept of 'strategy,' ELT addresses it from various perspectives in its literature. For instance, in both acquisition studies (e.g., learning strategies) and classroom language (e.g., communication strategies, etc.), 'strategy' takes on diverse conceptual definitions. In terms of classroom language studies, strategy commonly refers to communication strategies, specifically 'the employment of verbal and non-verbal mechanisms for the production communication of information' (Brown, 2007, p. 137), implying conscious planning to resolve problems or achieve effective communication.

A key point to note is that one primary function of communication strategies in ELT studies is to address communicative problems. The interest in this study lies in exploring the connection between strategies and pragmatics, as both terms — pragmatics and strategies —are pertinent to the overall objective of this research.

While pragmatic competence is undoubtedly a crucial element in the teaching and learning of language and communication, the literature on pragmatic competence does not explicitly address strategies for overcoming communicative problems. On the other hand, Strategic Competence does. This might align with the fact that Pragmatic Competence primarily focuses on meaning (Taguchi, 2011) but does not delve into interactional devices (e.g., repetition) that directly aid communication, as is the case with Strategic Competence. This aspect is discussed further in the following section.

2.3.1.2 Strategic Competence

As stated in section 2.2.1, in a broader sense, Strategic Competence pertains to communicative strategies employed to overcome issues in communication, often associated with a lack of proficiency. These encompass both achievement strategies (e.g., paraphrasing) and reduction strategies (e.g., avoidance). Both types of strategies not only compensate for breakdowns during communication but also contribute to enhancing effective communication between participants (Canale, 1983). Within the ELT framework, exploratory and experimental studies have observed both types, suggesting that reduction strategies may not be significantly beneficial for language learning. Conversely, achievement strategies that incorporate the strategic use of interactional devices, such as paraphrasing, repetition, and repair, among others, have received more positive recognition in ELT settings. These interactional devices are considered fundamental components of communication strategies to the extent that they are recommended for teaching in the language classroom (Hedge, 2000). However, in practice, this is a rare occurrence.

When examining the interrelation between pragmatic and strategic competencies, they appear to be distinct matters, although both share a connection with language itself. Language is what imparts importance to them, along with the other competencies. Consequently, both pragmatic and strategic competencies are crucial considerations when investigating the functional aspects of classroom interaction. In other words, pragmatics provides insights into how language is used in terms of speech events and acts, which are interpreted in specific ways (e.g., polite or impolite) depending on the context in which they occur (Cohen & Ishihara, 2013), strategic competencies address the interactional tactics employed in those speech

events and acts. This realization prompted further exploration of interactional competence literature.

A recent addition to competence theory is Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC), introduced by Walsh (2011). CIC seeks to enhance our understanding of classroom discourse and its impact on learning. It adopts a more interactional perspective that, in my view, extends the scope of Strategic Competencies by examining "the ability to communicate intended meaning and to establish joint understandings" (p. 160) through interactional devices. Walsh's perspective on competence differs from that of Canale and Swain, emphasizing communication involving two individuals rather than one. This aligns with recent findings on interaction, highlighting how speakers' features, such as cultural backgrounds, are enacted in conversations (Baker, 2015; Jenkins, 2015).

It is crucial at this juncture to note the distinction between Communicative Competence and Classroom Interactional Competence. Communicative competence contributes to shaping language as part of language teaching content, such as being the target of communicative language teaching. On the other hand, CIC is more closely associated with the study of classroom interaction, examining the processes of language learning and teaching through discourse analysis, to describe teaching and learning processes through interaction. This distinction holds significance for this study, as both are pertinent. Communicative Competence establishes foundations for understanding how pragmatic and strategic competencies are approached in ELT, focusing on what students need to learn about language.

In contrast, CIC offers alternative perspectives on classroom language use to facilitate comprehension of learning through language. Both contribute distinct understandings of interpreting and comprehending communication within language classrooms. From my perspective, they complement each other when teaching specific language aspects (communicative competencies) through language itself (CIC). An illustrative example is teaching English idioms applied to specific contexts (pragmatics), but utilizing communicative interactional strategies, such as repetition or paraphrasing, to help students grasp these meanings in context. This complexity underscores the need to clarify both Communicative Competence and Communicative

Interactional Competence in this way. While Communicative Competence has been covered so far, the following sections delve into issues embedded within classroom interaction and CIC.

2.4 Communication Theory

It is noteworthy that both the objectives and research questions (in Chapter I) are rooted in communication theory. Although communication theory, in general, is not the primary focus of this current research, it is essential to discuss it before delving into further details on classroom communication, interaction, and interactional pragmatic strategies. Communication is characterized by various features, as outlined by Canale (1983). Among these characteristics, communication is viewed as a form of social interaction, unpredictable and creative in both form and message, embedded in discourse and sociocultural contexts influencing language appropriacy, constrained by psychological factors, and always driven by a purpose, among other attributes (pp. 3-4). Additionally, Canale (1983, p. 4) defines communication as "the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes, and production and comprehension processes."

In this thesis, the essence of communication is perceived as the exchange and negotiation of information leading to understanding among interactants. To achieve understanding, speakers often follow certain paths in their utterances, aiming for intelligibility (recognizable utterances), comprehensibility (recognized utterance meaning), and interpretability (recognized speaker's intention) (Smith & Nelson, 1985). These aspects play a crucial role in facilitating communication in various oral exchanges, such as those in academic settings and the workplace.

In academic contexts, several models attempt to elucidate spoken discourse within classrooms, going beyond the depiction of turn-taking, such as the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) model by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Cyclical models, like those proposed by Holmes and Riddiford (2011), extend the understanding of communication goals in a language classroom, emphasizing the learning process. Their study on the effects of conscious learning, including opportunities for social

interaction in workplaces, suggests that while classroom and workplace settings differ, cognitive aspects can be complemented with social-interactional actions. Preliminary activities involving pair work, group discussion, retrospective interviews, and open-ended role plays encourage students to generate personalized responses and interact, deviating from scripted dialogue models found in textbooks (Holmes & Riddiford, 2011). Thus, they developed their own interaction, and upon completing the module, students were sent to workplaces where they had face-to-face interactions with others in the second language. As a result, Holmes and Riddiford (2011) observed that the learning process of students who engaged in language practices in workplaces and those taught and practiced in the classroom led to improved communication skills.

On the one hand, there is a growing need to contribute more to interactional studies. Moreover, an alternative model, such as Interactional Pragmatic Strategies, may contribute to understanding not only the complexity of language but also the diverse micro-strategies that collaboratively function as a network to achieve understanding and, consequently, effective communication. This closely aligns with the study of communication strategies. On the one hand, while communication seems to involve the study of cognition, caution is warranted as this research is limited to presenting patterns of understanding emerging from classroom interactions viewed as socio-cultural linguistic contact. In other words, an in-depth analysis from neurolinguistics or psycholinguistics viewpoints is not included in this current research, as the primary focus is on seeking sociolinguistic answers. It is acknowledged that brain processes play a crucial role in communication; however, this research goes beyond a focus on cognition. It does not aim to observe how understanding is reached through an individual "mind process" as traditionally done in neurolinguistics (Clapan, 2001) and psycholinguistics (Menn, 2017). Instead, the perspective is from a sociolinguistic standpoint through interaction (Schegloff, 1991) involving two or more interlocutors (Coupland, 2016). Nonetheless, a brief explanation of some related cognitive issues is important to provide context.

2.4.1 Cognition Theory and Interaction

Cognition, in conjunction with learning, is a well-established term utilized in educational psychology (Greeno & Resnick, 1996) and psycholinguistics (Harvey,

2014). Extensive research has concentrated on first language acquisition, wherein individual observations of the mother tongue, specifically the first language or L1, have been the focal point of study. Most studies on the cognition of L1 are conducted through experimental methodologies, with infants and children as the subjects of study. Additionally, second languages have been examined through the lens of cognitive theory, commonly referred to in the literature as Second Language Acquisition (SLA). SLA theories span various fields, including teaching and learning theories. For instance, considerations related to age are linked to individuals' affect (namely motivation), development, and cognition (Da Silva Gomes & Dorcasberro, 2005).

SLA theory has significantly contributed to the examination of the learner, shifting from an individual-centered perspective to a broader view that situates the learner within a community. Breen's (2011) conceptualization of a learner encompasses different levels of learning, including learners' attributes, conceptualizations, and affects (e.g., individual's innate language acquisition capacity), learners' actions in context (e.g., language learning strategies), classroom contexts as particular learning communities (e.g., active contributors to a communicative environment), and wider community identity and participation, which incorporates the learner's perspective on their experience transitioning from the past, present, and future (Breen, 2011, p. 9) (see Figure 6).

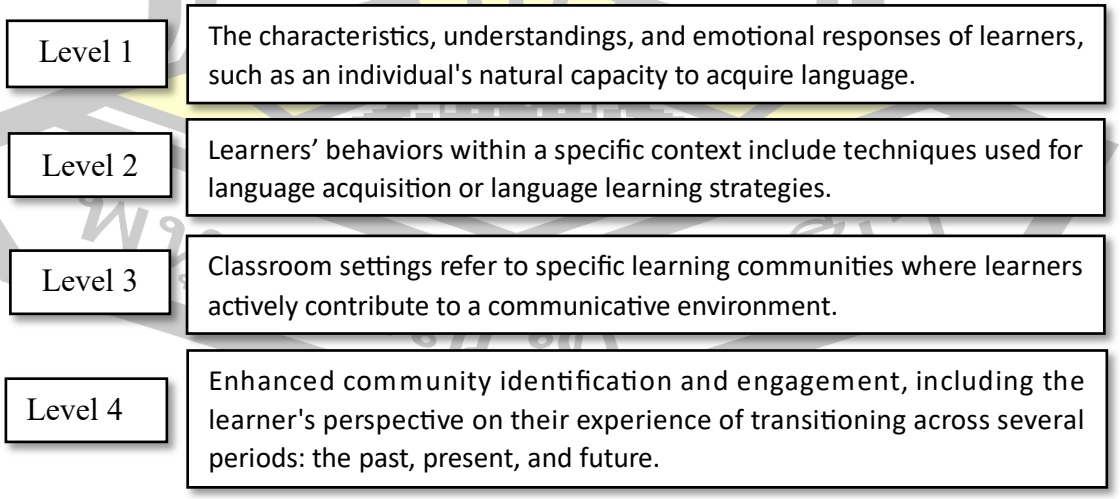


Figure 6 *The Process of Learning (Breen, 2011, as cited in Mirosław, 2021)*

From Breen's (2011) viewpoint, communication permeates all stages of learners. However, this current research specifically aims to explore actions in context, extending beyond learner-learner interaction to encompass all possible interactions in the language classroom. The emphasis is on interactional patterns that contribute to reaching understanding. Breen's (2011) learner classification indicates that cognition addresses not only the psychological aspects of language and communication but also the social aspects, although the contribution of interaction is not yet clearly defined.

Other cognitive theories, such as the Distributed Cognition Approach (DCA) developed by Hutchins (1991), may shed light on the interactional strand in classroom communication. The DCA explores the complex interdependencies between people and artifacts in their work activities, focusing on identifying problems, breakdowns, and the distributed problem-solving processes that emerge. While artifacts like books play a role in the language classroom, spoken interaction remains the primary means of communication and understanding, thus prompting this study to focus on interactional strands among people. The relevance of the DCA lies in its identification of breakdowns, suggesting an interface between cognition and interaction. Schegloff (1991) supports the idea of structures or patterns organizing talk-in-interaction, a fundamental aspect of the analytic framework for RQ 1.

A notable characteristic of SLA and cognitive theories is their reliance on experimental techniques. For instance, Gorjian and Habibi (2015) conducted a study on classroom interaction, testing the explicit teaching of communication strategies with 120 Iranian tertiary-level students. Explicit teaching enhanced communication among students in the experimental group compared to the control group, highlighting the importance of teacher-student interaction in enhancing learning. The authors recommend training courses for teachers to use conversation strategies and distribute instructional materials. While controlled environments provide valuable insights into how the mind works, they are limited to specific situations with controlled variables. Social views emphasize the importance of naturally occurring reactions, suggesting that studies collecting classroom interactions in their natural settings might yield

different results. This aligns with discourse analysis research (Kramsch, 1981; Ritchie et al., 2014).

It is crucial to acknowledge alternative views on cognition linked to social issues (Schegloff, 1991). For example, Tulviste and Gutman's (2003) studies on cognitive development in a social context focus on social and cultural phenomena between adults and children and among children in problem-solving settings. However, outcomes from experimental interactions among individuals limit the exploration of naturally occurring interactions. A social, educational environment implies interactions occurring naturally in various directions: teacher-student, student-teacher, student-student (Harmer, 2007; Tsui, 2001), teacher to an external person, or vice versa (Smit, 2010). Tenenberg and Knobelsdorf's (2014) comprehensive examination of sociocultural cognition makes it explicit that cognitivism is characterized by a focus on 'primarily mind in isolation, context-free problem-solving, and mental representations and reasoning' (p. 1). In the context of sociocultural cognition theory, their perspective shifts to view minds as ‘cultural products, biologically evolved to be extended by tools, social interaction, and embodied interaction in the world’ (Ibíd). Consequently, there is a recognized necessity to investigate communicative breakdowns from an alternative standpoint.

Conducting a thorough analysis of all branches of cognitivism and the diverse approaches to studying language (e.g., distributed cognition, sociocultural cognition, etc.) exceeds the scope of this present study. Nevertheless, two primary strands in cognition theory, situated and sociocultural perspectives, have been discussed previously. This present study acknowledges the contributions of cognitive theory, which has generated significant research outcomes related to learning and communication. However, none of these perspectives alone fulfills the study's objective, which seeks to explain how understanding is achieved within classroom interactions. From the researcher's perspective, it is necessary to explore other fields that could offer additional insights into understanding communication breakdowns. This exploration can be facilitated by delving into communication theory, with a focus on spoken language theories that have emerged from various research fields.

2.4.2 Spoken Interaction

Communication theories encompass a diverse array of fields. Among these, discourse patterns—whether written or spoken—have been a subject of investigation for decades under interactionist approaches (Mackey et al., 2012). Furthermore, over the years, 'interaction' has been characterized in diverse forms. A recent study examining various journals related to interaction and applied linguistics conducted by Skukauskaite et al. (2015) identified various domains for interaction in the classroom: teacher-student interaction, instruction, student interaction, linguistic use, method, and study of phenomena (p. 52). Clearly, all these domains are pertinent and contribute to communication theory.

In this context, the present study has considered research outcomes from various fields due to the interdisciplinary nature of classroom interaction. Additionally, the study aims to depict and comprehend the various micro-interactional strategies embedded in talk-in-interaction in the language classroom. Micro-strategies are evident in the literature about interaction analysis (Larsen-Freeman, 2012) and are observed in examples of interaction drawn from various contexts, such as classrooms and business. Studies in this sense relate to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Pica, 1993), Classroom Interaction (CI) (Walsh, 2011), and/or English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) (Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Ehrenreich, 2010), among numerous fields of study. Additionally, when studies focus on specific micro-strategies (e.g., repetition), other micro-strategies (e.g., code-switching) play a role in supporting understanding. Therefore, it is crucial to recognize the perspectives in various research fields addressing communication and, most importantly, to identify their common approaches to work in order to enhance understanding of communication.

Building on this multidisciplinary approach to communication and recognizing the intricacies of classroom discourse, no single theory can comprehensively explain classroom communication. Therefore, the fields addressed in this present research encompass Pragmatics in English Language Teaching, Classroom Interaction, and English as a Lingua Franca, with a focus on communication strategies at the micro level. Similar studies (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Eggins & Slade, 1997) have also

employed various theoretical and methodological approaches to provide in-depth descriptions of classroom communication. This diversity offers comprehensive insights into how mutual understanding can be achieved within the language classroom from an interactional perspective, aiding in the understanding of the natural ways in which spoken interaction unfolds among speakers. These study fields are thoroughly discussed and elaborated upon in this chapter as they form the foundation of the proposed framework in this research. They contribute to the recognition and observation of numerous micro-strategies embedded in discourses, highlighting the initial point of understanding how interactants utilize patterns of micro-strategies to address communication breakdowns and sustain conversations.

2.5 Interactional Pragmatic Strategies

An explanation about the immersion of pragmatics in strategies is warranted at this point, considering the various ways they are referred to in different fields. For example, strategies such as repetition, rephrasing/paraphrasing, repair, and code-switching are mentioned across various fields but receive different designations. ELT and ELF communicative devices are included under the umbrella term of communication strategies (Hedge, 2000; Mauranen, 2006, 2012), with ELF also terming them as pragmatic strategies (Cogo, 2009). Additionally, ELT manages pragmatic and strategic competencies, while in classroom interaction, these are referred to under the general term of strategies (Walsh, 2011; Seedhouse, 2004). Despite the varied nomenclature, the common goal across these fields is to solve communication problems. To avoid confusion with terminology and align with the focus on interaction in this research, the term "Interactional Pragmatic Strategies" is adopted.

This research revolves around interactional pragmatic strategies utilized to overcome communication breakdowns. These strategies hold significance within the language classroom as potential linguistic tools that students can employ in their language use. Thus, the teaching of pragmatics is also examined. Previous sections have delved into the noteworthy contributions of English Language Teaching, English used as a Lingua Franca, and classroom interaction research to the understanding of English interaction across diverse groups (e.g., monolingual, multilingual, etc.). While

it is evident that ELF theoretical contributions stem from various types of interactions (e.g., workplace talk), and despite their differing nature from classroom discourse, they share a commonality in the way speakers employ strategies to navigate communicative challenges. This similarity between classroom and ELF talk arises from the fact that speakers can effectively address communication breakdowns regardless of the language spoken, as the strategies employed are not language-specific.

For example, in ELT studies, learning strategies encompass activities related to input processing, including metacognitive (e.g., planning), cognitive (e.g., rehearsal), and social/affective strategies (e.g., cooperation) (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 44-45). A notable strategy that bears a resemblance to ELF pragmatic strategies is 'rehearsal,' as it involves repetition by name, aligning with the function of remembering items or objects. In fact, repetition is a strategy recommended for teaching at early learning stages, particularly the beginner's level. It is associated with various functions, such as ways of requesting repetition, asking someone to speak slowly, seeking clarification, ensuring comprehension, and sustaining a conversation, among others (Hedge, 2000). These functions align with some of the roles of ELF pragmatic strategies, which fall under the broader umbrella of communication strategies, including meaning negotiation. Researchers such as Dörnyei and Scott (1997) conducted an extensive review of communication strategies (see Appendix M), encompassing an inventory of strategies employed by both teachers and students. The revision also includes developed taxonomies featuring strategies like repetition, rephrasing, repair, and others. This serves as an indicator of how such phenomena have been addressed in language teaching and learning.

2.5.1 Interactional Pragmatic Strategies Model (IPSs Model)

The model proposed by Varonis and Gass (1985), which focuses on the negotiation of meaning, served as the first motivation for me to investigate communication breakdowns. This model, known as T > I, R, RR, offered an organized framework for analyzing communication breakdowns. However, while considering the list of strategies during analysis, it became clear that such a model could be used differently. Therefore, I had to come up with a way to create a model that could

include interactional pragmatic strategies to provide a framework for comprehension. The model was created based on the one proposed by Varonis and Gass in 1985, as explained further below in Figure 7.

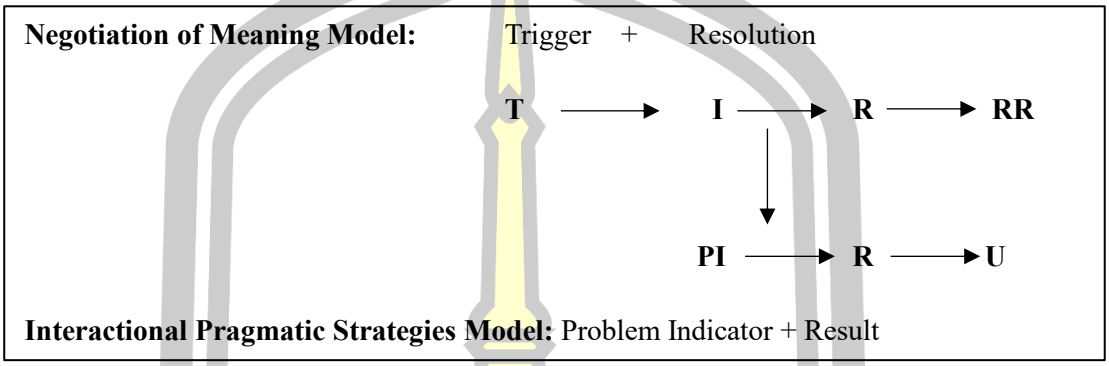


***Figure** 7 Negotiation of the Meaning Model (Varonis and Gass, 1985*)

Figure 7 shows the two main elements of the IPSs model: the Problem Indicator (PI) and the Result (R). The former was based on Varonis and Gass's (1985) Indicator (I) and the latter on the Response (R). Shehadeh (1999) also explains the model of the IPSs in Figure 8.

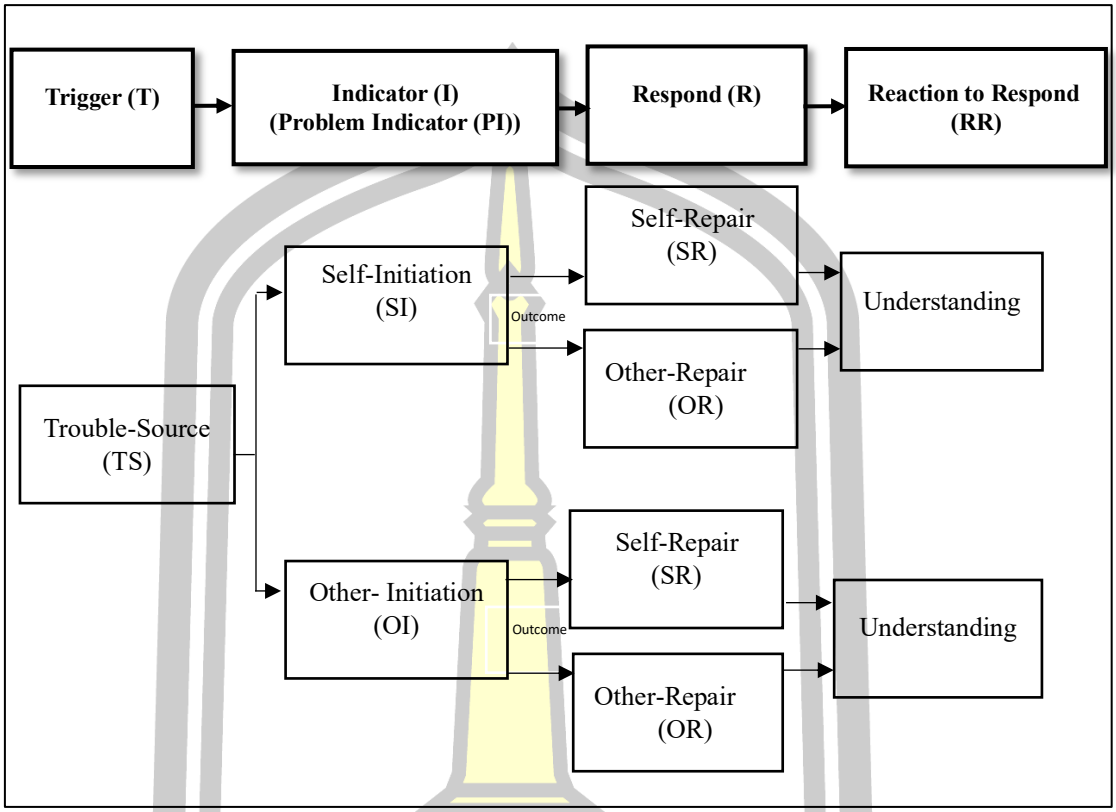


Figure 8 *Negotiation of the Meaning Model (Shehadeh, 1999)*

Shehadeh (1999) clarifies the model of Varonis and Gass (1985) that when an English non-native speaker talks to another English non-native speaker, there are four sequences: self-initiation (SI) > self-repair (SR), Other-initiation (OI) > self-repair (SR), self-initiation (SI) > other-repair (OR), and other-initiation (OI) > other-repair (OR).

The framework that manages classroom interaction in this study is a model derived from Varonis and Gass (1985) and Shehadeh (1999). The model consists of four operational components: The initial component initiates. The second component is a trouble source or trigger initiator, which can be self-initiation or other initiation. The third component, repair, may arise from either self-initiation or other-initiation. The fourth aspect refers to the interlocutor's reaction to the outcome (Mahmoud, 2023).

Indeed, the term "Indicator" in Varonis and Gass (1985) refers to a method by which one speaker informs the other listener that something has gone wrong. The Problem Indicator (PI) is an utterance or part of an utterance that indicates the existence of trouble in a conversation. PI can be recognized by the presence of explicit questions, such as direct questions (e.g., "What do you mean?"), or by indirect indications of communication problems such as interjections (e.g., "Eeh?") or extended periods of quiet (e.g., 3 seconds or more). The interlocutors self-identify such utterances throughout their interactions, and they are recognized due to the apparent disruption of the conversation's smooth flow. These types of utterance patterns were anticipated, but a comprehensive standard for problem indicators (PI) was created based on the researcher's thorough investigation.

The result, represented by the symbol R, is the second element. This element is associated with the Response theory proposed by Varonis and Gass in 1985. However, in the model, the Result extends beyond the speaker's Response, which is seen as a follow-up utterance after the indicator that acknowledges non-understanding. The result refers to the utterances that acknowledge or recognize an issue of communication problems, along with the observable techniques used to resolve the problem and achieve mutual comprehension. According to the IPSs model, repetition refers to repeating a previous statement exactly in spoken interaction, while rephrasing involves restructuring ideas (e.g., changing words or sentence structure) during a conversation. Repair is fixing errors in speech or thoughts, whereas code-switching refers to using the first language (L1 henceforth) in a foreign or second language classroom (L2). These criteria clarify the distinct characteristics of each method, highlighting their differences in form despite their underlying overlap.

Another aspect to consider is the necessity to fully elaborate on the description of IPSs occurrences and who was doing the action. Existing literature provides frameworks that demonstrate whether an action is performed by self- or other- such as in cases of repetition (Björkman, 2011). Other frameworks go deeper into identifying the initiator and performer of action, as seen in studies on repair conducted (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Seedhouse, 2004). The researcher adopted the most basic differentiation to clarify the action's character. The classified strategy is "self-" when

the individual who said the utterance also performed the strategy, such as self-repetition. Conversely, the researcher categorized it as "other-" when the strategy was not done by the same individual who emitted the utterance but by another one, such as other-rephrasing. The IPSs model explicitly indicates the involvement of oneself and others to prevent confusion between different analytic frameworks, such as Repair Theory. Now, let us focus on the third component.

The third component is Understanding (U), which is a statement demonstrating the interlocutors' shared comprehension through conversation. The model proposed by Varonis and Gass in 1985 classifies this utterance as a Reaction to Response. However, it is essential to note that this classification falls within a broader category that may or may not indicate understanding.

2.5.2 Repairables Framework

The previous section focused on describing the IPSs model in the strictest turn-by-turn analysis. However, the analysis needs to go further and observe the functional level of strategies within classroom interaction to identify the cause or causes of breakdowns. Such causes would let us realize interactants' social and educational purposes within communication. That is to say, RQ2 implies not only the identification of phenomena in form but also how strategies are functioning in relation to communicative problem-solving (e.g. while teaching, practicing, etc.). In order to look at how strategies function, I considered Smit's (2010) categorization for repair phenomena studies in which she found three categories (linguistic, interactional, and factual) of repairables–namely occurrences of repair– that are related to the language classroom. Although these categories refer to repair phenomena, they are likely to apply with repetition, rephrasing, and translanguaging because all of them represent means to 'give voice to their (participants') problems in inferring meaning' (Smit 2010), so strategies are used as a means to establish understanding in spoken interaction. Although Smit's (2010) framework was limited to repair, it was expanded to other pragmatic strategies that help the purpose of understanding. Smit's (2010) categories are linguistic, interactional, and factual.

The linguistic category includes solving problems regarding pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. The interactional category includes mishearing (namely

problems with intelligibility), reference (problems of referential specifications and situated meaning), and discourse (problems of topic development and turn-taking). Finally, the factual category includes instructional solving problems like the topics or those that are content-linked, as well as regulative solving problems such as lesson-organizational matters (Smit 2010: 183). It is important to highlight here that although this categorization is well set in Smit's (2010) studies, it served as a starting point for my analysis. That is to say, whilst I am aware of the existence of these possible outcomes, these did not limit my analysis. Moreover, in order to validate my findings, I observed which of the findings deserved major attention and went further in-depth with them. Therefore, Smit's (2010) categorization varied along with my own data analysis (see discussion in Chapter IV).

Summarizing, the analytic procedure consisted of identifying the problem, observing which interactional pragmatic strategies help to overcome the problem, indicating who is using such resource –if self- or other– and, finally, determining what kind of problem was solved (namely, how IPSs functioned). So, the IPSs framework for analysis seeks to answer my Research Question 2, which includes knowing the extent, namely basic accounts of phenomena (Cohen et al., 2011) that help to provide an idea of the number of communication breakdowns analyzed, in addition to knowing which and how problems were solved, evidenced with examples.

2.5.3 Repetition Strategy

Repetition, in spoken language, refers to the act of uttering a phrase or statement many times throughout the conversation (Mauranen, 2012). Although commonly observed in communication, it has been regarded as a negative phenomenon (Lichtkoppler, 2007). For example, when an individual repeatedly restates their arguments for clarity, they may engage in an over-accommodation behavior. This refers to an excessive focus on clarifying, resulting in repetition or rephrasing (Giles et al., 1991; Shepard et al., 2001). However, rather than assisting communication, over-accommodation can hinder it. In English Language Teaching (ELT), repetition has often been viewed as a positive aspect.

Repetition is unfavorable, namely in the context of learning processes. Language learners who employ repetitive utterances might show "dysfluency and lack

of competence" (Mauranen, 2012, p. 35) in the acquired language, particularly when their language learning is focused on exams and requires native-like fluency. Nevertheless, repetition has gradually evolved in the field of ELT. Initially used solely for repetition, the drill has evolved to incorporate the cognitive process of analyzing a specific utterance (word, phrase, or sentence) within the lesson. In other words, the more students are exposed to this language and have repeated experiences with it, the greater their chances of remembering and applying it (Harmer, 2007). This concept resembles the notion of language recycling within an instructional context aimed at facilitating learning. Additional research corroborates the notion of regular repetition in the classroom, as it can be seen as a means for individuals to adapt to new contexts or situations in which they find themselves, which aligns with complexity theory (Larsen-Freeman, 2012). This adaptation process is similar to the accommodation abilities demonstrated by speakers of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF).

The use of repetition in classroom discourse has been discussed in a document, where it was identified as a method of reasoning, expressing disagreement, or as a persuasive technique (Gilabert et al., 2013). The paper's authors highlighted that repetition of disagreement can be employed to emphasize a point, reorient the topic of interaction, maintain control in the conversation, or ensure one's opinions are accepted (Scott, 2002). In a subsequent study, Gilabert et al. (2013) conducted an experimental intervention consisting of eight 50-minute classes. During these courses, students were required to engage in debates and reach an agreement on specific themes. It was discovered that the group in persuasion utilized repetitive structures and reiterated the same idea more frequently compared to the group in consensus. However, the group in consensus did not employ repetitive structures as frequently as the group in persuasion. When the group reached a consensus, they presented a greater number of ideas. Despite being an experimental research study, it provided a comprehensive understanding of the functioning of repetition with a specific objective. Bazzanella (2011) proposes a theoretical viewpoint highlighting the use of repetition for two purposes: connecting the preceding speech and prompting interlocutors to correct what they said, a process known as repair.

From an interactional perspective, repetition serves as a mechanism that gives students sufficient time to think about their thoughts before speaking (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). This function is comparable to the phenomenon of ELF interaction, in which repetition is employed to maintain the conversational flow while the speaker creates the following response (Mauranen, 2012). Two forms of repetition, such as echo, where teachers repeat their own or students' contributions, have been observed in classroom interaction research. The two types of echo are teacher-learner echo and teacher-teacher echo. The former refers to when the teacher repeats a student's utterance, whereas the latter refers to when the teacher repeats their own utterance. This repetition is primarily used for clarification purposes but may also serve pedagogical reasons, such as non-evaluative repair. An example is extracted and modified from Walsh's work (2011).

Extract 1

1 T: what was the most special present on your birthday Dommy?

2 S: the most special present?

3 T: the most special

4 S: the most special present, I think, was a gold ring from my mom

Extract 1 demonstrates how repetition has been used to provide confirmation. In other words, the teacher asked a student a question directly on line 1. The student may have not heard the term 'special' and wanted to verify what they heard. Consequently, the student responds with an inquiry by restating the problematic sentence (line 2). A student could comprehend the purpose of the sentence (line 3) when the teacher said it once more. Student demonstrated comprehension by repeating the same word (line 4). Although this is a case of classroom interaction, similar circumstances also arise in interactions using ELF.

According to Mauranen (2006), research on ELF also recognizes repetition as a means to provide clarity or avoid misunderstandings. Put, repetition serves the purpose of ensuring that the listener understands the intended meaning. This is seen as a cooperative act that can indicate agreement, listenership, engagement in the

conversation, alignment, and solidarity. Additionally, repetition could enhance intelligibility when used in conjunction with repair. Repetition has a multifunctional aspect in its various forms, such as false starts and repeats.

Lichtkoppler (2007) is a prominent researcher who focuses on using repetition in ELF. Her study investigates several aspects of repetition, including its forms, functions, and importance for promoting successful conversations in ELF. She examined spontaneous conversations involving the office workers, who were advisors, and the students within an Austrian institution. Thus, the interactions she examined were relatively brief, primarily serving the aim of exchanging information to resolve students' problems. Using a bottom-up approach and conversation analysis, she identified specific patterns of repetition. These patterns led her to propose several micro-functions of repetition, including time gaining, utterance development, emphasis, accuracy assurance, listener engagement, cohesion, and borrowing. These micro-functions, in turn, support her three suggested macro-functions: production-oriented repetitions that aid in the completion of utterance acts, comprehension-oriented repetitions that facilitate mutual understanding, and interaction-oriented repetitions that contribute to the expression of participation, solidarity, or attitude. Lichtkoppler (2007) examined many forms of repetition that can be explored in interaction. These relate to three primary factors in interaction: the level of fixity, such as being accurate, having variation, or being paraphrased; the time frame (whether immediately or delayed); and the individuals involved (whether there is self-repetition or other repetition). She suggests that the roles of repetition, both on a small scale (micro) and a large scale (macro), often overlap and require clarification. However, repetition is considered an essential strategy that enhances both language production and comprehension.

Mauranen (2006, 2012) conducted another study regarding repetition. Through an examination of two corpora, namely MICASE (Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English), which mainly consists of native-speaker conversations, and ELFA (English as Lingua Franca in Academic settings), which focuses on interactions between non-native speakers, the researcher observed both monologue and dialogue speech in academic contexts. The main discoveries made by the researcher were that

repetition serves as a means to indicate a lack of comprehension (Mauranen, 2006). Additionally, through her investigation in 2012, she determined that self-repetition can be used to extend one's speaking turn during a conversation, and this behavior is typically intentional rather than accidental. Regarding interactional speech, the act of echoing or other repetition has served several purposes. Firstly, it helps search for the intended meaning of the content being discussed, which is crucial for achieving a shared understanding. Secondly, it aids in finding the appropriate linguistic form to support effective communication. Lastly, echoing can be seen as a relational practice where nonverbal cues, such as laughter, help foster a sense of connection and affiliation during a conversation. Both studies emphasize that the data show a reduced occurrence of negotiation of meaning in ELF communication compared to native-like talk. Below is an illustration of the phenomenon known as 'echoing' in ELF conversations. The text was derived and modified from Nawamawat (2021) to conform to the norms employed in this thesis.

Extract 2

1 L2: especially in my nn school there are especially in my nn schoon here are only [onwi] three [t:] teacher [ti:tsə] (1.0) [tri: ti:tsə]

2 S2: three teachers

3 L2: yes, three teachers

Extract 2 demonstrates the repetition of a sentence. As the Laotian female (L2) tried to say 'only three teachers,' her pronunciation [onwi ti: ti:tsə] confused the others. This was followed by a second pause. She then realized that the others did not understand her, so she repeated herself. This gesture serves as a primary indication during communication, but it effectively communicates comprehension of previous utterances, precisely the main conversational point in the course. When an interlocutor repeats the previous sentence exactly, it signifies a shared understanding and agreement in the discourse.

In this thesis, repetition is defined as the act of repeating a prior statement in spoken language. Previous studies provide recommendations on several approaches to studying repetition, indicating a wide range of methods for exploring this interactional

pragmatic phenomenon. Repetition has exhibited various characteristics, from Lichtkoppler's (2007) fixity scale to Mauranen's (2012) categorization. One significant differentiation in this study is the identification of the individuals responsible for the repetition. Therefore, in this thesis, data descriptions specify whether the repetition is self-repetition or other-repetition types, which are indicated in the data descriptions. Regarding the various forms of repetition, I employed the most straightforward kind of repetition: the precise repetition of words or phrases, often referred to as verbatim repetition. This choice is motivated by the intention to prevent any misunderstanding that may arise from rephrasing, as explained below.

2.5.4 Rephrasing Strategy

Rephrasing is a method speakers can use to convey or reorganize concepts before or after a conversation to enhance clarity and understanding (Bazzanella, 2011; Mauranen, 2012; Kaur, 2011). Similar to rephrasing, paraphrasing is another term used to describe this practical strategy. Paraphrasing and rephrasing are synonymous terms that have identical basic meanings. Therefore, in this thesis, I used both words interchangeably to capture their fundamental concepts: the act of clarifying by paraphrasing and the act of resolving comprehension problems (Kaur, 2009), as well as assisting in modifying complex questions during a lesson (Tsui, 2001). The subsequent passage serves as an illustration of clarification, which is modified from Nawamawat (2021).

Extract 3

1 S2: do they] do they write essays do they write essays do the pupils do the pupils write compositions?

2 Mn2: can your students write an essay or paragraph writing {S2: eh hm} a composition?

3 L2: yes I think they can because er as I asked them to write er the story they can write and some mistakes I think that's ok for them because they have never learned English before.

Extract 3 shows how the Burmese female (Mn2) paraphrased S2's question for L2, as she realized from L2's expression that she had not fully understood.

Then, strategies that aid in gaining clarity include expanding or simplifying. Engaging in such behavior allows for the demonstration of several linguistic activities throughout the conversation, including carefully choosing words, following simple patterns in utterances, looking for semantic relations, and so on. These actions are all part of paraphrasing and repeating (Seidlhofer, 2011). Mauranen (2006) stated that rephrasing is related to repair. The link rephrasing has repetition, and repair is overlapped most of the time; thus, it is difficult to split. Despite this, the following paragraphs attempt to separate these to provide an expanded idea of rephrasing.

In ELT, rephrasing is commonly defined as replacing words with synonyms or using indirect language to express the same meaning. This concept is sometimes referred to as 'lexical substitution' or 'circumlocution' (Harmer, 2007; Johnstone, 1989; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). The concept is closely connected to repetition since it involves repetition of the same concept but expressed via different terminology. Rephrasing serves as a significant tool in classroom engagement. According to Walsh (2015), paraphrasing, combined with other strategies like scaffolding and repetition, requires instructors to have the ability to shape learner contributions. Consequently, this technique enables learners to fully engage in a more significant exchange and acquire language skills suitable for their specific requirements. According to Walsh (2015), classroom appropriation refers to paraphrasing with two purposes: checking meaning and moving the discourse forward.

Regarding other interactional elements, rephrasing can be categorized into self-rephrasing and other-rephrasing, each serving different purposes inside the classroom. Rephrasing offers assistance or support to users who have trouble comprehending a word, phrase, or concept (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Tarone 1977). It also aids in clarifying information that was not fully understood during a class (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). The functions are similar to those seen in ELF interactions that relate to resolving communication breakdown. Mauranen (2012)

noted that English Native Language (ENL) speakers use more rephrasing than ELF speakers.

Additionally, when rephrasing occurs in ELF, it typically involves slight modifications. This offers a potential explanation for the commonly intuitive perception that L2 speakers correct themselves more frequently. This supports the idea that people may be impacted by their perception of and contact with others. An illustration of oral speech adjustment may be seen in the following excerpt extracted from Mauranen's work (2012):

Extract 4

I don't think that it's in not for a I don't have this feeling that... (ELFA)

Extract 4 illustrates an adjustment of the same idea that, in this case, is a reporting clause marked in the underlined words (Mauranen, 2012). In other words, the speaker restated their first statement using a different term in an attempt to clarify their intended meaning. A more ELT-oriented term focused on this view may be monitoring, which refers to learners being conscious of their language production and capable of self-correcting, as an illustration. Returning to Mauranen's (2012) research, it was also shown that ELF rephrases do not alter the meaning or basic concept of the prior statement. However, the form of these rephrases, including aspects such as morphology and syntax, differs somewhat from that of ENL interaction. However, given the restricted number of samples in her dataset, she underscores the necessity for more investigation on this last discovery. Repair is an interactional pragmatic strategy that is connected to repetition and paraphrasing.

2.5.5 Repair Strategy

The concept of repair has been extensively examined in English Language Teaching (ELT) and is considered a fundamental aspect of classroom interaction theory. As described by Schegloff et al. (1977), the repair sequence model examines different types of repair and the individuals involved in initiating and performing the repair. These include self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, other-initiated self-repair, and other-initiated other-repair. This model has proven valuable in

understanding corrective aspects within the classroom to solve the communication problem and maintain conversation flow (Wilbur & Cameron, 2009; Markee, 2000).

According to Walsh (2015), there are similarities between situations when teachers point out errors and ask the student to fix them and a concept known as other-initiated self-repair. Additional instances include self-initiated self-repair, which involves learners independently evaluating their oral language output, and other-initiated other-repair when teachers assess learners' oral production. Furthermore, to ensure understanding, speakers employ self-initiated other-repair and other-initiated self-repair as methods of clarification. Paraphrasing is utilized to provide support when one of the interlocutors offers an interpretation of what was previously heard. Refer to the provided example from Mahmoud's work (2023):

Extract 5

S: He was taking an image of her by his camera (0.4) No! He was taking a photo by his camera.

Extract 5 shows an example of Self-Initiation (SI) > Self-Repair (SR) in turn. This means when S talks and notices an error, S repairs it by himself/herself.

Regarding speaking activities, Harmer (2007) proposes that learners should be able "to communicate in various genres and contexts, employing a variety of conversational and conversational repair strategies." These repair strategies are also seen as a means of survival in any conversation. They employ techniques such as repetition and paraphrasing, among other strategies, to enhance learners' proficiency in face-to-face communication. In this context, the word 'repair' is similar to the concept explored by Deterding (2013) in his study on ELF interaction. It is closely linked to other interactional pragmatic strategies, such as repetition and rephrasing.

Additional ELT repair functions can be identified in classroom strategies, such as using self-accuracy checks (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). This involves self-monitoring to check comprehension and production, specifically in listening and speaking activities, to make necessary corrections or clarify the intended meaning of the conversation (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Within classroom interaction studies,

researchers have proposed pedagogical recommendations about the concept of repair, primarily emphasizing its combination with repetition. Seedhouse (2004) proposes many techniques for fixing speech errors through repetition. One strategy is to repeat the learner's word or phrase immediately before the mistake and repeat the original inquiry or prompt.

Within ELF research, the investigation of repair has also been the primary focus. In this context, repair and other interactional pragmatic strategies, such as repetition and rephrasing, are seen as means to enhance understanding and avoid miscommunication (Kaur, 2011). These strategies are translated into language support that assists speakers in successfully engaging in and continuing conversations. Kaur is an ELF researcher who has dedicated her exploration to the repair field. She analyzed the characteristics and purposes of ELF discourse by examining a dataset of 15 hours of spontaneous conversation. The findings demonstrate that repair can serve four functions: modeling a conventional pronunciation to resolve grammatical problems, replacing lexical choices, and serving as sentence completion (Kaur, 2011). Consider, for instance, the following excerpt from Kaur's work in 2011.

Extract 6

A: so what about- eh you have any:: for example like us we have identi-

identification card . . .(0.8) you guys have identifision- identification?

Extract 6 demonstrates the ability to correct mispronunciations on one's own. The speaker initially displayed uncertainty by hesitating before using the word' identification. Furthermore, he/she later mispronounced the word and concluded their statement with a question mark, indicating a lack of confidence and potentially seeking assistance regarding the term' identification.' As a result, extract 3.6 was utilized to demonstrate a pronunciation-repair exploration, and there were no follow-up turns that enabled the observation of other repairs that may have also resolved the lexical problem.

These functions are associated with different linguistic language levels, primarily focused on form rather than content or meaning. The author concludes that ELF repair offers support and aid to the speaker, indicating that repair serves not just

to correct mistakes but also to develop language and promote learning in collaborative classroom interactions. Kaur (2011) presents a further study examining self-repair in ELF interaction. The display of repair differences occurs when it performs either a "correcting" role or an "increasing explicitness" role. In her earlier study, she believes the repairs are intimately associated with lexical, morphological, and syntactical problems. She refers to these repairs as 'correcting.' Moreover, Pathomchaiwat (2019) suggested that non-native teachers were perceived as struggling with pronunciation clarity, which impacted students' ability to learn proper pronunciation. This impacts both students' learning and the teachers' confidence in pronunciation instruction.

In contrast, the function of 'increasing explicitness' argues that breakdowns can be prevented by providing an alternate reference to previous statements or by adding additional information throughout the discourse. In discussion, repair can be seen as a revision or confirmation of a prior contribution (Hynninen, 2011). According to the ELF perspective, Kaur asserts that self-repair is a potent technique that enables speakers to improve clarity. Mauranen (2006) states that determining self-repair roles is challenging because their primary purpose might be to clarify meaning, facilitate smoother contact, or gain more planning time. However, Smit's (2010) examination of classroom interaction in English Medium Instruction modules of a Hotel Management Programme in Austria identifies a series of fixable issues - specifically, language problems or difficulties (Seedhouse, 2004) that are resolved within the classroom - categorized into three primary groups: Linguistic issues encompass difficulties with pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary; interactional challenges involve mishearing; issues with a reference or referential meaning, and problems with discourse; and regulative problems relate to instructional issues, such as lesson content, and problems related to the organization of the lesson. This framework has been utilized as the foundation for developing the researcher's analytical framework. This research examines repair in the context of its interactional strategic functions, which aim to resolve communication breakdowns and establish successful communication through self-repair or other-repair. The decision to only adopt individuals who perform repairs while excluding those who initiate them aligns with the objective of this research. The aim is to gain insight into how interactional

pragmatic strategies resolve communication issues in classroom interactions. From this standpoint, repair is viewed as a micro-interactional strategy, similar to repetition and rephrasing. Translanguaging has been identified as a fourth method that can contribute to achieving mutual understanding.

2.5.6 Translanguaging

The notion of translanguaging has become increasingly popular in recent years. The statement highlights the transition from using only monolingual ideologies in multilingual education to embracing several languages and adopting a flexible perspective on multilingualism. This shift is associated with contemporary advancements in social context, typified by the increasing variety and mobility of people everywhere (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). Translanguaging is not necessarily connected to the English language or its characteristics as a global language, but there are some similarities. According to Kachru and Nelson (2006), the concept of global Englishes involves 'the acquisition of various languages, which can result in functional differences and overlap. This is commonly demonstrated through the use of code-switching and mixing. Translanguaging is distinguished from code-switching and code-mixing by its emphasis on the production and use of complex and interconnected discursive practices by speakers (García & Wei, 2014). Even when Welsh is utilized as the medium of instruction, the objective is to cultivate fluency in both languages. The concept is that translanguaging necessitates a more profound comprehension than the individual use of the two languages. It is crucial to emphasize a systematic and consistent switching between the two languages, which has been implemented as an instructional strategy. This practice may not always be observed when translanguaging is employed in different settings.

Translanguaging, as defined by García (2009), refers to using various discursive strategies by bilingual individuals to comprehend and navigate their multilingual environments. This term relates to spontaneous activities that occur without conscious instructional planning and can occur within or outside the classroom. Translanguaging, as defined by Canagarajah (2011), refers to 'the skill of multilingual speakers to smoothly switch between languages, considering the many languages they know as a unified system.' Translanguaging extends beyond the

classroom in this scenario. GE-oriented activities in a typical English classroom that were practicable. The participants had positive perceptions regarding the varieties of English (Sangpetch et al., 2023). Prabjandee (2019) examined teacher professional development to implement Global Englishes language teaching. The study highlighted that the teacher provided positive feedback on the activities, although limited improvements were noted in views about GELT. Translanguaging is dynamic and based on a single repertoire, as the multilingual speaker incorporates components from several languages. Translanguaging is linked to contemporary movements that soften the distinctions between languages. However, several scholars also challenge the notion of languages as distinct entities and suggest deconstructing named languages (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007; Otheguy et al., 2015). Leung and Valdes (2019) differentiate between two analytical perspectives. The first perspective posits that languages are discrete and independent semiotic entities, whereas the second perspective argues that languages are compositions of temporal lexical and syntactic characteristics that convey human meaning.' The first approach, which is widely accepted, posits that different languages may have a specific type of relationship with each other. The second perspective suggests that specific lexical, syntactic, phonological, and orthographic traits are employed in specific contexts and periods. These characteristics may not necessarily have to be enduring in a specific language. The first perspective is linked to the first translanguaging notion in Wales. This is because Welsh and English are seen as distinct languages despite intentionally using both languages for educational purposes. The second perspective aligns with the notion of translanguaging, as introduced by Otheguy et al. (2015), which refers to 'the unrestricted use of a speaker's complete range of languages, disregarding the prescribed limitations imposed by societal and political categorizations of specific languages, typically associated with countries and states.'

According to García and Otheguy (2020, p. 2), 'translanguaging views multilingual individuals as having a unified linguistic system that they develop via various social contacts, without isolating it into separate boundaries that correspond to certain languages.' The consequence of this stance, which diverges from the initial concept of translanguaging formulated in Wales, is that translanguaging can be

relevant to both bilinguals and monolinguals (Otheguy et al., 2015). According to García and Otheguy (2020, p. 26), translanguaging encompasses verbal elements and non-linguistic multimodal resources, including 'gestures, gazes, posture, visual cues, and even interactions between humans and technology.' According to Leung and Valdés (2019, p. 365), translanguaging has challenges when dealing with 'the pedagogical aspects related to acquiring and utilizing language-specific skills for educational purposes. García and Otheguy (2020) acknowledge the importance of students' access to certain languages, but they argue that their translanguaging activities must be officially recognized in educational settings.

Historically, educational boundaries have been rigid and need to align with the communication practices of multilingual individuals, who frequently draw upon many linguistic resources from their multilingual repertory. Identifying distinct languages can provide challenges in specific scenarios due to multilingual individuals drawing from their linguistic repertoire. However, in other instances and contingent upon the social setting, multilingual may exclusively employ a single language. For instance, in the Basque Country, where both Basque and Spanish are spoken, research conducted by Cenoz and Gorter (2019) using data from informal social media conversations among young teenagers revealed the challenge of distinguishing between Basque and Spanish in these interactions. Nevertheless, these young individuals proficient in several languages may effortlessly engage in a conversation or produce a written composition that is distinctly in either Basque or Spanish. According to Cummins (2017), languages are social constructs with arbitrary borders. However, it is crucial to acknowledge that speakers perceive them as distinct entities and can recognize them. Conversations may generally be categorized as taking place in a specific language. However, the extent of these restrictions may vary depending on the social setting. It has been claimed that translanguaging can benefit minoritized communities and their languages because it can empower speakers of minoritized languages (Otheguy et al., 2015; Li, 2018). This can be the case in some social contexts because translanguaging can liberate people from strict purist ideologies and can be closer to how they communicate in real life. However, there can be situations in which translanguaging can be felt as a threat to the use of minority languages. Arocena, Cenoz and Gorter

(2017) reported that Basque teachers are worried about translanguaging because it can weaken the Basque language in the Basque Autonomous Community in Spain. Translanguaging in this context, where everybody is proficient in Spanish, and only one-third of the population is proficient in Basque, can be seen as a threat. It is not a threat to Spanish because it is a powerful language, and the influence goes from the majority to the minority language. Students can use Spanish with minimal traces of Basque in this asymmetrical relation. However, because of the strength of Spanish in the social context, they tend to use many elements from Spanish when they speak Basque. If these practices are encouraged, the minority language could disappear soon. This concern has also been addressed in the Welsh context (Lewis et al., 2012). It is not a question of establishing rigid boundaries between languages and monolingual ideologies, and we argue that boundaries between languages should be softer than they have traditionally been. At the same time, in contexts in which minority languages are used, it is necessary to develop strategies to protect and promote the use of the minority language in functional breathing spaces for using the minority language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017).

According to Ambele (2022), it is essential for teachers in EFL programs to have favorable attitudes towards the use of learners' native language (L1) in the classroom, known as classroom translanguaging pedagogy. This is important for the development of L2 skills and learning of material. Teachers must focus more on ignoring the simultaneous usage of L1 and L2 in an English-medium Thai classroom when both languages are spoken. Furthermore, the study revealed that participants strongly supported a change in this direction and expressed their support for the potential implementation of translanguaging in Thai higher education. This illustrates that these educators permit students to strategically utilize their native language (L1) in the classroom to achieve different teaching and learning objectives.

For Chaisiri (2022), several efforts are necessary to increase awareness and motivate language instructors in Thailand to utilize their students' linguistic abilities properly. ELT practitioners must attend pre-service teacher education, in-service teacher training courses, and researcher-teacher collaborations to be educated on the strategic utilization of translanguaging. This will enable them to effectively employ

translanguaging in real-time situations and fully realize its pedagogical significance. Furthermore, it is essential to acknowledge that the linguistic environment in Thailand is complex, despite Thai being the chosen language and English being instructed as a non-native language.

Translingual activities in EFL classrooms highlight the importance of students' and teachers' having a standard set of communication skills seen as a unified and shared asset. This is utilized to collaboratively create significance using verbal and semiotic resources within their communication repertoires. These methods also offer novel insights into how teachers might utilize the first language (L1) to support English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students in enhancing their academic literacy and translingual subjectivity. When using L1 in EFL education, teachers are advised to provide a classroom atmosphere that facilitates the development of multilingual students' identities using their native language. This is achieved by embracing a resource-oriented approach to students' previous literacy encounters, employing a collaborative teaching method, and basing it on research findings.

2.5.7 Clarification

Clarification refers to providing more information or explanations when it becomes apparent that the listener is having difficulty comprehending the speaker's message. In other words, people also engage in repetitive patterns that indicate their intention to communicate clearly and be easily understood by the people they are talking to (Kaur, 2015). The efficacy of the clarification strategy has been demonstrated in several research studies. For instance, Kaur (2010) stated that people employ various inquiry formats to seek clarification of meaning or gather more information on previous phrases, intending to attain mutual comprehension. Confirmation inquiries and clarification requests confirm comprehension and further explain or amplify meaning, respectively. Kwan and Dunworth (2016) examined the utilization of ELF in local work environments in Hong Kong, specifically focusing on interactions between Filipino employees and Hong Kongese employers. The study examined the attributes of the pragmatic aspects of communication and highlighted the difficulties encountered by participants and the pragmatic techniques they employed to communicate.

Furthermore, they suggested that active tactics, such as Clarification, Repetition, and Direct questioning, are more efficacious in attaining effective communication from a transactional standpoint. Nevertheless, Firth (2009) and Seidlhofer (2001) argue that resolving non-understanding requires more than a single modification approach. Instead, successful communication between interlocutors may require negotiation of meaning and many adjustments from the teacher. As mentioned previously, Hanamoto (2014) discovered that her participants utilized Clarification after Confirmation checks to ensure the recipient comprehended her message accurately. Kaur (2011) also argued that individuals using ELF have been observed employing several self-repair strategies to enhance the clarity of their speech.

2.5.8 Confirmation Check

Confirmation check is a technique presenters employ to obtain assurance from their listeners to proceed with their talks. Requests for confirmation and confirmation checks are employed to verify that the information conveyed in the prior statement has been accurately perceived or comprehended (Björkman, 2014; Cheng & Warren, 2007; Jamshidnejad, 2011). This method encompasses using a preceding verbal expression, an interrogative tag, a concise recapitulation of the preceding spoken assertion, or employing an alternate lexical element. Jamshidnejad (2011) noted that participants in his study frequently employed a technique known as "question repetition" to verify their comprehension and validate whether their conversation partners had understood them accurately. This technique involved phrases such as "Do you mean...?", "You mean...?", or "You said...?" Norrick (2012) noted that increasing intonation confirms and captures the speaker's attention, eliciting a specific response. Conversely, decreasing intonation signals a want for confirmation or clarification (Svennevig, 2003, 2004).

2.5.9 Avoidance

According to Pornpibul (2005), the study found that avoidance is strongly linked to participants' limited understanding of the themes they intended to address and the essential information gathered from the survey. While avoidance may not facilitate language acquisition, it does enable language learners to sustain a

conversation with their partners. According to Wannaruk (2003), lower-proficiency learners tend to utilize avoidance more frequently.

2.5.10 Additional IPSs

In addition to the well-documented IPSs, there are other strategies that play a vital role in sustaining communication and fostering mutual understanding in various EFL and ESL classroom contexts. These strategies are essential for managing communication challenges, maintaining the flow of interaction, and supporting the co-construction of meaning between speakers. By employing such strategies, teachers and learners can navigate linguistic limitations, enhance participation, and create more interactive and effective learning environments.

IPSs encompass a range of communicative tools that facilitate meaning-making and help manage communication breakdowns in classroom interaction. These include acknowledgment, which signals receipt and understanding of a message through verbal or non-verbal cues, and backchanneling cues such as “uh-huh” or nodding, which indicate engagement without taking the speaking turn (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Nilsson, 2020). Direct appeal for help involves explicitly asking the interlocutor for a needed word or clarification, while guessing refers to tentatively proposing a term when uncertain of its accuracy (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Interpretive summary is the paraphrasing or summarizing of another’s message to confirm understanding, whereas message abandonment occurs when a speaker discontinues an utterance due to linguistic difficulty (Tarone, 1981). Non-verbal strategies such as gestures and facial expressions can compensate for verbal limitations, and own-accuracy checks allow speakers to verify their language use, often through repetition or rising intonation (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Prompting is used to elicit a response or contribution from the interlocutor, and responding can take forms such as repetition, rephrasing, or expansion to negotiate meaning. Retrieval describes the search for the correct lexical item through trial and error, while rephrasing modifies a statement for clarity or precision (Tarone & Yule, 1987). Additionally, stalling employs devices like hesitation markers to gain thinking time, and the use of fillers such as “well,” “you know,” and “um” helps maintain the conversational channel and signals that the speaker has more to say (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

Together, these strategies serve as valuable linguistic resources for both teachers and students, enabling them to sustain interaction, negotiate meaning, and enhance communicative effectiveness in the EFL classroom.

The following section examines another strategy which, in the context of second language acquisition or English language teaching, is often regarded as a teaching approach. However, within the framework of IPSs, it is considered a functional tool that facilitates effective communication.

2.5.11 The Differentiation between Teaching Approach and IPSs

While teaching approaches and Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs) may appear to share similar aims in fostering communication and language development, they differ fundamentally in their nature, scope, and application. A teaching approach refers to a systematic, theory-informed framework that guides instructional planning, classroom management, and the overall delivery of language lessons. Examples include the communicative approach, task-based language teaching, and content-based instruction. Such approaches are typically pre-planned, grounded in pedagogical theory, and implemented consistently across lessons to achieve specific learning objectives (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

In contrast, IPSs are context-sensitive, moment-to-moment communicative actions used by teachers and learners to manage interaction, negotiate meaning, and address communication breakdowns as they arise. Rather than forming part of a fixed instructional plan, IPSs emerge spontaneously during classroom discourse in response to interactional needs. For instance, strategies such as clarification requests, rephrasing, or backchanneling occur organically within conversations to sustain the flow of communication and ensure mutual understanding (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995).

The findings from the excerpts in Chapter 4 illustrate this distinction clearly. While the teacher in the observed classroom may adopt a communicative approach as an overarching instructional method, the deployment of IPSs—such as prompting, guessing, or non-verbal cues—occurred dynamically within interaction to address specific communicative challenges. Thus, teaching approaches shape the macro-level design and objectives of language learning, whereas IPSs operate at the micro-level of

real-time communication, directly influencing the negotiation of meaning and the resolution of misunderstandings. Recognizing this distinction is essential for understanding how pedagogical planning and spontaneous interactional strategies complement one another in effective language teaching.

2.6 Related Research

2.6.1 The Role of Interactional Pragmatic Strategies

2.6.1.1 Global Context

Within the global framework, several academics have examined the significance of interactional pragmatic methods across diverse contexts. It is crucial to note that interactional pragmatic strategies in ELF practices are commonly acknowledged as practical means of communication. Studies on ELF pragmatics demonstrate that employing common interactional strategies such as Repetition, Paraphrase, Comprehension checks, Code-switching, Explanation, and Clarification can enhance communication in L2 users. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that when individuals engage in collaborative completion of utterances during their interactions, as they negotiate meaning and co-construct understanding in English, it leads to an enhancement within the classroom (Björkman, 2014; Cogo, 2009; Hanamoto, 2014; Kaur, 2010; Mauranen, 2006; Matsumoto, 2011; Watterson, 2008).

Interactional strategies in ELF practices are widely accepted. Research on ELF pragmatics demonstrates that employing common interactional strategies such as repetition, Paraphrasing, comprehension checks, code-switching, explanation, and clarification can be advantageous for communication among individuals using a second language. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that when individuals engage in collaborative completion of utterances during their interactions, as they negotiate meaning and co-construct understanding in English, it enhances the classroom atmosphere. This has been supported by studies conducted by Björkman (2014), Cogo (2009), Hanamoto (2014), Kaur (2010), Mauranen (2006), Matsumoto (2011), and Watterson (2008). Cogo (2009) examined the Accommodation strategy. She argued that adapting to specific regional variations in the local environment, rather than adhering to an abstract concept of correctness, might facilitate

understanding amongst speakers and indicate a sense of unity among them. The accommodation mechanisms provided by Cogo (2009) are Repetition and Code-switching.

The term "repetition" is employed initially to describe occurrences of either Other-repetition or Self-repetition. Additionally, it is employed when the participants repeat a segment or the entirety of the statements made by a prior speaker within the framework of the ongoing discussion. Paraphrasing is a form of repetition in which the original idea is restated using other words or expressions. The study by Hanamoto (2014) analyzed the utilization of a repetition approach by Japanese learners of English when interacting with non-native English speakers. The study examined how learners resolved the challenge of comprehending discussions during communication breakdown, focusing on the perspective of English as a lingua franca. Hanamoto classified Repetition into two distinct categories: Self-repetitions and Other-repetitions (instances of repetition through receipts). Both Japanese and non-native English-speaking overseas students predominantly employed this method. Kirkpatrick (2010) identified the techniques of Request repetition in his study. The repetition technique for requests, however, differs from repetition. Listeners employ request repetition to convey a need for the speaker to repeat information, whereas speakers primarily utilize repetition. Another approach to adaptation in the context of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is known as translanguaging.

Translanguaging has broadened the understanding of concepts like code-switching and multilingualism, offering a more inclusive and dynamic perspective on the process of communication evaluation (Li, 2018). These investigations have allowed academics to move beyond the predetermined concept of language and instead adopt a more flexible understanding of linguistic behaviors (García & Wei, 2014; García & Lin, 2017). Translanguaging emphasizes that multilingual individuals should not limit their thinking to a single language, even when speaking or writing in a specific language for a particular period (Li, 2018).

Translanguaging acknowledges the significance of non-linguistic cognitive and semiotic resources in communication. Zhu and Li (2020) and Block (2014) researched 'lingualism.' They approached communication as a combination of

physical actions, where several languages and different modes of communication work together harmoniously to create meanings. According to Canagarajah (2018), these 'multimodalities' are not just additional to linguistic codes but are seen as an active aspect of one's skills that may influence and mold language usage. This proposes a more balanced and mutually engaging connection between the human language system and other meaning-making systems.

In addition, a group of academics has advanced the inquiry into the concept of 'context' by integrating various elements that were previously limited to spatiotemporal contexts, such as tasks, objects, physical layouts, and networks, as valuable resources in communication (Canagarajah, 2018; Penny-cook & Otsuji, 2014). The concept of spatial repertoire has been established to offer a decentralized and emerging explanation of proficiency in communication. According to Canagarajah (2018), the spatial repertoire refers to a collection of communication tools that are put together in a specific location, through collaboration with others, and in a widely practiced way. This collection includes all the communication methods available in the physical environment and made possible by social networks. This approach motivates us to go beyond the existing skill in a specific language(s) or the level of complexity in employing signs and symbols and, instead, view language as intimately connected with ongoing activities in real time (Pennycook, 2017). Language is one of many factors involved in communication. It is also an assemblage process, where various linguistic and semiotic resources, artifacts, and environmental affordances combine, interact, and create meanings that contribute to effective communication (Canagarajah, 2018; Pennycook, 2017).

The academic literature on translanguaging and spatial repertoire provides a comprehensive and flexible view of language usage and proficiency in classroom engagement, focusing on space-related aspects. Prior research on translanguaging practices in EMI classroom environments has shown that translanguaging is a transformational pedagogy that facilitates content teaching and learning (Lin, 2019). By coordinating multiple languages and modes of communication, teachers and students can engage in dynamic and meaningful interactions that facilitate the integration of multilingual students' diverse life experiences, everyday conversations

(typically expressed in their native languages), and other community resources to enhance the effectiveness of learning (Tai & Li, 2020; Lin & He, 2017; Lin, 2019). The student's interest in studying the topic may be further improved using translanguaging pedagogies, which provide a more participatory and responsive learning environment (Tai & Li, 2020).

Paraphrasing is frequently utilized in several contexts of communication. Paraphrasing is restating a spoken remark to enhance the clarity of the sentence's meaning, allowing the discussion to go without interruption. As stated by Kaur (2010), paraphrasing involves communicating the same information in a modified or altered manner while rephrasing the same statement made by the same speaker using other words, either by simplifying the message or by expressing it in alternative terms. Kaur (2015) also noted that employing techniques such as repetition and paraphrasing in conversation allows the speaker to enhance the recipient's comprehension. There are indications that common understanding may have yet to be attained, such as when a query or statement is received with silence, lack of reaction, or a minimum response. Different researchers have variably described paraphrasing: self-rephrasing (Cogo, 2009), self-reformulation (Chiang & Mi, 2011), other-initiated (Björkman, 2014), or other-reformulation (Chiang & Mi, 2011). However, Björkman (2014) has classified paraphrases into two categories: self-initiated and other-initiated. Furthermore, according to Deterding's (2013) study, paraphrasing emphasizes the importance of not only enhancing learners' capacity to detect misunderstandings in ongoing conversations but also encouraging the utilization of techniques like repetition and paraphrasing in situations where there is even the slightest uncertainty about whether mutual comprehension has been attained. Paraphrasing is used to verify or guarantee comprehension in ELF communication.

Furthermore, several studies have been undertaken in various environments, including classrooms and labs, employing diverse methodologies. Several observational studies have investigated the mending procedures employed in schools. In descriptive research done by Chaudron (1977) in French immersion classrooms, it was shown that students are less inclined to respond accurately to various patterns of teachers' repetition. However, the only type of repetition they incorporate is the

emphatic stress, which encourages learners to make corrections. Lyster and Ranta (1977) found that teachers predominantly employed recasts in French immersion classrooms. However, they were shown to be the least effective in eliciting uptake compared to other prompts, such as elicitation, repetition, clarification request, and metalinguistic feedback. These recasts often need to be noticed. Hence, using the other four varieties is advisable since they effectively draw learners' attention to their failures.

Moreover, the findings above have certain conclusions. First and foremost, both the input and the output play a crucial role in the development of learners. The significance of the output arises from its ability to identify faults and allow for modifications, its involvement in internalizing correctness and fluency, and its function as a testing component. Therefore, the output serves as a crucial intermediary between understanding and acquisition. According to Shehadah (2003), output is crucial in enhancing learners' competency and facilitating steady improvement.

Furthermore, the classroom environment should foster productive and inherent interaction between teachers and learners. Educators must employ remedial techniques in their L2 courses. Self-initiation self-repair is the most crucial and beneficial approach for repairing errors. It enables learners to identify and rectify their own mistakes independently. Hence, educators must exhibit patience and allow learners to see and revise their output. In addition, they must promote and support independent and self-directed repairs carried out by students in their classrooms.

Furthermore, teachers are not required to anticipate learners' instant production of utterances. Instead, they initially listen and begin to generate their output, which can be modified if afforded the opportunity. Instructors must possess knowledge of when, why, and how to correct. They should recognize that they must rectify the issue, not a mere oversight. Furthermore, they will rectify the significant global error rather than the local error. They must employ indirect, implicit adjustments instead of direct, explicit ones. Prioritizing the sequence, it is essential to acknowledge that self-correction precedes peer correction, followed by instructor correction.

Kirkpatrick (2010) identified the innovative, communicative techniques employed by ASEAN ELF users. The interactional pragmatic techniques may be categorized into two distinct kinds. The initial category addresses difficulties in hearing, encompassing Lexical anticipation, Lexical suggestion, Lexical correction, Do not give up, Request repetition, Request clarification, Let it pass, Listening to the message, Participant paraphrase, and Participant prompt. The strategies employed by the second group to manage speech difficulties include spelling out the word, repeating the sentence, being specific, paraphrasing, and avoiding local or idiomatic references. Mahmoud (2023) investigated the instructional techniques employed by a non-native English instructor in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) when teaching tertiary students. This study used a mixed-method approach to investigate the many divergent repair tactics employed by a teacher in a tertiary-level classroom to correct students' written work in online academic lectures. The study also examines the impact of these strategies on student's ability to make modifications and improve their understanding. Hence, the focus will be on closely examining the classroom dynamics between university students and an instructor to address the inquiries. 1) What are the instructional techniques employed in the classroom to address and rectify errors or misconceptions? 2) How much does the teacher promote the learner's production? The instruments employed were classroom observation and a semi-structured interview. The data is examined using Varonis and Gass's (1985) approach. Within the framework, four initiations can regulate classroom interaction: Self-initiation (SI) is superior to self-repair (SR), other-initiation (OI) is superior to self-repair (SR), self-initiation (SI) is superior to other-repair (OR), and other-initiation (OI) is superior to other-repair (OR). A comparison will be made between the two classes regarding the four initiations and their respective categories. The categories include lexical, syntactical, and semantic. The Lexical category comprises two components: phonological and morphological. The Syntactical category consists of two elements: Phrase and sentence. The Semantic category comprises three elements: synonyms, substitutes, and descriptions. Evidence indicates the existence of four mending mechanisms in English as a second language (ESL) classrooms. The other-initiation>other-repair technique is the most commonly employed strategy in the classroom despite using several other tactics. Furthermore, data indicates that the self-

initiation>self-repair technique is employed less frequently in the classroom. Furthermore, the teacher's understanding of the most effective method and its impact on the student's growth must be improved.

Essentially, scholars first embraced the input hypothesis but later discovered its inadequacy and insufficiency as the only theory in developing second language acquisition. Therefore, the output hypothesis was formulated by Swain and has been widely acknowledged by other academics for its previously described significant functions. In addition, researchers began examining students' outcomes in classes to determine their nature, qualities, and impact on learners' growth. Across all descriptive research on corrective feedback, learners exhibit varied responses to different feedback types, highlighting the output's significance. In addition, academics have examined the mending procedures employed by teachers. This work examines four repair strategies: self-initiation (SI) followed by self-repair (SR), other-initiation (OI) followed by self-repair (SR), self-initiation (SI) followed by other-repair (OR), and other-initiation (OI) followed by other-repair (OR). Teachers' instructional practices in classrooms have been examined in all empirical investigations. Occasionally, non-native speakers adjust their speech to enhance quality when they recognize that their initial expression is inadequate. Therefore, in most instances, engaging in self-initiation results in effective self-restoration. Adopting alternative approaches to problem-solving is not an effective method, as students are likely to forget it in the future.

Furthermore, teachers can employ various assignments to assess the performance of learners. This has the potential to foster cooperative learning in educational settings. Hence, the contact may be inherent, beneficial, and enhanced.

2.6.1.2 Thai EFL/ELF Context

In Thailand, a diverse collection of communication strategies is readily present among multilingual speakers. The usage of Approximation, Circumlocution, Paralinguistic cues, Avoidance, Appeal for help, and Language-switching strategies by Thais is frequently implemented in conversations with both non-native and native English speakers.

The data collected by Luangsaengthong (2002) in his study of Thai undergraduate students who transition to their third language (L3) revealed the presence of approximation in the learners' use. According to Wannaruk (2003), students with high proficiency in a second language tend to use more methods based on the second language (such as Circumlocution and Approximation) compared to students with poor proficiency. A study conducted by Prapobratanakul and Kangkun (2011) showed that approximation was the second most frequently used communication strategy among young Thai students. This accounted for 26% of the total techniques used. The study categorized the communication strategies based on Tarone's (1980) and Faerch and Kasper's (1984) frameworks. Pornpibul (2005) conducted a study comparing the techniques employed by high-proficiency students and low-proficiency students. He found that the primary determinants of Approximation are people's vocabulary knowledge and the benefits of employing this strategy. However, using Approximation can result in some degrees of comprehension.

Conversely, several research studies in Thailand employ the use of circumlocution. According to Wannaruk (2003), high-proficiency learners tend to use circumlocution more frequently than low-proficiency learners. Pornpibul (2005) identified several key factors influencing participants' ability to utilize Circumlocution effectively. These factors include the participants' level of proficiency, the benefits they derive from employing this strategy, the time and effort required to employ it, and the satisfaction derived from enhanced clarity and effectiveness in communication. According to Prapobratanakul and Kangkun (2011), circumlocution is an intralinguistic strategy.

Kulsawang and Ambele (2024) also emphasized the interconnectedness of various Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs) in facilitating mutual comprehension among participants. Their research highlights how these IPSs are pivotal in reshaping classroom teaching and learning processes, particularly in contexts where English is taught as a foreign language. A detailed analysis of IPSs reveals that specific strategies not only help to overcome communication barriers in classroom interactions but also offer valuable insights into the cultural nuances of English usage and its

users. Based on these findings, the study identifies specific IPSs that should be promoted as essential strategies in English as a lingua franca. Moreover, Kulsawang and Ambele (2024) explored apologies and requests through various strategies and sub-strategies. Notably, the use of politeness strategies by Indonesian English teachers highlighted the influence of social power dynamics. In contrast, the linguistic strategies employed by Thai students and EFL learners were influenced by social distance. Research on Thai learners emphasized the significance of cultural immersion, variability among interactants, and teaching factors in developing pragmatic competence. The PRISMA-guided systematic review effectively synthesized the existing literature, identifying gaps, providing novel insights, and addressing unresolved issues, thereby offering a roadmap for future research. This systematic review not only provided a comprehensive overview of current knowledge but also charted directions for future investigations, highlighted research gaps, and demonstrated the strengths of systematic methodologies.

Wannaruk (2003) found that low-proficiency learners use paralinguistic communication, such as gestures and mime, more frequently than the other group. According to Prapobratanakul and Kangkun (2011), Paralinguistic tactics, such as gestures or facial expressions, are commonly employed during interactions. In their study, Somsai and Interaprasert (2011) utilized interview data to identify and categorize Thai students' communication strategies (CSs). They specifically focused on non-verbal expressions, including mime, gestures, and facial expressions. These non-verbal expressions were further classified as subcategories within the broader category of continuous interaction strategies used to convey messages to the interlocutor effectively. They proposed that individuals utilize the strategies under these subcategories to effectively communicate their intended message to the interlocutor without interruption or delay. This is achieved by employing one or more methods to fulfill the communication objective. Pornpibul (2005) used the term "Nonlinguistic signals" for "Paralinguistic" and discovered that this approach is employed when individuals encounter things and activities that contain English terms that are unknown or unfamiliar.

A study conducted by Pornpibul (2005) found a strong correlation between the use of avoidance and participants' limited understanding of the language related to the themes they wanted to discuss. The study also provided valuable information. While Avoidance may not facilitate language acquisition, it does enable language learners to sustain a conversation with their partners. According to Wannaruk (2003), lower-proficiency learners tend to utilize avoidance more frequently.

The study conducted by Somsai and Interaprasert (2011) identified an appeal for help as a continuous communication method used to convey a message effectively to the interlocutor. Pornpibul (2005) stated that individuals seek assistance when they want verification of their understanding of the subject matter being discussed. Most persons primarily seek assistance via the use of appeal, either through vocal or nonverbal means. The effectiveness of an appeal to achieve communication goals is mainly contingent upon the one offering the assistance. In other words, the peers or professors who are more skilled can provide the most suitable term or phrase. In addition, Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009) argue that proficient learners tend to employ the assistance-seeking technique more frequently instead of using the term "Appeal for assistance." This method involves communicating to a conversation partner that one does not understand something.

Language switching, also known as code-switching, is primarily employed by learners with lower skills, as Wannaruk (2003) states. Furthermore, Pornpibul (2005) stated that code-switching often accompanies the appeal for help method. During English conversations, participants occasionally include Thai words while seeking English equivalents for uncommon Thai words. The participants were only willing to switch to Thai if their interlocutors were. However, Somsai and Interaprasert (2011) argued that substituting unfamiliar words or phrases with their Thai equivalents, known as switching, is likely to benefit acquiring a new language. For instance, people do not need to cease their discussion for it to continue and prevent communication breakdown.

Srikrai (2020) investigated pragmatic strategies in English as a lingua franca interaction in intercultural relations services at a Thai university. This study examines the pragmatic techniques employed in ELF conversations within an international

relations (IR) office in a Thai higher education setting. This study examines the exchanges between Thai international relations staff (TSs) and foreign visitors (IVs) to analyze how they negotiate meaning. She also examines the attitudes and communication needs of various users regarding ELF in the Thai university's international relations office. The trustworthiness, reliability, and validity of the tools and gathered data were assessed through participant checks, interrater reliability, and the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC). The results indicated that Thai speakers (TSs) and international visitors (IVs) living in different countries and speaking approximately 23 different native languages, with 28% of them using Thai, employed diverse pragmatic techniques to effectively negotiate meaning during transactional and interactional conversations in international relations (IR) offices. Their most commonly employed backchannel strategy was to demonstrate attentiveness and comprehension, while their repetition strategy was utilized to confirm knowledge and assure accurate comprehension of crucial information. The pragmatic methods occasionally employed were raising inquiry intonation, interpersonal control, laughing, topic fronting, changing the topic, and letting it pass. When non-native English speakers (TSs) engaged in conversations with native English speakers (NESs), they frequently utilized a code-switching technique, which involved switching between languages inside a sentence or between sentences. This tactic enhanced their self-assurance and conveyed a sense of friendliness or politeness. The questionnaire results revealed that the participants were aware that English is not only used by native English speakers (NESs) and showed a broad understanding of English as a lingua franca (ELF). Despite over half of them acknowledging challenges in understanding other accents, they demonstrated acceptance towards those who spoke with diverse accents and variations of the English language. Furthermore, although acknowledging that the exclusive reliance on the English native speaker model for learning is inappropriate, they vehemently argued for using it in English language acquisition. The participants at IR offices identified several barriers to communication. They offered recommendations on the specific topics that should be included in training sessions for TSs to address the communicative demands in ELF encounters. The utilization of material design and

development was proposed for ELF-awareness training, especially targeting IR workers.

2.6.2 Perceptions of Communication Strategies in Interaction

2.6.2.1 Global Context

English language instruction has been widely explored in the realm of language perception. In ELT, perceptions are regarded as significant characteristics of learners. The effectiveness of language learners may be contingent upon their thoughts or beliefs about the language class or learning environment. In contemporary times, learner beliefs are recognized as a crucial factor that significantly impacts students' actions, both within and outside the classroom (Trinder & Herles, 2013). Perceptions encompass beliefs and attitudes and have been extensively studied as a significant factor. Research has focused on various aspects of this phenomenon, including individuals' beliefs (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005), motivations (Dörnyei, 2001), and teaching methods that prioritize learning (Jarvis and Szymczyk, 2010), among others. Garret (2010) emphasizes the significance of attitudes in language education for language reception and production. The author asserts that linguistic attitudes and their connection to socio-cultural norms are essential to our ability to communicate effectively. This is pertinent to my research since it specifically examines communicative methods that involve the utilization or advancement of pragmatics in interpersonal communication. Ishihara (2011) proposes that instructors' opinions are mostly shaped by their own experiences in learning, professional training, and teaching. Teacher beliefs significantly impact teachers' perceptions, cognitive processes, and decision-making inside the classroom. Hence, pre-existing ideas also have implications for teaching and learning processes. Perceptions are a newly explored topic of study in the field of ELT in Thailand. Several publications have examined teachers' perceptions of their role in the classroom (Narváez Trejo & Heffington, 2010). Additionally, there has been research on the perception of different types of strategies, such as learning strategies (Troy & Anthony, 2022). Socio-affective strategies (Bhanul & Kumar, 2023), and beliefs from a normative perspective (Lee & Kim, 2020).

Yuan (2012) collected data on instructors' and students' perspectives on communication methods in the study. The purpose was to identify these tactics in specific speaking activities that were structured in a controlled manner. The findings on attitudes were inconsistent among both teachers and students. While instructors claimed they gave regular and unambiguous recommendations on addressing speaking difficulties, students perceived that they did not get advice from teachers frequently but rather sporadically. Furthermore, although teachers believed they engaged in regular discussions or reflections on the utilization of methods with students, the majority of students indicated that such occurrences were seldom. Instructors' remarks on students' strategy usage encompassed several techniques, such as code-switching, paraphrasing, and repetition (both material and choral repetition), among others. However, it is essential to note that instructors and students have contrasting viewpoints on this matter. Faced with these conflicting outcomes, the authors opted to proceed to a further phase of the study whereby they determined the communicative methods employed by students during their interactions. The researchers discovered that when students faced communication difficulties, they relied more heavily on methods such as paraphrasing and self-repetition. MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) found that language anxiety is a significant factor affecting students' willingness to communicate, supporting the idea that spontaneous interactions and fear of mistakes can lead to hesitation and reduced participation. Domínguez Aguilar and Moreno Gloggner (2009) mentioned that students possess a restricted understanding of communicative techniques and seldom utilize them to resolve issues in English communication.

Since English communication is the primary focus of the current research, it is imperative to ascertain the perspectives of instructors and learners on the significance and relevance of English. Hence, it is essential to conduct a comprehensive assessment of both the perspectives of IPSs and the broader context of English language usage to gain a more accurate understanding of how instructors and learners influence English communication.

2.6.2.2 Thai EFL Context

In the Thai context, a diversity of communicative strategies is readily present among Thai speakers. Ambele (2022) conducted a study on using translanguaging to enhance English teaching in Thailand. The study focused on the perspectives of Thai university teachers. He pointed out that translanguaging pedagogy has recently garnered significant attention in higher institutions. However, there needs to be more study on Thai instructors' perspectives. This study contributes to the current body of research by investigating the perspectives of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors at Thai universities about the use of translanguaging in the classroom and its implementation in higher education institutions. Information was gathered from a sample of 10 Thai English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors from 5 colleges in Thailand. This was done by observing their classrooms, taking field notes, and conducting semi-structured interviews. The obtained data was then analyzed using qualitative content analysis. The findings indicated that the instructors exhibited a predominantly favorable disposition towards using classroom translanguaging methods, which involve utilizing learners' native language in the classroom to facilitate second language acquisition and subject understanding. Furthermore, they observed that it is challenging to disregard the learners' native language (Thai) entirely in Thai classrooms when English is employed as the instructional language. The text emphasizes the practical, policy, and research implications, as well as the limits. Additionally, Nawamawat (2021) conducted a study on the communicative strategies of Thai and Filipino teachers of English. The study aimed to investigate the significant relationship and communicative strategies among intercultural teaching personnel. The sample group consisted of five Thai and five Filipino teachers of English. Two research tools were employed: observation via two speaking tasks, a jigsaw task, and a stimulated recall interview. All conversations and interactions were recorded and then transcribed. The results revealed that, as listeners, "listening to the message" was ranked highest among the communicative strategies used by both the Thai and Filipino teachers. As speakers, "non-verbal language" was ranked highest for the Thai teachers, while "persuasion" was most frequently used by the Filipino teachers. A Chi-square test revealed a statistically significant relationship between the

communicative strategies used by Thai and Filipino teachers. Based on the study's findings, the identified communicative strategies should be incorporated into English curricula and English language teaching in Thailand. Educators, teachers, and non-native English language learners should adopt these communicative strategies to foster mutual understanding in the English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) context.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter provides a conceptual and informative review of existing literature on communication theory, pragmatics in English language teaching, classroom interaction, pragmatics in English as a lingua franca, Interactional Pragmatic Strategies, and related research. Based on the research objectives, this chapter describes the interactional pragmatic strategies that are within the scope of the current study. The interactional pragmatic strategies of Varonis and Gass (1985) are a theoretical framework also presented in this chapter. The interactional pragmatic strategies of this current study focused on the T > I, R, RR, together with the classroom interaction of Malamah-Thomas (1987). Chapter III will describe the research method, including the research design, participants and setting, research instrument, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

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CHAPTER III
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodological framework and analytical procedures employed in the present study, which examines interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs) in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) classroom interactions within a Thai university context. The study employs a predominantly qualitative research design, supplemented with quantitative elements to facilitate methodological triangulation and enhance analytical rigor. This mixed-methods approach supports a comprehensive and context-sensitive examination of naturally occurring classroom discourse, aligning with the study's aim to explore IPSs not only as linguistic phenomena but as socially constructed and pragmatically motivated practices.

The chapter is organized into eight interrelated sections. It begins with the research design and approach (see 3.1), outlining the interpretivist framework, qualitative orientation, and rationale for incorporating triangulation and micro-ethnographic methods. Section 3.2 describes the research context and participants, including the study setting, sampling strategy, and ethical considerations. Section 3.3 presents the data collection instruments, such as classroom observations, interviews, audio recordings, field notes, and supplementary materials. Section 3.4 outlines the data collection procedures, including efforts to address the observer's paradox. Section 3.5 discusses data preparation, including transcription, coding, and handling of missing data. Section 3.6 details the data analysis, combining discourse and content analysis to examine IPS types, problem indicators, task-based variations, and the resolution of communication breakdowns. Section 3.7 outlines the measures taken to ensure trustworthiness and validity, including triangulation, member checking, and reliability checks. The chapter concludes with Section 3.8, a summary that synthesizes the methodology and sets the stage for the interpretive findings in Chapter IV.

3.1 Research Design and Approach

This study employed a qualitative research design rooted in the interpretivist paradigm, aiming to explore how ELF speakers manage communication challenges through IPSs within a real-world educational setting. The interpretivist lens

emphasizes the co-construction of meaning between participants and recognizes that knowledge is contextually embedded (Creswell & Poth, 2016; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Such a framework is particularly suitable for examining natural language use in classroom interaction, where communicative norms are fluid, and meaning is negotiated collaboratively.

The choice of a qualitative design was further justified by the study's focus on naturally occurring talk-in-interaction, which resists reduction to numeric variables. Nonetheless, the research incorporated limited quantitative elements to enhance analytical precision. Specifically, the frequency of IPSs and problem indicators (PIs) was counted and categorized to support thematic analysis with empirical trends. This methodological triangulation bridged qualitative interpretation and quantitative description, thus enhancing the validity and reliability of the study's findings.

By incorporating both narrative accounts and frequency-based categorization, the study captured not only the forms and functions of IPSs but also the contextual richness in which these strategies emerged. The interplay between qualitative and quantitative insights allowed for a more nuanced exploration of ELF classroom pragmatics, aligning with best practices in contemporary applied linguistics research (Richards, 2003; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2020).

3.1.1 Qualitative and Quantitative Triangulation

To strengthen the study's credibility, a triangulated methodology was adopted that combined qualitative and quantitative approaches. Triangulation is widely regarded as a strategy for enhancing research trustworthiness by validating findings through convergence from multiple data sources (Patton, 2022; Flick, 2018). Three principal data types were triangulated: (1) classroom observation data (audio recordings and field notes), (2) semi-structured interviews (with the instructor and selected students), and (3) documentary analysis (course syllabus, lesson plans, and textbook content).

Qualitative triangulation focused on comparing perspectives and patterns across data types. For instance, instances of IPSs observed during classroom tasks were cross-referenced with students and teacher reflections during interviews. This

facilitated a deeper interpretation of when and why specific strategies were used. The documentary analysis, in turn, contextualized the observed classroom discourse by linking it to pedagogical goals and task design features. Quantitative triangulation involved coding and counting IPS types, their sources (self or other), and associated problem indicators. For example, Table 3 presents (n = 259) instances of repair, (n = 253) of clarification, and (n = 249) of repetition. These quantifications were not used for hypothesis testing but to reveal patterns across tasks and participants. They also helped identify dominant trends, such as the predominance of "questioning" as a problem indicator (n = 194) (see Table 2), especially in task types like whole-class discussions and role-plays.

A further layer of triangulation involved task types. IPSs frequency and function were examined across whole-class discussions, role-plays, impromptu role-plays, and presentations. This approach revealed, for example, that whole-class discussions generated the most IPSs due to their open-ended, less scripted nature, while impromptu role-plays often required immediate and unplanned strategy use. By combining these analytical modes, the study generated rich, interpretive insights that are empirically grounded. The triangulated design ensured that pragmatic behaviors were examined not only in situ but also in light of participants' perceptions and course intentions.

3.1.2 Micro-Ethnographic Approach

The study was framed within a micro-ethnographic methodology, a specialized form of ethnography that focuses on detailed, moment-to-moment interactional processes in specific communicative events (Erickson, 1996; Heath, Hindmarsh, & Luff, 2010). Micro-ethnography prioritizes the granular examination of discourse as it unfolds in natural settings, making it particularly appropriate for analyzing ELF interactions that are context-dependent and dynamically negotiated. This approach enabled the researcher to closely examine how IPSs operated within the classroom without abstracting away from the social, pedagogical, and interactional context. For example, when a student misunderstood a role-play cue due to pronunciation differences, the teacher's subsequent repetition and clarification represented a collaborative repair sequence. Such events were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed

for their interactional structure and pragmatic implications. Unlike conventional ethnography, which often involves prolonged immersion in a cultural community, micro-ethnography emphasizes in-depth analysis of relatively short-term but richly detailed episodes. In this study, the data corpus consisted of approximately 48 hours of classroom observation over a 16-week semester. This yielded a focused yet robust dataset of oral interactions during communicative tasks, suitable for identifying patterns in IPSs usage across time and context.

The researcher adopted a non-participant observer role to maintain the authenticity of classroom communication. Audio recordings captured verbal interactions, while field notes documented contextual and paralinguistic elements. These multi-modal data sources allowed for layered interpretation, an essential feature of micro-ethnographic analysis. A key strength of this approach was its iterative nature. Early observations informed the development of coding categories, which were then refined through ongoing analysis. Emerging patterns—such as the frequent use of repetition in impromptu role-plays—guided the formulation of interview questions and helped identify themes for further investigation. This recursive cycle of observation, analysis, and theory-building contributed to the validity and coherence of the study's findings (LeCompte & Schensul, 2010). Ultimately, the micro-ethnographic approach provided the methodological rigor and contextual sensitivity necessary to investigate the complex, adaptive use of IPSs in ELF classroom interactions. The study supported its aim to describe not only the strategies used but also how, when, and why they emerged in specific communicative contexts, thereby offering actionable insights for language teaching and intercultural communication training.

This study employed a micro-ethnographic approach to provide a detailed and context-sensitive account of classroom interaction. Micro-ethnography, situated within the broader ethnographic tradition, emphasizes the fine-grained observation and analysis of communicative practices as they naturally unfold in specific social settings. This approach was particularly appropriate for the present study because it enabled the researcher to capture both the broader classroom culture and the moment-

to-moment interactional strategies used by the teacher and students to negotiate meaning and achieve mutual understanding.

The classroom culture was characterized by a communicative orientation, where the teacher consistently promoted active participation, collaboration, and interaction over rote memorization. The learning environment combined student-centered activities—such as pair work, role-plays, and group discussions—with teacher-fronted instruction that scaffolded students' engagement in communicative practices. Respectful teacher-student relationships and peer collaboration contributed to an atmosphere conducive to experimentation, negotiation, and collaborative meaning-making.

The data were collected from a Listening and Speaking 2 course, which was explicitly designed to develop students' communicative competence in English by focusing on authentic and practical language use. The curriculum was structured into nine chapters, each centered on real-world communicative themes such as introducing oneself, giving instructions, resolving problems, describing daily routines, and expressing opinions. Each unit followed a progressive lesson design, beginning with vocabulary building and warm-up tasks, moving into brainstorming and guided practice, and culminating in communicative tasks such as role-play and whole-class discussion, followed by reflective discussions to promote pragmatic awareness.

The objectives of the course were twofold: to strengthen students' listening and speaking fluency through meaningful practice, and to cultivate communication strategies that support effective communication across linguistically and culturally diverse settings. To achieve these objectives, the course integrated a variety of communicative tasks, including whole-class discussion, role-play, impromptu role-play, model role-play, and descriptive presentations, all of which were designed to elicit authentic and spontaneous interaction.

Weekly assignments further extended beyond classroom practice, ranging from short dialogues performed in pairs and collaborative projects requiring students to gather information and present it in English. These activities provided opportunities for students to apply communicative skills in both academic and real-world contexts.

In sum, the micro-ethnographic approach justified itself by linking macro-level course structures, such as objectives, lesson design, and assignments, with micro-level classroom interactions, such as the moment-to-moment negotiation of meaning, thereby illuminating how pedagogical design and spontaneous interaction intersect to shape students' communicative development in ELF classroom settings.

3.2 Research Context and Participants

This section outlines the research setting, participant selection criteria, sampling strategy, and ethical considerations that guided the conduct of this study. These components were critical for establishing the study's relevance, representativeness, and ethical integrity.

3.2.1 Study Setting

The research was conducted at a government-funded public university located in northeast Thailand. The university offers a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate programs and is officially recognized by the Ministry of Higher Education, Science, Research, and Innovation in Thailand. The study focused specifically on the English Program within the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, which prepares students for effective communication in global and intercultural contexts.

The course selected for data collection was Listening and Speaking 2, a core module for first-year English major students. This course emphasizes oral communication skills in real-world contexts, aligning closely with the research objective of examining IPSs in an ELF environment. The course provided a rich site for observing authentic classroom interaction and pragmatic strategy use.

3.2.2 Participant Selection Criteria

Participants in this study included one non-native English-speaking instructor and 44 first-year students enrolled in the Listening and Speaking 2 course during the semester of data collection (see Table 1).

Table 1 *Participants' Demographic Data*

	Gender	Age
44 first-year students	Female (84.09%)	18+ (81.82%)
	Male (9.09%)	19+ (9.09%)
	LGBTQ (6.82%)	18+ (9.09%)

All 44 first-year students were purposively selected from English major classes at a Thai university. The gender distribution shows a predominance of female participants (84.09%), reflecting the common trend of higher female enrolment in English language programs in Thailand compared to their male counterparts. LGBTQ students accounted for 6.82% of the participants, adding diversity to the sample.

In terms of age, most students (81.82%) were 18 years and above, which is typical of first-year university cohorts. Male participants were slightly older, with 9.09% aged 19 and above. The inclusion of LGBTQ students (9.09% aged 18 and above) highlights the heterogeneity of the classroom environment, enriching the scope of perspectives represented in the study.

Purposive sampling was employed (Cohen et al., 2018) to select participants whose classroom experiences were most relevant to the research questions, ensuring rich and in-depth data for analysis

English exposure among participants varied widely, ranging from limited, classroom-only experiences to more interactive engagements such as tourism-related communication, part-time jobs, and online media consumption. Intermediate students generally reported broader and more frequent exposure to English—through movies, music, social media, and direct interactions with foreign visitors—whereas beginner students often relied primarily on formal classroom instruction with occasional, low-intensity exposure outside school.

In terms of language learning experience, most participants developed their skills through traditional school-based learning, supplemented by informal opportunities such as English camps, volunteer work, or digital platforms. However, the extent and quality of these experiences differed considerably, influencing learners'

communicative confidence and practical language use. The diversity in exposure and learning contexts underscores the need for pedagogical approaches that address varied backgrounds, especially by providing beginners with more authentic communicative opportunities and enabling intermediate learners to refine their pragmatic and interactional skills. All 44 students participated in both the classroom interaction and the follow-up interview.

The instructor, a 34-year-old Filipino national, possessed over 10 years of teaching experience in higher vocational school in English communication courses and an additional 2 years teaching English communication at the university level. Her professional background included extensive involvement in developing learners' communicative competence, with particular emphasis on interactive activities, role-plays, and real-life communicative tasks. Preliminary classroom observations revealed that she consistently employed student-centered pedagogical approaches, encouraging active participation, collaborative learning, and authentic communication among students. These attributes aligned closely with the aims of the present study, as her teaching style provided rich opportunities to observe naturally occurring IPSs within an ELF classroom context.

That is, this selection was made based on preliminary observations conducted prior to the actual data collection, which revealed that foreign teachers and students in this course often encountered communication challenges. To address these issues, they frequently employed various IPSs in different classroom interaction contexts to facilitate smooth communication and enhance the effectiveness of teaching and learning. Specifically, interactions in the Listening and Speaking 2 course included a range of classroom situations where IPSs were used, such as (i) teacher-student and student-teacher interactions, and (ii) student-student interactions.

Student participants were both male and female, and all were English majors at the university. Their shared academic focus and enrollment in the same course ensured a relatively homogenous linguistic and instructional background, which was beneficial for analyzing variation in IPSs use under similar instructional conditions.

3.2.3 Sampling Strategy

A purposive sampling strategy was adopted, consistent with qualitative research practices that prioritize depth over breadth (Palinkas et al., 2015). The selection criteria focused on identifying a classroom environment where ELF interactions naturally occurred and where participants demonstrated active engagement in communicative tasks. Preliminary observations were conducted across three sections of the course. Based on the alignment with the study's objectives and observed communicative dynamics, one section was chosen for in-depth investigation.

Purposive sampling allowed the researcher to focus on participants and settings most relevant to the research questions. This approach also facilitated efficient data collection, ensuring that the observed classroom interactions were representative of pragmatic challenges and strategies in ELF communication.

3.2.4 Ethical Considerations

This study adhered strictly to ethical research standards as outlined by institutional and international guidelines for research involving human participants. Before initiating the research, approval was obtained from the university's ethics review board. Informed consent was obtained from all participants through written consent forms provided in both English and Thai (see Appendices C and D for the English and Thai Versions, respectively).

Participants were fully informed about the purpose of the study, their right to withdraw at any time, and how their data would be used. Confidentiality was ensured by anonymizing participant data through the use of pseudonyms and secure data storage practices. Audio recordings and transcripts were stored on password-protected devices, and only the researcher had access to identifiable data.

Throughout the research process, particular care was taken to avoid any potential harm to participants. The voluntary nature of participation and the emphasis on confidentiality were reiterated during each stage of data collection, particularly during classroom observations and interviews. Additionally, cultural sensitivity was

maintained in the formulation of interview questions and classroom engagement to ensure participants felt respected and valued.

3.3 Research Instruments

To address the research questions, a multi-instrumental data collection strategy was employed, combining classroom observation, semi-structured interviews, and analysis of course-related documents. This triangulation of instruments enhanced the validity of the study and provided a multifaceted view of IPSs usage in ELF classroom interactions (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011).

3.3.1 Classroom Observation

Classroom observations were conducted over a 16-week period, capturing approximately 48 hours of classroom interaction. The observations aimed to document naturally occurring communication events during oral activities and were essential for identifying pragmatic strategies in real-time. The researcher adopted a non-participant observer role to minimize disruption and maintain the natural flow of classroom interaction.

3.3.1.1 Audio Recordings

An audio recording was employed to observe the use of IPSs by both the teacher and students during classroom interactions. As Ambele (2020) noted, audio recording enhances the rigor and validity of qualitative research by helping to mitigate potential biases. For this study, data collection focused primarily on capturing the actual use of IPSs during various oral tasks, in which students engaged in whole-class discussions on a range of classroom simulation topics. Sixteen weeks of classroom lessons were recorded, and selected segments were transcribed to analyze how IPSs were utilized to facilitate classroom interaction.

Only segments involving oral practices were transcribed. Tasks such as writing or reading were transcribed only when they clearly demonstrated specific IPSs explicitly addressed during oral tasks. As a result, the study adopted a "partial transcription" approach (Toomaneejinda & Saengboon, 2022), focusing solely on relevant excerpts.

Recordings were made using an iPad Air (running iPadOS 17.2) and saved in MP3 format with two high-quality digital recorders: Sony and Olympus. These devices were selected for two primary reasons commonly cited in ethnographic research. First, digital recordings, when accurately executed, produce high-fidelity copies (Schilling, 2013, p. 12). Second, their advanced mechanics allow for the capture of a broad spectrum of human speech, from soft to loud utterances, while minimizing background noise.

3.3.1.2 Field Notes

Field notes were prepared by the researcher, who played a key role in attributing meaning to observed phenomena in the classroom. Throughout the data collection period, these notes served as supplementary tools to enrich the data (Ambele, 2020). In this study, they were used to document contextual and behavioral cues related to the participants' use of IPSs during classroom interactions.

Observation complemented the audio recordings by providing insight into contextual factors that might have influenced participants' pragmatic strategies. As a fundamental tool in micro-ethnographic research, observation enabled the detailed documentation of non-verbal behaviors and contextual elements that were not captured in audio recordings. The researcher assumed the role of a participant-observer (Creswell & Inoue, 2025), immersing themselves in the classroom environment to gain firsthand information and evaluate it through theoretical frameworks.

The study spanned 16 weeks (48 hours) of classroom sessions, employing a 'hybrid approach' (Ritchie et al., 2014), with the majority of classroom tasks focusing on speaking. Oral interactions were recorded and transcribed to examine the use of IPSs for facilitating communication. While specific speech events were purposively selected for detailed analysis, recording complete lessons provided a comprehensive understanding of the time devoted to oral practices and how IPSs were taught and practiced (see RQs 1 and 2).

Though audio recordings served as the primary data source, other key instruments included the course syllabus and textbooks. These materials featured

explicit lessons on oral communication and helped guide the organization and analysis of purposively sampled recordings. Instances of implicit IPSs were identified through audio recordings. At the same time, field notes provided supplementary accounts of the classroom context, including location, time, date, course title, lesson topics, participants' linguistic choices, and descriptive and reflective observations (see Appendix F).

As a non-participant observer, the researcher documented classroom events without directly engaging in student-teacher interactions. Detailed field notes were taken on aspects of interaction, environmental dynamics, and predetermined focus areas, including participant communication. These notes served as comprehensive written records of observed behaviors and settings.

A MacBook (version 14.2.1) and an iPad Air (running iPadOS 17.2) were used for note-taking and observation due to their durability, stability, and portability. Their compact size facilitated easy transportation during fieldwork. Field notes included detailed metadata such as pseudonyms of speakers, recording dates, times, and locations, as well as other relevant contextual information for each recorded conversation. This information was compiled using a combination of audio recordings and direct observation.

3.3.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the instructor and selected students at the end of the semester. The interviews explored participants' perceptions of IPSs use, awareness of communication breakdowns, and attitudes toward ELF interaction. Interviews were held in English for the teacher and in Thai for the students, based on their language preferences.

Interviews lasted approximately 30–35 minutes and were audio-recorded with participant consent. The interview protocol included both structured and open-ended questions, allowing for consistency across interviews while enabling participants to elaborate freely.

3.3.2.1 Stimulated Recall Technique

To enhance recall and promote reflective responses, stimulated recall was used during the interviews. Participants were presented with brief excerpts from classroom recordings and asked to reflect on their communicative intentions and perceptions at the time. This method supported the collection of rich introspective data and provided an additional layer of validity to the analysis (Gass & Mackey, 2016).

The interview was organized into three main sections.

- The first section gathered background information, including participant profiles and professional or academic experiences.
- The second section focused on perceptions of IPSs use in the classroom. It sought direct insights from participants regarding specific strategies such as repetition, rephrasing, paraphrasing, repair, and translanguaging (see Appendix G for the English version and Appendix H for the Thai version).
- The final section consisted of follow-up questions designed to trigger participants' reflections on previously recorded classroom interactions. These prompts were part of a *Stimulated Recall Interview* technique (Dempsey, 2010), which encouraged participants to revisit specific conversational moments and articulate their thoughts on the strategies used (Gass & Mackey, 2000).

Special care was taken to ensure that the semi-structured interviews felt conversational rather than formal. The aim was to create a relaxed, chat-like environment (Legard et al., 2003; Schleef & Meyerhoff, 2010) in which participants could comfortably express their views on IPSs and their application in classroom communication. To avoid overwhelming participants with technical language, simpler and more familiar terms—such as "repetition" and "rephrasing"—were used instead of jargon like "pragmatic strategies."

The interviews were conducted in English for the teacher and in Thai for the students, depending on their language preferences. They were scheduled at the end of

the semester. Participants selected a convenient time and location for the interviews to ensure comfort and flexibility.

3.3.3 Supplementary Materials

In addition to primary data, the syllabus and instructional materials used in the Listening and Speaking 2 course were analyzed. These documents provided insight into the pedagogical objectives, task design, and communicative expectations of the course. Lesson plans were reviewed to understand how IPSs were implicitly or explicitly addressed in instructional practices. The integration of supplementary materials enabled the researcher to contextualize classroom practices within the curriculum and assess how effectively instructional design supported the development of pragmatic competence in ELF interaction.

Collectively, the research instruments employed in this study ensured methodological triangulation, enhanced the validity of the findings, and provided a comprehensive understanding of how IPSs were enacted and perceived within the selected classroom context.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process followed a structured and chronologically sequenced plan, ensuring systematic acquisition of both observational and perception-based data. This approach facilitated a comprehensive understanding of the IPSs deployed during classroom communication in an ELF context.

Data collection for this study was carried out in three stages: before the course, during the course, and at the end of the course. In the preliminary stage, the researcher conducted observations to gain a comprehensive understanding of the English Program. This process involved reviewing the English program curriculum, course descriptions, and lesson plans, as well as observing three different courses taught by different instructors. From this broad overview, the researcher gradually narrowed the scope of the study, first selecting one course across three sections, and finally focusing on one section of *Listening and Speaking 2*, which comprised first-year English major students taught by a non-native English-speaking instructor.

During the course, which extended over a 16-week academic semester, informed consent was obtained from all participants, and systematic data collection was implemented. The researcher conducted continuous classroom observations, made detailed field notes, and audio-recorded lessons to document real-time classroom interaction. The observations particularly focused on students' oral task performances, capturing verbal exchanges and contextual cues that were essential for a micro-ethnographic analysis.

At the end of the course, the researcher complemented the observational data with semi-structured interviews and stimulated recall sessions conducted with both the teacher and selected students. These additional instruments were designed to elicit participants' perceptions of their own communicative practices, their awareness of IPSs, and their reflections on communication breakdowns and resolutions. This multi-phase design ensured that both observable classroom practices and subjective participant perspectives were systematically documented, thereby strengthening the validity and depth of the analysis.

The researcher adopted a non-participant observer role, which allowed for naturalistic observation without interference in classroom dynamics. All recorded sessions were supplemented with field notes that captured environmental cues, interactional nuances, and instances of nonverbal communication, thereby enriching the interpretation of the audio data. By extending the observation across the whole semester, the researcher ensured data saturation and captured a wide variety of communicative events and task types. Figure 9 diagrammatically represents the data collection procedures for this study.

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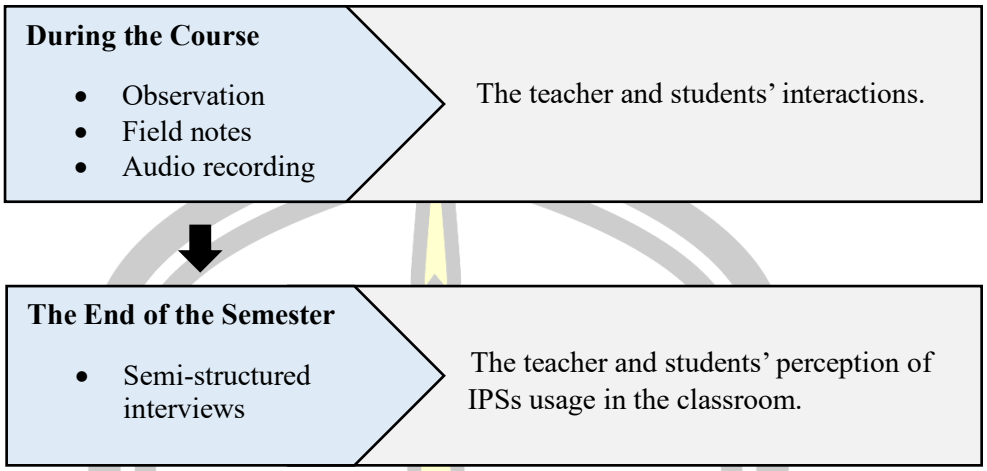


Figure 9 *Data Collection Procedures*

3.4.1 Addressing the Observer's Paradox

The observer's paradox, as first articulated by Labov (1981), refers to the potential alteration of participants' behavior due to their awareness of being observed. In classroom-based micro-ethnographic studies, this paradox is particularly relevant, as students and teachers may shift their speech or behavior when recorded or studied.

To mitigate these effects, the researcher employed several strategies. First, prolonged engagement in the classroom helped normalize the presence of recording devices and the observer, fostering participant comfort over time (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Second, transparency about the study's objectives and ethical assurances of confidentiality contributed to a relaxed and authentic environment. Finally, triangulation of data sources, including field notes and interviews, provided a means to verify observations and reduce the potential impact of reactivity on the data.

These measures ensured that the collected data were reflective of typical classroom interactions and suitable for fine-grained micro-ethnographic analysis.

3.5 Data Preparation

Following data collection, rigorous preparation procedures were undertaken to organize, refine, and prepare the dataset for systematic analysis. Data preparation included transcription, data cleaning, initial coding, and digital organization using

qualitative analysis software. Each step was informed by established protocols in qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007; Schreier, 2012).

3.5.1 Transcription Process

Audio recordings of classroom interactions and interviews were transcribed using a partial transcription approach, focusing on segments relevant to oral communication tasks and observable instances of IPSs. Transcription included both verbal utterances and paralinguistic features (e.g., pauses, intonation, and overlaps) where relevant to the analysis.

Transcripts were initially stored in Microsoft Word for coding and analysis. All transcripts were verified for accuracy through repeated listening and underwent member checking by the participants, where appropriate, thereby enhancing the credibility of the transcription process (Creswell & Poth, 2016).

Field notes were integrated with transcription files to provide contextual information, allowing for the interpretation of gestures, environmental factors, and speaker intentions. This integration was crucial for identifying non-verbal IPSs, such as gestures or gaze shifts, which may not be captured solely through audio.

3.5.2 Coding Framework

Coding was conducted in two stages. The first phase involved pre-coding, where the researcher highlighted relevant excerpts and annotated initial observations and potential codes. The second phase involved formal coding, during which data were categorized using a hybrid framework of concept-driven and data-driven codes (Schreier, 2012).

Concept-driven codes were derived from the theoretical framework (deductive coding), including constructs such as problem indicators (PIs), IPS types (e.g., repair, repetition, clarification), and interactional roles (self vs. other). Data-driven codes emerged inductively from the dataset (inductive coding), allowing new patterns and themes to surface. Coding was iterative, with constant comparison across transcripts to refine categories and establish coherence.

Step 1	The teacher and students' interactions.
Step 2	The researcher will pre-coding the data.
Step 3	The researcher will develop ideas – memos, vignettes, profiles, and other forms of data display.
Step 4	The researcher will interpret.

Figure 10 *The Coding Steps*

3.5.3 Handling Missing Data

Although the majority of the data collected was complete and analyzable, some instances of missing data were identified, particularly in interview transcripts where participants may have skipped or incompletely answered specific questions.

To address this, all transcripts were reviewed for omissions. In cases where data were missing, follow-up inquiries were conducted with the relevant participants to clarify whether the omissions were intentional or due to a misunderstanding. When clarification was not feasible, such segments were noted and excluded from analytical generalization by ethical and methodological standards (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2020).

These rigorous data preparation procedures ensured the integrity, accuracy, and usability of the dataset for detailed qualitative analysis. The result was a well-organized corpus of transcribed and coded data, ready for interpretation and cross-referencing within the broader analytical framework presented in Section 3.6.

3.6 Data Analysis

This section presents the analytical procedures employed in this study and integrates key data insights as part of the methodological process. Rather than deferring the discussion of data patterns and insights to Chapter IV, this section embeds them within the methodological narrative to demonstrate how data collection and analysis were interwoven throughout the micro-ethnographic investigation. This

integration aligns with the principles of qualitative inquiry and micro-ethnography, where data generation and interpretation evolve in tandem to reflect the emergent nature of meaning-making in context (Dörnyei, 2007; LeBaron, 2012).

Given the study's objective to examine IPSs within naturally occurring ELF classroom discourse, data analysis began in parallel with data collection. This approach enabled the iterative refinement of analytical categories, which emerged from ongoing engagement with classroom interactions, interviews, and field notes. Employing both discourse analysis and qualitative content analysis ensured a comprehensive examination of verbal and non-verbal strategies that participants used to manage communication breakdowns.

Discourse Analysis (DA) was used to analyze classroom interaction data. DA enabled an in-depth exploration of how language functioned within specific communicative events and how pragmatic strategies were enacted in context (Gee, 2014; Ritchie et al., 2014). This analytical lens was particularly appropriate for identifying IPSs types such as repetition, repair, clarification, and translanguaging, all of which contributed to managing misunderstandings and facilitating meaning-making. DA was conducted using a bottom-up approach, where meaning was inferred from naturally occurring patterns in the interaction data, rather than being imposed through pre-determined codes.

To address the third research question—participants' perceptions of how IPSs helped to overcome communication breakdowns—Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA) was employed for interview transcripts (Creswell & Poth, 2016). This method allowed for the systematic identification of themes and patterns in participants' perceptions and experiences (Schreier, 2012). The coding process combined concept-driven and data-driven approaches. Initially, categories were derived from the research questions and theoretical framework (e.g., Varonis & Gass, 1985; Dalton-Puffer, 2007), but were

The coding process followed a structured three-stage approach—open, axial, and selective coding—outlined by Creswell and Poth (2016) to ensure a systematic and reliable analysis of the qualitative data. During open coding, the data were

examined line by line to identify recurring ideas and emerging themes without relying on predefined categories. This initial stage allowed the researcher to capture the richness of the transcripts while maintaining analytical flexibility. To enhance reliability, a subset of the data was independently coded, and the results were compared and discussed to resolve any discrepancies.

In the next stage, axial coding was employed to organize these preliminary codes into broader conceptual categories, making explicit connections between codes and aligning them with the study's theoretical framework. A codebook was developed to maintain consistency, and intercoder reliability was established by involving another researcher, who applied the coding scheme to a sample of the data. This cross-validation helped confirm the clarity and coherence of the categories.

Finally, selective coding was conducted to refine and integrate the categories into a cohesive analytical framework that directly addressed the study's research objectives. Emerging patterns were synthesized to construct a meaningful narrative of classroom interaction. To further strengthen the validity of the analysis, member checking was undertaken, allowing participants to review and confirm that the interpretations accurately reflected their perspectives. In addition, an audit trail was maintained to document coding decisions, revisions, and methodological choices, thereby ensuring transparency and rigor. Throughout the process, analytic memos were created to capture key insights and relationships, supporting theme development. This methodological rigor ensured that both macro-level ideologies and micro-level linguistic choices were systematically analyzed, offering a nuanced and credible understanding of how IPSs) are used in the EFL classroom.

3.6.1 Overview of Course Content and Activities

The data for this study were collected from a Listening and Speaking 2 course offered at a Thai university, designed to develop students' communicative competence in English. The course content emphasized real-world communication through practice in listening and speaking activities situated in diverse and authentic contexts. The curriculum comprised nine chapters, each addressing thematic content relevant to everyday communication, such as social introductions, giving instructions, resolving problems, and expressing opinions.

Each unit included structured progression from vocabulary building and warm-up tasks to brainstorming, guided practice, and reflective discussions. The pedagogical goal was to equip students with pragmatic strategies that would allow them to navigate communication across culturally and linguistically diverse contexts. Classroom practices were explicitly designed to foster interaction, encourage the use of English for communicative purposes, and promote awareness of pragmatic norms in ELF settings.

3.6.2 Course Task Types

The course integrated a variety of communicative tasks (see Table 1), including Whole-Class Discussion (WCD), Role-Play (RP), Impromptu Role-Play (IRP), Model Role-Play (MRP), and Descriptive Presentation (DP). These tasks were designed to elicit spontaneous speech and interactional competence, providing a naturalistic context in which IPSs could be observed

Table 2 *Course Task Types*

No.	Task Types	Codes	Frequency Count
1	Whole-Class Discussion	WCD	126
2	Descriptive Presentation	DP	1
3	Model Role-Play	MRP	1
4	Role-Play	RP	28
5	Impromptu Role-Play	IRP	23
Total			**179**

Among these, whole-class discussions were the most frequently used task type, accounting for (n = 126). Role-plays and impromptu role-plays followed, with (n = 28) and (n = 23) occurrences, respectively. These tasks facilitated the simulation of real-life scenarios, allowing participants to employ various strategies to maintain effective communication. Descriptive presentation and model role-play were minimally represented, each appearing only once (n = 1). Their limited occurrence was due to their instructional purpose rather than interactional spontaneity. This

distribution is illustrated in Table 1 and reflects the communicative emphasis of the course design.

3.6.3 Problem Indicators (PIs) in Classroom Interaction

Problem Indicators (PIs) were defined as linguistic or paralinguistic cues that signaled a breakdown in communication or a need for clarification. These included questions, statements, pauses/silences, fillers/backchannels, mispronunciations, and overlaps (see Table 3). Coding these indicators allowed the researcher to trace the points at which pragmatic strategies were activated.

Table 3 *Problem Indicators Usage in Classroom Interaction*

No.	PIs Type	PIs Code	Frequency Count
1	Question	Q	194
2	Statement	S	88
3	Filler/Backchanelling Cue	FL/BCC	37
4	Pause/Silence	P/SL	18
5	Mispronunciation	MP	21
6	Overlapping	OV	22
Total			**380**

Questions emerged (n = 194), followed by statements (n = 88), fillers/backchannels (n = 37), overlaps (n = 22), mispronunciations (n = 21), and pauses/silences (n = 18). The high frequency of questions is consistent with the pedagogical nature of the classroom, where questioning is a key tool for monitoring understanding and prompting peer support. These PIs served as analytical entry points for identifying the deployment of IPSs, as reflected in Table 2.

3.6.4 Overall IPSs Types and Patterns

IPSs were systematically classified into 24 types, ranging from frequently used strategies, such as repair (RP), clarification (CRF), and repetition (RPT), to less frequent ones, including message abandonment (MSA) and own-accuracy check (OAC). Each IPS was coded according to whether it was initiated by the speaker

(self) or the interlocutor (other), providing insight into the dynamics of interaction (see Table 4)

Table 4 *Overall IPS Types and Patterns*

No.	IPS Types	IPS Codes	Patterns		Total
1	Acknowledgment	AKL	Self	Other	132
			85	47	
2	Backchanelling Cue	BCC	Self	Other	41
			29	12	
3	Confirmation	CFM	Self	Other	37
			28	9	
4	Clarification	CRF	Self	Other	253
			113	140	
5	Direct Appeal for Help	DAH	Self	Other	130
			82	48	
6	Encouragement	ECR	Self	Other	37
			0	37	
7	Guessing	GS	Self	Other	65
			61	4	
8	Interpretive Summary	ITS	Self	Other	5
			5	0	
9	Modeling	MDL	Self	Other	11
			2	9	
10	Message Abandonment	MSA	Self	Other	1
			1	0	
11	Non-verbal	NVB	Self	Other	47
			28	19	
12	Own-accuracy Check	OAC	Self	Other	1
			0	1	
13	Prompting	PT	Self	Other	58
			34	24	
14	Paraphrasing	PRPS	Self	Other	1
			1	0	
15	Positive-Reinforcement	PR	Self	Other	43
			8	35	
16	Responding	RPD	Self	Other	37
			19	18	
17	Repetition	RPT	Self	Other	249
			85	164	
18	Retrieval	RTV	Self	Other	75
			59	16	
19	Repair	RP	Self	Other	259
			124	135	

No.	IPS Types	IPS Codes	Patterns		Total
20	Rephrasing	RPS	Self	Other	19
			14	5	
21	Scaffolding	SCF	Self	Other	3
			0	3	
22	Stalling	STL	Self	Other	11
			10	1	
23	Translanguaging	TLG	Self	Other	37
			15	22	
24	Use of Fillers	UFL	Self	Other	36
			32	4	
Total			**835**	**753**	**1,588**

The analysis revealed that repair (n = 259), clarification (n = 253), and repetition (n = 249) were the most prevalent IPSs. These were often employed in a self-other sequence, demonstrating collaborative efforts to sustain mutual understanding. Other-initiated strategies were prevalent, highlighting the teacher's role in scaffolding student communication.

Tables 4a, 4b, and 4c provide detailed accounts of IPSs deployment across various problem types, with linguistic pronunciation (LP), instructional discourse (ID), and factual instruction (FI) accounting for the majority of communication challenges.

Table 4a *Frequency and Distribution of IPSs Across Problem Types*

No.	PTs[1]	PCs[2]	AKL		BCC		CFM		CRF		DAH		ECR		GS		ITS		Total
			S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	
1	LP[3]	42	8	5	4	2	6	1	23	17	12	3	0	17	0	0	0	0	98
2	LG[4]	22	8	4	7	2	6	1	6	8	6	3	0	5	0	0	0	0	56
3	LV[5]	8	3	4	0	0	0	2	7	3	5	7	0	2	11	2	0	0	46
4	IM[6]	7	3	8	2	2	3	3	8	8	6	4	0	1	0	2	0	0	50
5	IR[7]	11	6	4	4	0	1	1	14	18	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	58
6	ID[8]	27	20	5	7	2	6	0	14	30	19	6	0	5	5	0	0	0	119

[1] ***PTs***: *Problem Types*
[2] ***PCs***: *Problem Counts*
[3] ***LP***: *Linguistic Pronunciation*
[4] ***LG***: *Linguistic Grammar*
[5] ***LV***: *Linguistic Vocabulary*
[6] ***IM***: *Interactional Mishearing*
[7] ***IR***: *Interactional Reference*

No.	PTs[1]	PCs[2]	AKL		BCC		CFM		CRF		DAH		ECR		GS		ITS		Total
			S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	
7	FR[9]	18	17	5	3	2	0	0	16	19	16	11	0	1	7	0	3	0	100
8	FI[10]	33	20	12	2	2	6	1	25	37	12	10	0	6	38	0	2	0	173
Total		**168**	**85**	**47**	**29**	**12**	**28**	**9**	**113**	**140**	**82**	**48**	**0**	**37**	**61**	**4**	**5**	**0**	**700**

Table 4b *Frequency and Distribution of IPSs Across Problem Types (Continued)*

PTs	MDL		MSA		NVB		OAC		PT		PRPS		PR		RPD		Total
	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	
LP	0	3	0	0	6	6	0	1	4	10	1	0	3	8	3	6	51
LG	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	4	2	0	13
LV	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	4	2	0	11
IM	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	8
IR	1	2	1	0	4	2	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	24
ID	0	0	0	0	4	7	0	0	5	4	0	0	2	1	5	6	34
FR	0	0	0	0	7	4	0	0	4	4	0	0	3	10	3	6	41
FI	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	5	4	0	0	0	3	2	0	17
Total	**2**	**9**	**1**	**0**	**28**	**19**	**0**	**1**	**34**	**24**	**1**	**0**	**8**	**35**	**19**	**18**	**199**

Table 4c *Frequency and Distribution of IPSs Across Problem Types (Continued)*

PTs	RPT		RTV		RP		RPS		SCF		STL		TLG		UFL		Total
	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	
LP	35	72	16	3	51	62	4	0	0	1	4	0	3	7	3	1	262
LG	4	18	14	0	23	23	1	1	0	1	2	0	1	0	3	0	91
LV	5	7	12	0	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	32
IM	8	7	5	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	24
IR	8	16	1	4	14	5	3	1	0	0	0	0	4	1	1	0	58
ID	7	20	11	3	16	14	3	1	0	1	3	0	3	1	16	0	99
FR	7	6	0	3	9	16	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	1	0	52
FI	11	18	0	3	8	12	1	1	0	0	1	1	2	6	6	1	71
Total	**85**	**164**	**59**	**16**	**124**	**135**	**14**	**5**	**0**	**3**	**10**	**1**	**15**	**22**	**32**	**4**	**689**

[8] ***ID***: *Interactional Discourse*
[9] ***FR***: *Factual Regulative*
[10] ***FI***: *Factual Instructional*

3.6.5 Overcoming Communication Breakdowns in Tasks

Interactional episodes were classified into successful and unsuccessful communication cases. The successful instances (n = 168) involved the effective use of IPSs to resolve misunderstandings. These cases were marked by clear problem identification, appropriate strategy selection, and cooperative interactional moves. In contrast, unsuccessful cases (n = 11) were often due to limited pragmatic awareness, pedagogical constraints, or attitudinal issues such as reluctance to participate.

Successful cases frequently involved strategy combinations, such as repair (RP) followed by clarification (CRF), and repetition (RPT). These sequences illustrated the layered nature of pragmatic competence in ELF interaction. For example, in response to a mispronunciation, a student might first receive a reformulation from a peer (repair), followed by a clarification question from the teacher, ensuring shared understanding. Unsuccessful cases often lacked such strategic scaffolding or were hindered by insufficient language proficiency or classroom management issues. These patterns are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5 *Categorization of Communication Problems and Resolution via IPSs*

No.	Break Cases	Codes	Frequency Count
1	Successful Cases • IPSs in Resolving Communication Problems • Structural Patterns of IPS Chains for Effective Classroom Communication	SCs	168
2	Unsuccessful Cases • Knowledge • Attitude • Pedagogic Skills	USCs	11
	Total		**179**

Together, these analyses provide a comprehensive account of how IPSs functioned within classroom discourse to address communication breakdowns. By embedding these insights in the methodology chapter, the study underscores the dynamic and cyclical relationship between data collection and analysis, a hallmark of micro-ethnographic inquiry (Heath, Hindmarsh, & Luff, 2010).

3.7 Trustworthiness and Validity

To establish the credibility and reliability of the findings, this study employed a range of strategies grounded in qualitative research standards. Trustworthiness was ensured through triangulation, reflexivity, prolonged engagement, member checking, and both intra- and inter-rater reliability assessments (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Creswell & Poth, 2016).

Intra-rater reliability was established by coding the data across multiple time intervals. This repeated analysis ensured consistency in interpreting qualitative categories and minimized subjective bias. For inter-rater reliability, three experts with specialization in pragmatics and English language teaching were engaged. Each expert was provided with the raw data transcripts and the coding framework. They independently applied codes to the transcripts without influence from the researcher. The independently generated codes were then systematically compared with the researcher's own coding. Any discrepancies between coders were identified, discussed, and resolved through consensus-building discussions.

To further validate the coding process, one of these three experts conducted an in-depth review of selected coded samples. This involved examining whether the codes were applied in alignment with the definitions provided in the coding framework and whether they conformed to established theoretical models of interactional pragmatics. This final step ensured that the interpretations were theoretically grounded, methodologically rigorous, and not solely dependent on the researcher's subjective judgment.

Following the transcription of classroom interaction data, the researcher conducted a member checking process to ensure the accuracy and authenticity of the recorded information. The full transcripts were sent to the teacher and student participants so they could review what had been transcribed against what they had actually said. Participants were given the explicit option to request the deletion of any utterances they did not say, or any parts they did not wish to be included in the dataset. This step empowered participants to maintain control over their contributions and protected the ethical integrity of the study. Once reviewed, the participants returned the verified or revised transcripts to the researcher.

Member checking served as a key validation tool for both the raw data and the emerging interpretations. To further enhance accuracy, preliminary findings—particularly key interactional patterns and pragmatic strategies—were shared with selected participants. These individuals were asked to verify whether the interpretations authentically reflected their experiences, communicative behaviors, and classroom realities. This process promoted transparency, respected participant perspectives, and supported the refinement of emergent themes.

Together, these methods strengthened the confirmability, dependability, and credibility of the findings, providing a firm foundation for the interpretive claims made in the subsequent chapter.

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a detailed account of the research methodology, including research design, participant selection, data collection instruments and procedures, data preparation, and the analytical strategies employed. Through a micro-ethnographic lens, the study adopted a flexible, context-sensitive approach that captured the complexity of real-time classroom interactions. Significantly, this chapter integrated selected findings into the methodological discussion to illustrate how data collection and analysis processes were interdependent and reflexively developed. This decision is methodologically justified within micro-ethnographic traditions, where the boundaries between observation, interpretation, and theorization are deliberately fluid (Flick, 2018). Embedding analytic insights here foregrounds the evolving relationship between participants' actions and researchers' interpretations, enriching the understanding of interactional dynamics as they emerged. The chapter demonstrated how the systematic coding of Problem Indicators, IPS types, and resolution patterns across task types helped answer the research questions and laid the groundwork for subsequent interpretation. The strategies employed to ensure trustworthiness further reinforced the reliability and transparency of the research process.

In the next chapter, the study shifts from analytical description to interpretive discussion. Chapter IV presents the findings in depth, elaborates on the patterns observed, and situates them within broader theoretical and pedagogical contexts.

CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION (RQ1 & RQ2): IPSs IN THAI EFL CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS

This chapter presents the findings and interpretive discussion that address the first two research questions posed in this study (see 1.4 in Chapter I). Research Question 1 (RQ1): *What are the interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs) deployed by a teacher and students in a Thai university English language classroom interaction?* Research Question 2 (RQ2): *How do the interlocutors resource IPSs to aid mutual understanding and resolve communication problems during teaching and learning in the classroom?* Drawing upon the micro-ethnographic approach and qualitative research design discussed in Chapter III, the present chapter integrates qualitative and frequency-based analyses to comprehensively understand the nature and function of IPSs within English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) classroom interaction. Emphasis is placed not only on the types of strategies employed (see 4.1 and 4.2) but also on how these strategies are dynamically resourced in response to various communicative challenges (see 4.3). The chapter begins by offering an overview of the IPSs identified in the dataset. This includes both well-established strategies reported in prior literature and context-specific strategies that emerged uniquely from the data collected in the Thai EFL setting. The chapter then focuses on how interlocutors (the teacher and students during interaction) resource these strategies to overcome instances of communication breakdown and achieve mutual understanding.

4.1 Overview of Identified IPSs

This section presents an overview of IPSs identified in the classroom interaction data, addressing RQ 1. The analysis categorizes IPSs into two groups: (1) strategies grounded in prior literature and (2) context-specific strategies that emerged uniquely from the Thai EFL classroom setting. These findings are informed by the analytical framework outlined in Chapter III and provide foundational insight into how IPSs are deployed in real-time classroom interactions to manage communication challenges and facilitate mutual understanding.

4.1.1 Literature-Based IPSs

The analysis of classroom discourse revealed 19 IPSs that are consistent with those commonly documented in existing studies on ELF communication and classroom pragmatics. These strategies, presented in Table 5, include a range of both verbal and non-verbal actions used by participants to maintain conversational flow, address misunderstandings, and support interlocutor comprehension.

Table 6 *Summary of Literature-Based IPSs*

No.	Group	IPS Types	IPS Codes
1	Meaning Negotiation Strategies	Acknowledgment	AKL
		Backchanelling Cues	BCC
		Confirmation	CFM
		Clarification	CRF
		Interpretive Summary	ITS
		Paraphrasing	PRPS
		Rephrasing	RPS
2	Problem-Solving	Direct Appeal for Help	DAH
		Guessing	GS
		Retrieval	RTV
		Repair	RP
		Own-accuracy Check	OAC
		Message Abandonment	MSA
3	Discourse Management Strategies	Prompting	PT
		Responding	RPD
		Repetition	RPT
4	Time-gaining Strategies	Stalling	STL
		Use of Fillers	UFL
5	Non-verbal Strategies	Non-verbal	NVB

The Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs) were grouped into five broad functional categories to provide a clearer analytical framework for classroom data analysis. *Meaning negotiation strategies* (e.g., acknowledgment, confirmation, clarification, paraphrasing, and rephrasing) were identified as central to ensuring mutual understanding and sustaining the flow of communication. *Problem-solving* (e.g., direct appeal for help, guessing, retrieval, and repair) were employed when learners encountered communication breakdowns or gaps in linguistic resources. *Discourse management strategies* (e.g., prompting, responding, repetition, and message abandonment) contributed to maintaining conversational structure and promoting learner participation. *Time-gaining strategies* (stalling and use of fillers) allowed speakers to hold the floor while planning their utterances, thus reducing communication anxiety. Finally, *non-verbal strategies* (gestures and other embodied resources) supported verbal interaction by providing additional cues for meaning-making.

This categorization aligns with established communication strategy taxonomies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995; Tarone, 1980) and provides a systematic lens for examining how learners and the teacher navigated interactional challenges in the EFL classroom.

4.1.2 Context-Specific IPSs

In addition to the 19 literature-based IPSs, the analysis identified five strategies that emerged as context-specific pedagogical manifestations within the Thai university EFL classroom. These strategies—Encouragement (ECR), Modeling (MDL), Positive-reinforcement (PR), Scaffolding (SCF), and Translanguaging (TLG)—are summarized in Table 7. Unlike the 19 established IPSs discussed earlier, these are not proposed as universal or entirely new categories, but rather as context-shaped adaptations that played significant roles in this classroom interaction. Notably, Translanguaging (TLG) has been extensively recognized in the literature (e.g., García & Wei, 2014; Ambele, 2022), whereas the other four—Encouragement, Positive-reinforcement, Scaffolding, and Modeling—emerged as instructionally driven strategies shaped by the communicative and pedagogical needs of this particular classroom setting.

***Table** 7 Context-Specific IPSs Identified in Thai EFL Classroom Discourse*

No.	IPS Types	IPS Codes
1	Encouragement	ECR
2	Modeling	MDL
3	Positive-Reinforcement	PR
4	Scaffolding	SCF
5	Translanguaging	TLG

These five strategies are not typically highlighted in the IPSs literature but played a critical role in the classroom interactions observed. Their emergence appears to be pedagogically motivated, reflecting both the teacher's teaching style and the communicative needs of the students.

Encouragement (ECR) served as a motivational strategy. It was often employed to reduce student anxiety and foster engagement (Khasawneh, 2023). Teachers frequently used verbal affirmations (e.g., *"good job," "try again," "yeah::: say again::," "good:: >again< , >again<"* and *"good ↑try again::"* (see Extract E(1), lines 6 and 8) and non-verbal cues (e.g., smiling, nodding) to motivate students to persevere through communicative challenges.

Positive-reinforcement (PR) operated as a feedback technique. It played a pivotal role in affirming, validating, and strengthening students' accurate language use and appropriate interactional behaviors in the classroom. Distinct from encouragement (ECR), which primarily aims to motivate students emotionally or psychologically (Ghafar & Raheem, 2023), positive-reinforcement (PR) specifically functions to emphasize and reward successful instances of communication. Teachers employed positive-reinforcement (PR) strategies through both verbal and non-verbal means. For example, explicit verbal praise such *as "receptionist:: ↑good ↑job"* (see Extract E(6), line 17) or *"↑very good:: honesty /ˈa:.nɪ.sti/"* (see Extract E(16), line 41) was commonly used to acknowledge correct responses. In addition to verbal feedback, teachers also relied on gestural cues, such as a thumbs-up or an approving nod, to reinforce students' performance. These actions not only validated students'

efforts but also promoted the consistent application of effective communicative practices in subsequent interactions. By reinforcing desirable language behavior, teachers helped students internalize successful communication patterns, thereby supporting long-term language development.

In conjunction with positive-reinforcement (PR), scaffolding (SCF) emerged as a fundamental instructional strategy that facilitated students' transition from limited linguistic proficiency to more autonomous and confident language use. Drawing from Vygotskian sociocultural theory, scaffolding refers to the temporary, structured support provided by teachers, which is gradually reduced as students gain competence (Dang et al., 2024). Within the classroom discourse, scaffolding manifested in various forms: simplifying complex language structures, offering sentence starters, posing guiding questions, and reformulating students' responses to enhance clarity and understanding. For instance, when a student struggled with verb tense, the teacher intervened with progressive scaffolding techniques. Initially, the teacher modeled the correct verb form, followed by prompting the student to complete a partially formed sentence. Eventually, the student was encouraged to produce the full sentence independently. This approach is exemplified in a classroom episode where the teacher supported a student's hesitant utterance—*"I have ="*—by scaffolded input, *"I don't have no idea:::,"* ultimately leading the student to complete the sentence as *"= I have:::, I have no idea"* (see Extract E(3), lines 8–10). Through this systematic withdrawal of assistance, students remained actively involved in the meaning-making process while simultaneously building their communicative competence. Collectively, the use of positive-reinforcement (PR) and scaffolding (SCF) underscores a pedagogical approach that is both supportive and empowering. While positive-reinforcement (PR) celebrates and consolidates students' communicative successes, scaffolding (SCF) provides the necessary cognitive and linguistic support to bridge the gap between current ability and future potential. These strategies, when effectively integrated, contribute significantly to students' overall language development in English as EFL contexts.

Modeling (MDL) functioned as a teaching technique. It emerged as a prominent pedagogical strategy during teacher–student interactions, serving as a

practical means for demonstrating accurate pronunciation, grammatical structures, and appropriate discourse patterns. By providing a linguistic blueprint for students, modeling enabled students to observe and replicate correct language use in context (Hidalgo López, 2023). This approach was particularly effective in enhancing both linguistic accuracy and oral fluency, as confirmed by previous studies (Amir, 2018; Bondarenko, 2022). Teachers often employed modeling through repetition, reformulation, or scaffolded responses, encouraging students to imitate and internalize appropriate language forms (Masyithah & Eliana, 2019). A representative example can be seen in a classroom situation where a newly arrived student, entering the class late, said, *"I'm sorry::: I'm late"* (see Extract E(11), line 4) In response, the teacher modeled a more polite and grammatically structured alternative: *"I'm sorry teacher , I'm late. May I come in, please?"* (see Extract E(11), lines 7-9) This corrective yet supportive input not only guided the student toward constructing a more socially appropriate utterance but also reinforced the communicative norms expected in an English-speaking context. Such instances underscore how modeling functions both as a corrective tool and a form of implicit instruction, helping students develop linguistic confidence and competence over time.

In addition to modeling (MDL), translanguaging (TLG) was employed as a pedagogical approach. It emerged as a dynamic and context-sensitive instructional practice that embraced students' full linguistic repertoires. Rather than enforcing a rigid separation of languages, translanguaging (TLG) allowed students to draw on all their available linguistic resources—including English, Thai, and Isan—to negotiate meaning and facilitate communication (García & Wei, 2014). Within the Thai EFL classroom context, this approach proved to be both flexible and strategic in addressing communication barriers (Ambele, 2022; Boonsuk & Ambele, 2024). In the present study, both teacher and students purposefully alternated among languages to enhance comprehension, clarify complex or abstract concepts, and maintain active engagement in classroom discourse. Translanguaging (TLG) was not perceived as a hindrance to English acquisition; rather, it functioned as a scaffold that supported students' progression toward greater linguistic proficiency. Students frequently employed Thai and Isan to verify understanding, negotiate meaning collaboratively, or assist peers

experiencing difficulty. Simultaneously, teacher used these local languages to rephrase instructions, draw attention to cross-linguistic differences, or explain unfamiliar terminology—thus deepening students' metalinguistic awareness. This aligns with García and Wei's (2014) conceptualization of translanguaging as a pedagogical resource rather than a communicative failure. For example, in Extract E(10), lines 2–3, a teacher playfully questioned, *"↑really::::? mai me YELlow::::..?"* to which the students responded in Isan, *"bor me YELlow:: YELlow:: kha."* This exchange illustrates how translanguaging (TLG) practices allowed for meaningful interaction and reinforced content comprehension through the strategic use of students' home languages. Taken together, modeling (MD) and translanguaging (TLG) reflect complementary pedagogical strategies that promote both linguistic accuracy and communicative effectiveness. While modeling provides students with clear examples of target language use, translanguaging creates an inclusive and supportive learning environment where students can leverage their entire linguistic repertoire to engage meaningfully with content and peers.

Collectively, these context-specific IPSs illustrate the highly adaptive nature of ELF classroom discourse and underscore the importance of contextualized pragmatic competence. While Translanguaging (TLG) aligns strongly with established scholarship as a recognized IPS, Encouragement (ECR), positive-reinforcement (PR), Scaffolding (SCF), and Modeling (MDL) should be understood as pedagogically motivated practices that took on IPS-like functions in this classroom. Their presence reflects the specific teaching style, student needs, and multilingual context of this Thai EFL environment rather than universal categories. This framing highlights the flexibility of IPSs and how classroom realities can generate unique adaptations that support communicative effectiveness in situ.

4.1.3 Frequency and Distribution of IPSs

The frequency analysis of IPSs usage, derived from coding of 168 transcript segments (see Table 4), revealed patterns that further illuminate the strategic behavior of classroom participants. Repair (RP), clarification (CRF), and repetition (RPT) were the most frequently observed strategies, corroborating previous research on ELF communication (Smit, 2010; Kaur, 2011). These strategies often appeared in

interactional sequences where misunderstanding was anticipated or had already occurred.

In terms of task-based distribution, role-play and discussion activities elicited the highest number of IPS instances (see 3.6.2, Chapter III). These tasks required spontaneous, unscripted language use, which created opportunities for communicative breakdowns and necessitated the deployment of IPSs. Scaffolding (SCF) and modeling (MDL) were particularly prominent during discussion and teacher-led questioning, where instructional guidance was more explicit. Encouragement (ECR) and positive-reinforcement (PR) occurred across all task types but were especially common during impromptu speaking activities, where students demonstrated visible hesitation.

While some IPSs such as message abandonment and own-accuracy checks appeared less frequently, their occurrence was still significant as they contributed to the resolution of communication problems (see 3.6.4, Chapter III). The data confirm that IPSs are not uniformly distributed but are sensitive to both interactional context and task demands (Williams, 2023; Björkman, 2011). These findings emphasize the complexity and flexibility of pragmatic strategy use in EFL classrooms (Duckinoska-Mihajlovska & Kirkova-Naskova, 2023; Larsen-Freeman, 2012). The diverse range of IPSs—both conventional and context-specific—illustrates how teachers and students collaboratively construct communicative success.

In the section that follows (see 4.2), selected excerpts from the classroom corpus are presented to demonstrate how these strategies were deployed in real-time interaction.

4.2 Teacher and Students' Deployed IPSs in the Classroom

This section presents the findings related to RQ 1, which investigates the IPSs deployed by the teacher and students in an English language classroom at a Thai university. This IPSs were divided from the interaction between the teacher and students. Therefore, IPSs presented in this chapter should be consider as those use by both teacher and students together in the interaction. Drawing upon the categories introduced in Section 4.1, this section examines the practical application of both

literature-based and context-specific IPSs, as they were employed by participants to manage communication challenges and facilitate intelligibility. Selected extracts from classroom interactions are analyzed to illustrate the nature, frequency, and function of these strategies in real-time discourse.

4.2.1 Use of Literature-Based IPSs

The classroom data revealed consistent use of several IPSs previously identified in the literature. Among these, repetition (RPT), clarification (CRF), repair (RP), acknowledgement (AKL), and direct appeal for help (DAH) were particularly salient. These strategies were used both independently and in combination, often by the teacher in response to student difficulties, as well as by students seeking to negotiate meaning or clarify their understanding.

For example, in Extract E(1), the teacher initiated interactional repair in response to a student's pronunciation error with the word *"respect."* The sequence illustrates the interplay between prompting (PT), repetition (RPT), repair (RP), and acknowledgement (AKL):

Extract E(1): [P:6.9.24.W10] (Lines 122–131)

T:	okay::: number three is respect /rɪˈspɛkt/	(Self-PT)
S2:	respect /rɪˈspɛk/	(Other-RPT)
T:	again:: again::? can you say it again, please?	(Self-RPT) & (Other-PT)
S2:	respect /rɪˈspɛk/	(Other-RPT) & (Self-RP)
T:	no:::, >t< , respect /rɪˈspɛkt/	(Self-RPT) & (Other-RP, MDL, ECR)
	good:: >again< , >again<	
S2:	respect /rɪˈspɛkt/	(Other-RPT) & (Self-RP)
T:	good ↑try again::	(Self-RPT) & (Other-ECR)
S2:	respect /rɪˈspɛkt/	(Other-RPT) & (Self-RP)
T:	↑yes, that's ↑right:::: ↑well done	(Self-AKL) & (Other-PR)

This exchange highlights how the teacher used repetition (RPT) to check the pronunciation or meaning of the student's pronunciation, followed by repair (RP) to resolve the breakdown and positive-reinforcement (PR) to validate the corrected form.

Notably, the teacher's use of prompting (PT) simultaneously encourages continued student engagement. Acknowledgment (AKL) is used to confirm learning at the end of a correction sequence.

In another example, Extract E(4), clarification (CRF) and repair (RP) strategies were used to resolve a grammatical issue. When a student responded with *"don't sure,"* the teacher intervened with corrective feedback:

Extract E(4): [P:23.8.24.W8] (Lines 930–942)

S5:	don't sure =	(Self-RPD)
T:	= not sure , >not< I don't sure , I am not sure	(Other- RP) & (Self-RPT)
S5:	>okay< I'm not sure	(Self-AKL, RP) & (Other-RPT)

This interaction demonstrates how the teacher employed a combination of repair (RP) and repetition (RPT) to model the correct grammatical structure. The student then reformulated the utterance appropriately, indicating successful uptake. The correction process was immediate and supportive, showing how literature-based IPSs facilitated communicative accuracy.

Throughout these examples, the teacher frequently used prompting (PT), repair (RP), modeling (MDL), encouragement (ECR), and repetition (RPT), while students tended to use repair (RP) and repetition (RPT) strategies. The asymmetry in strategy deployment reflects the teacher's role as a facilitator of interaction and the students' position as language students negotiating meaning within a supportive pedagogical space.

4.2.2 Use of Context-Specific IPSs

In addition to established IPSs, participants in the classroom frequently employed context-specific strategies that responded to the particular socio-cultural and instructional setting of the Thai EFL classroom. These included encouragement (ECR), modeling (MDL), positive-reinforcement (PR), scaffolding (SCF), and translanguaging (TLG).

Encouragement (ECR) was observed across multiple interactions, particularly when students displayed hesitation or uncertainty. Verbal affirmations such as *"good:: >again< , >again<"* or *"good ↑try again::"* were used to motivate students and

reduce anxiety. For instance, in Extract E(1), the teacher's repeated encouragement served to boost the student's confidence, sustaining their participation through several repair cycles.

Modeling (MDL) was another key strategy, particularly evident in interactions involving pronunciation or syntactic structure. Teachers frequently demonstrated the correct form following an error and prompted students to repeat the modeled phrase. In Extract E(2), when the teacher sought the Thai translation for *"honey,"* the student responded with *"Nampheung."* to correct the translation and model how to pronounce it. The teacher repeated the name correctly and confirmed it through translanguaging and non-verbal cues:

T: Nampheung , Nampheung , yeah:: (Self-TLG, NVB, OAC) & (Other-RPT)

Positive-reinforcement (PR), closely related to encouragement, was used to validate students' successful attempts at communication. After a correct answer or pronunciation, teachers provided explicit praise or gestures such as nodding or giving a thumbs-up. These affirmations served not only to recognize student achievement but also to reinforce effective language use.

Scaffolding (SCF) appeared in interactions where students required more structured support to complete utterances. In Extract E(3), the teacher's intervention helped a student reformulate a response through guided repetition and sentence completion. This graduated assistance enabled the student to arrive at a more accurate linguistic output.

Finally, translanguaging (TLG) was used as a functional strategy to ensure comprehension, especially when classroom participants faced difficulty in expressing or understanding meaning. In Extract E(10), the alternation between English, Thai, and Isan was critical in clarifying the meaning of the word *"no yellow."* This practice reflects the pragmatic use of students' full linguistic repertoires to bridge comprehension gaps.

Together, these context-specific strategies demonstrate how classroom participants adapted their communicative behavior to the demands of the local context. Unlike literature-based IPSs, which often emphasize linguistic form, these

strategies also addressed emotional engagement, cognitive scaffolding, and cross-linguistic mediation. Their deployment underscores the importance of contextualized and student-centered approaches to ELF pedagogy.

The next section (see 4.3) will analyze how these strategies were resourced by the interlocutors to resolve communication problems and achieve mutual understanding, thereby addressing RQ 2.

4.3 Resourcing IPSs to Aid Understanding: *How* and *Why* IPSs Were Used in Moments of Difficulty

This section addresses RQ 2, which investigates how the interlocutors—teacher and students—resourced IPSs to support mutual understanding and overcome communication difficulties during classroom interaction.

As outlined in the analytical framework (see Section 2.2.2), Smit's (2010) concept of "repairables" served as a foundational tool for anticipating and identifying communication breakdowns within the data of the current study. This framework is particularly effective in categorizing communicative problems into linguistic, interactional, and factual domains. Within these broader categories, specific issues identified in the data include pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, mishearing, reference, discourse coherence, and both instructional and regulative challenges.

The analysis is organized around three primary categories of communicative challenges: linguistic problems, interactional issues, and factual issues. The subsequent section explores how these problems were addressed through IPSs, known as successful cases (see 3.6.5, Chapter III), highlighting the interrelated nature of these strategies in facilitating mutual understanding during classroom interactions. It also explores how the co-construction of meaning was achieved through the dynamic chaining of IPSs in real-time exchanges. Each subsection presents detailed examples through representative classroom extracts, providing a nuanced understanding of how IPSs functioned in real-time discourse.

4.3.1 Resolving Linguistic Problems

Linguistic challenges were among the most frequent sources (see Table 3a) of communication breakdown in the data. These issues encompassed problems with

pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Each type of problem triggered distinct IPSs, although they often overlapped within the same interaction.

4.3.1.1 Linguistic Pronunciation (LP)

Pronunciation-related difficulties were commonly addressed through a combination of teacher-led prompting (PT), explicit modeling (MDL), and guided repetition (RPT). These instructional strategies not only facilitated accurate articulation but also supported student uptake without significantly disrupting the natural flow of classroom interaction. Teachers strategically employed these techniques to draw attention to pronunciation issues and provide immediate, context-sensitive feedback that students could easily incorporate into their speech.

Extract E(1) serves as a representative example of how IPSs were utilized to address such challenges. The extract demonstrates how a sequence of IPSs—prompting (PT), modeling (MDL), and repetition (RPT)—worked collaboratively to resolve a pronunciation issue while preserving the continuity of communication. This process underscores the pivotal role of IPSs in facilitating successful interaction and highlights their interconnected function in promoting both linguistic accuracy and communicative efficiency in the EFL classroom.

Extract E(1) [P:6.9.24.W10] (Transcript lines 122-131)

PT: Prompting RPT: Repetition RP: Repair

MDL: Modeling ECR: Encouragement AKL: Acknowledgement

PR: Positive-Reinforcement

1→	T: okay::: number three is respect /rɪˈspɛkt/	PI (Self-PT)
2→	S2: respect /rɪˈspɛk/	PI (Other-RPR)
3→	T: again:: ? again:: ? can you say it again, please?	PI (Self-RPT) & (Other-PT)
4→	S2: respect /rɪˈspɛk/	PI (Other-RPT) & (Self-RP)
5→	T: no:::, >t< , respect /rɪˈspɛkt/	R (Self-RPT) & (Other-RP, MDL, ECR)
6	good:: >again< , >again<	
7→	S2: respect /rɪˈspɛkt/	R (Other-RPT) & (Self-RP)
8→	T: good ↑try again::	R (Self-RPT) & (Other-ECR)

9→	S2: respect /rɪˈspɛkt/	R (Other-RPT) & (Self-RP)
10→	T: ↑yes, that's ↑right:::: ↑well done	U (Self-AKL) & (Other- PR)

In Extract E(1), the teacher initiated the activity by introducing the target word *"respect"* and prompting S2 to repeat it, which served as a starting point for the interactional focus on pronunciation (line 1). S2 then repeated the word but omitted the final /t/ sound, resulting in linguistic pronunciation that affected the accuracy of the word and created the first moment of problematic interaction (line 2). Recognizing the issue, the teacher prompted the S2 to repeat the word again, signaling that the prior attempt was not yet accurate and that clarification and correction were needed, which continued the problematic interaction (line 3). S2 attempted to repeat the word; however, the pronunciation error persisted, showing that S2 had not yet fully noticed or corrected the problematic sound, which maintained the ongoing linguistic pronunciation (line 4). To address this issue, the teacher explicitly highlighted the problematic sound /t/ and provided a correct modeling of the word, accompanied by encouragement, to motivate the S2 to try again. This marked the teacher's active attempt to repair the pronunciation problem while still engaging the S2 to participate in the correction process (lines 5-6). Following the teacher's repair, S2 made another attempt to pronounce the word more accurately. Although still in progress, this marked a turning point where the S2 started incorporating the teacher's feedback, which reflected ongoing repair efforts (line 7). The teacher recognized this improvement and continued encouraging the S2 to repeat the word, signaling that while the attempt was better, further practice was needed to ensure full accuracy, showing that the repair process was still underway (line 8). S2 then repeated the word again, this time producing a more accurate pronunciation, indicating that the earlier problematic interaction had been successfully resolved through ongoing repair (line 9). At this point, understanding was achieved as both the teacher and S2 had collaboratively addressed and overcome the pronunciation problem. The teacher used acknowledgement and positive-reinforcement to both confirm learning and build the student's confidence at the end of a correction sequence (line 10).

This extract illustrates how the teacher guided the student through multiple pronunciation attempts using RPT, RP, MDL, and ECR. The sequence demonstrates

collaborative negotiation of phonological accuracy through IPSs chaining. In this interaction, the teacher does not solely rely on PT, RP, and RPT; rather, they combine MDL to demonstrate the correct form, ECR to motivate S2 to keep trying, and PR to confirm the correct attempt and boost the student's confidence. These strategies collaboratively supported the S2 in overcoming the pronunciation difficulty and successfully producing the target form.

This extract was successful because the teacher provided clear feedback, modeled the correct pronunciation, and encouraged repeated practice. Through persistence and positive-reinforcement, the student was able to notice the error, adjust, and finally produce the correct form. The collaboration between teacher and student ensured the pronunciation problem was effectively resolved.

In another example under linguistic pronunciation, Extract E(2), the teacher and S19 collaboratively resolve pronunciation and meaning-related issues through IPSs as the teacher and S19 navigate pronunciation, clarification, and understanding of culturally specific words and names in the classroom interaction.

Extract E(2) [P:19.7.24.W3] (Transcript lines 696-713)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	RPD: Responding	CRF: Clarification
TLG: Translanguaging	NVB: Non-verbal	RPT: Repetition
UFL: Use of Fillers	OAC: Own-accuracy Check	RTV: Retrieval
AKL: Acknowledgement	BCC: Backchanneling Cue	PRPS: Paraphrasing
RP: Repair	CFM: Confirmation	

1→	T:	↑Hong (0.3) I like your name:::.	
2		you guys have weird:: nicknames , if you would translate it::.	
3		it means that your name is like room:: , hel↑lo , room:::	
4		and then there's hel↑lo butter , like:: Noey butter	
5		and then there's also honey::: what's honey ?	
6		>again< ? what's honey in Thai::: ?	PI (Self -DAH)
7→	S19:	Nam↑pheung , teacher:::	R (Other-RPD, TLG, NVB)
8→	T:	Nam↓pheung , Nam↑pheung , ↑yeah::	R (Self-TLG, NVB, OAC, RPT) & (Other-RPT)
9→	S19:	↑ah:::: her name means sworn:::	R (Other-BCC, CRF)

10→	T:	again:: ? [Saun:: ? , Sawan:: ?]	PI (Self-RTV)
11→	S19:	[her name] means sworn:::	R (Other-CRF) & (Self-RPT)
12→	T:	ah:: sworn::::	R (Self-AKL, UFL) & (Other-RPT)
13→	S19:	↑Hong , in Thai	R (Other-CRF, TLG, NVB)
14→	T:	↑oh::: , I thought it was room::	R (Self-UFL, RPD)
15→	S19:	no:: , no::::.	R (Other-CFM)
16→	T:	.hh:: , I see::	U (Self-UFL, AKL, TLG, NVB, RP, RPT, PRPS)
17		Hong , room:::	
18		you know, like ↑Hong Nam::::	

In Extract E(2), the interaction began with the teacher initiating a conversation focusing on LP and the literal meanings of names. The teacher attempted to engage the students while highlighting the unique sounds and word associations in English and Thai. The pronunciation of certain words like *"Hong"* and "*Nam↑pheung"* became a focal point, where phonetic variations and translations created opportunities for clarification and learning. These moments reflected the challenges of navigating between languages and ensuring accuracy.

The teacher engaged with students about the meanings of Thai nicknames, highlighting cultural nuances and clarifying any misunderstandings. The teacher appreciated a student's name, *"Hong,"* noting its uniqueness. This initiated a discussion about the literal translations of Thai nicknames (lines 1-2). The teacher observed that some nicknames, when translated, correspond to common English words like *"room"* (line 3), *"butter"* (line 4), and *"honey"* (line 5), which might seem unusual in English. Seeking the Thai translation for *"honey,"* the teacher asked the class (line 6), prompting S19 to respond with *"Nampheung,"* the correct translation (line 7). The teacher repeated the word by checking the intonation, acknowledging the S19's input, and reinforcing the understanding. This exchange exemplified effective communication and mutual learning in a language classroom (line 8). S19 then offered additional information, explaining that another individual's name means *"sworn."* (line 9). The teacher, seeking further clarification, asked for repetition, indicating a desire to fully grasp the S19's explanation (line 10). S19

reiterated the meaning, and the teacher acknowledged this, demonstrating active listening and engagement (lines 11-12). When S19 mentioned *"Hong"* in Thai, the teacher initially thought it meant *"room,"* (lines 13-14). However, S19 confirmed that in this context, *"Hong"* did not mean *"room"* (line 15). The teacher acknowledged the correction, expressing understanding and aligning with S19 explanation. The teacher engaged in self-repair by clarifying the term *"Hong"* after realizing a potential misunderstanding associated with *"room"* in Thai, as in *"Hong Nam"* (meaning *"bathroom"* or *"toilet"* in Thai), to correct the previous assumption and align with S19's explanation. (lines 16-18).

This extract was successful because the teacher and student collaboratively clarified the meanings of Thai nicknames while navigating pronunciation and translation challenges. The teacher encouraged participation, acknowledged the student's input, and corrected misunderstandings in real time. Through this process, both parties achieved mutual understanding and deepened cultural as well as linguistic awareness, making the exchange both accurate and engaging.

4.3.1.2 Linguistic Grammar (LG)

Grammatical difficulties often required more structured support, typically in the form of teacher scaffolding and student self-repair. IPSs worked in tandem to facilitate students' grammatical development: the teacher provided guided assistance tailored to the student's needs, while students actively engaged in monitoring and correcting their own language use. This collaborative dynamic helped to address linguistic inaccuracies and promote greater grammatical awareness during interaction.

Extract E(3) [P:23.8.24.W8] (Transcript lines 930-942)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	RPT: Repetition	RP: Repair
TLG: Translanguaging	NVB: Non-verbal	SCF: Scaffolding
AKL: Acknowledgment	ECR: Encouragement	RPD: Responding
PR: Positive-Reinforcement		

1→	S15:	hi::: do you know how much::	PI (Self-DAH)
2		the ticket in Korea is ?	
3→	S14:	it's two thousand baht	R (Other-RPD)
4→	T:	okay , good::::	R (Other-ECR)

5→	S15:	can you tell me if it's very expen↑sive ?	PI (Self-DAH)
6→	S14:	sorry , I don't:: I have (0.4)	PI (Other-RPD) & (Self-RPT, TLG, NVB)
7		sorry I don't:: have >ei young kor<	
8		I don't have no idea:::	
9→	T:	I have =	R (Other-SCF, RPT)
10→	S14:	= I have::: , I have no idea	R (Self-RP, RPT)
11→	T:	okay , good job:: thank you so much	U (Other-PR)
12→	S15:	thanks bye:::..	U (Self AKL: polite farewell)
13→	S14:	bye:::. , bye:::.	U (Self-AKL: polite farewell)

The exchange in E(3) emerged as an impromptu role-play, where participants spontaneously assumed roles to simulate a real-life scenario of asking and answering questions about ticket prices. This unscripted activity provided a naturalistic context for students to practice using language for communicative purposes while addressing linguistic and grammatical challenges. The conversation emphasized how participants used various strategies to overcome these challenges, particularly related to grammar and sentence structure. The teacher was pivotal in scaffolding the conversation, encouraging participation, and fostering accurate grammatical expressions. The students' interactions revealed natural struggles with grammar, self-repair, and clarity, highlighting the importance of collaborative efforts in achieving communicative success.

S15 initiated the conversation by asking about the ticket price (lines 1-2). This question reflected a problem indicator, as S15 sought information that S15 did not know. The utterance introduced the topic and invited S14 to respond. S14 resolved the problem by responding to the ticket price (line 3). This represented a resolution, as S14 successfully addressed the query with a clear and direct answer. The teacher responded to S15 and S14 with encouragement (line 4). This demonstrated understanding, as the teacher validated S14's input and encouraged participation through positive feedback. S15 was introduced by asking if the ticket price was high (line 5). This question indicated the problem indicator of a knowledge gap and required S14 to provide an opinion or judgment. S14 struggled to respond, resulting in hesitations, repetition, and the use of translanguaging in the Isan language, *"ei young*

kor" which meant *"what is it?."* The utterance showed the complexity of managing incomplete grammar structures and linguistic uncertainty (lines 6-8). The teacher intervened with scaffolding by repeating the words to assist S14. This reflected understanding as the teacher offered linguistic support to help S14 complete the response (line 9). S14 completed the utterance, resolving the earlier difficulty by combining self-repair with the teacher's scaffolding (line 10). The teacher acknowledged S14 and S15 by responding with positive-reinforcement, fostering confidence and understanding (line 11). S15 and S14 concluded the interaction with a polite farewell, maintaining a courteous tone to reinforce the exchange's social closure (lines 12-13).

This extract was successful because the spontaneous role-play created an authentic context for communication, allowing students to practice grammar and meaning in a natural exchange. The teacher's timely scaffolding and encouragement provided the necessary support for students to repair errors and complete their ideas with greater accuracy. By guiding learners while still letting them take initiative, the teacher helped transform moments of difficulty into learning opportunities. The conversation ended smoothly with polite social closure, showing that both accuracy and communicative flow were achieved collaboratively.

The next Extract E(4) also illustrates how different IPSs work together to solve the communication problem under the linguistic grammar category.

Extract E(4) [P:20.9.24.W12] (Transcript lines 230-239)

RPD: Responding RP: Repair RPT: Repetition
AKL: Acknowledgment PR: Positive-Reinforcement MDL: Modeling

1→	T:	now , do you know the difference	
2		between a hotel and a hostel ?	
3		hotel and hostel do you know the difference ?	
4		hostel you know the difference , yes::: ? yeah::: ?	
5		you really- you- have you been to a hostel , I love the yes::	
6		you know the hotel and hostel ? have you been to a hostel ?	
7→	S5:	don't sure =	PI (Self-RPD)
8→	T:	= not sure , >not< I don't sure , I am not sure	R (Other- RP) & (Self-RPT)

9→ S5: >okay< I'm not sure R (Self-AKL, RP, MDL) & (Other-RPT)

10→ T: yeah::: okay:: ((0.2)) good::: U (Other-PR) & (Self-AKL)

In this classroom interaction, the conversation took place between the teacher and S5, focusing on the topic of understanding the difference between *"hotel"* and *"hostel."* The teacher aimed to check students' comprehension by asking clarification questions and encouraging responses. This interaction reflected a natural classroom discourse where students encountered linguistic grammar problems, particularly in expressing grammatical accuracy, sentence structure, and certainty when responding. To facilitate communication and support S5's participation, the teacher applied IPSs that have been well-documented in the literature. These strategies played an essential role in scaffolding the S15's language production and ensuring the conversation continued smoothly despite grammatical challenges. Through these strategies, the teacher successfully guided the S5 toward self-repair, creating a supportive learning environment that allowed for linguistic clarification, resolution of grammar issues, and active participation.

The conversation began with the teacher repeatedly asking S5 whether they knew the difference between a hotel and a hostel, trying various ways to elicit a response (lines 1-6). These lines set the context and established the communicative goal of the interaction. S5 responded by saying *"don't sure,"*, as S5 attempted to answer but lacked grammatical accuracy and confidence (line 7). Recognizing the error, the teacher immediately provided the correct form *"not sure"* and explicitly explained the mistake by saying *"not I don't sure, I am not sure,"* which served as a repair to address the grammatical issue (line 8). Following the teacher's correction, S5 acknowledged the correction and successfully reformulated the sentence by saying *"okay, I'm not sure,"* (line 9). Finally, the teacher responded with *"yeah::: okay:: ((0.2))good:::"* which functioned as an understanding, acknowledging S5's effort and signaling positive-reinforcement that the conversation could move forward (line 10).

This extract was successful because the teacher transformed a grammatical mistake into a valuable learning moment. By providing clear corrective feedback and modeling the correct form, the teacher guided the student from an inaccurate response

to a confident, accurate sentence. The student's ability to self-correct after receiving support showed active engagement and growing awareness of grammatical structure. The teacher's positive-reinforcement and acknowledgment further encouraged participation, ensuring the interaction ended positively. This exchange highlights how explicit correction, combined with encouragement, can build accuracy, confidence, and motivation in language learning.

4.3.1.3 Linguistic Vocabulary (LV)

Vocabulary-related difficulties often prompted the use of a range of IPSs, including guessing (GS), prompting (PT), clarification (CRF), and translanguaging (TLG). These strategies played a crucial role in facilitating comprehension and sustaining communication when lexical gaps emerged during classroom interaction. Extract E(5) offers a compelling example of how such challenges can be effectively navigated through the combined use of both literature-based IPSs and context-specific adaptations.

Extract E(5) [P:19.7.24.W3] (Transcript lines 1202-1220)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	GS: Guessing	RPD: Responding
CRF: Clarification	TLG: Translanguaging	NVB: Non-verbal
RPT: Repetition	BCC: Backchanelling Cue	PT: Prompting
PR: Positive-Reinforcement	ECR Encouragement	

1→	T:	Dom ? ↑why haven't you an↑swered?	PI (Self-DAH, PT)
2		what's the answer ? facility ?	
3→	S2:	fish ?	R (Other-RPD) & (Self-GS)
4→	T:	fish ?	PI (Self-RPD) & (Other-RPT)
5→	S3:	kruang am nauy kwam sa dauk me a rai bang ?	R (Other-CRF, TLG, NVB)
6		me sa nam ?	
7→	S1:	gym , air conditioner ?	R (Self-RPD, GS)
8→	T:	that's not a facility , that's an amenity , yes::: ?	R (Other-CRF, PT)
9		what's your answer ?	
10→	S2:	pool ?	R (Self-RPD)
11→	T:	pool ? it's already pool::	R (Other-RPT, CRF, ECR)
12		(0.3) ↑they already gave you the ans↑wer	

13 you did not hear , keep going:::

14→ S2: hh::: gym ? R (Self-BCC, GS)

15→ T: wow:: keng mak mak loei:: , yes , gym:: U (Other-PR, TLG, NVB, CRF, RPT)

16 gym:: ((0.2)) so, gym ? and fitness center ?

17 is also the same:: , is also the same:: okay ?

18 do not say fitness center gym

19 it is the same , either you say gym or fitness center

In this classroom interaction, the teacher and the students engaged in a discussion focused on identifying examples of *"facilities"* to develop vocabulary knowledge and clarify word usage. The teacher aimed to encourage participation and check S2's understanding by asking for answers related to the meaning of *"facility."* Throughout the interaction, S2 faced challenges in understanding the word and finding appropriate answers. The conversation demonstrated a typical learning situation where S2 encountered linguistic difficulties and uncertainty in vocabulary use. To address these challenges, the teacher employed several strategies to scaffold learning. The students attempted to engage and support each other as peers, showing their struggles and efforts to arrive at the correct answers with the teacher's guidance.

The teacher began the interaction by calling on Dom and questioning why he had not responded, which indicated that a response was expected from S2 (line 1). The teacher continued prompting by directly asking for an answer and providing the word *"facility"* as a hint to guide S2's response (line 2). In response, S2 hesitantly guessed *"fish?"* which suggested uncertainty and a lack of understanding regarding the question's meaning (line 3). The teacher then repeated *"fish?"* with questioning intonation, signalling doubt about the appropriateness of the answer (line 4). At this point, S3 provided peer support by using Thai to clarify the meaning of *"facility"* by using translanguaging *("kruang am nauy kwam sa dauk"* in Thai, meaning *"facility"*), and restating the teacher's question, effectively assisting S2 in understanding what was being asked. S3 continued by mentioning ("me a rai bang? me sa nam ?" in Thai, meaning *"What things are there?" "Is there a pool?"*) as a possible example, reinforcing the explanation (lines 5-6). S1 then contributed further peer support by suggesting examples such as *"gym"* and *"air conditioner,"* which aligned more accurately with the concept of a facility (line 7). The teacher responded

and clarified that these were amenities rather than facilities, encouraging S2 to refine the understanding (line 8). The teacher then redirected the question, further prompting S2 to find the correct answer (line 9). S2 attempted another guess by saying *"pool?"*, demonstrating continued uncertainty (line 10). The teacher repeated "pool?" and pointed out that it had already been mentioned, reinforcing the need for a different response (line 11). The teacher then reminded S2 that the correct answer had already been given and that S2 might not have heard it, emphasizing attentiveness to prior responses and offering encouragement to help S2 stay engaged in the conversation (lines 12-13). S2 hesitated but then attempted to answer again, saying *"gym?"* as guessing, which suggested an effort to recall a previous response (line 14). The teacher responded positively, using Thai to compliment S2 by saying *"เก่งมาก wow, keng mak mak loei"*, in Thai, meaning *"*very good*"*, which praised S2's persistence in arriving at the correct answer (line 15). The teacher further reinforced the correct response by elaborating that *"gym"* and *"fitness center"* were interchangeable terms (lines 16-17). To ensure clarity, the teacher emphasized that students should not use *"fitness center gym"* together but should choose one of the terms (lines 18-19).

This extract was successful because the teacher and students worked collaboratively to resolve a vocabulary-related difficulty and sustain the flow of communication. The teacher used prompting and clarification to guide the student toward the target concept, while peers offered support through explanations and examples, even drawing on Thai to aid understanding. The student's initial guesses showed uncertainty, but with encouragement and scaffolding, he was able to arrive at the correct answer. The teacher reinforced this success by praising the effort, clarifying related terms, and ensuring accurate usage. This process not only strengthened the student's vocabulary knowledge but also fostered active participation and confidence. Overall, the interaction demonstrated how supportive dialogue, peer collaboration, and teacher mediation can transform a moment of confusion into a constructive learning opportunity.

Some linguistic vocabulary issues were also effectively resolved by consistently using most IPSs already established in the literature, as demonstrated in Extract E(6).

Extract E(6) [P:6.9.24.W10] (Transcript lines 270-290)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	GS: Guessing	PT: Prompting
RPD: Responding	RPT: Repetition	CRF: Clarification
PR: Positive-Reinforcement	RTV: Retrieval	BCC: Backchanelling Cue

1→	T:	next one is hotel clerk::	
2		what is another name for hotel clerk ?	PI (Self-DAH)
3→	S12:	hotel ? @	R (Other-GS)
4→	T:	@ hotel technically , yes::	R (Self-RPD, PT)
5		but there's another term for that one	
6→	S12:	room service ?	R (Other-GS)
7→	T:	no::: not room service	PI (Self-PT) & (Other-CRF)
8		what do you call a hotel clerk	
9		when you are at the front ?	
10→	S12:	receptioner casher ?	R (Other-GS)
11→	T:	no::: again:::?	PI (Self-RPD)
12→	S12:	is it reception:: ?	R (Other-GS)
13→	T:	again:: ?	PI (Self-RPT, RPD)
14→	S12:	reception:: ? [ah::]	R (Other-GS, BCC)
15→	T:	[again::] reception:: what ?	PI (Self-RPT, RPD)
16→	S12:	re::: , re::: , ah::: ↑or::: receptionist	R (Other-RPD) & (Self-RPT, BCC, RTV)
17→	T:	receptionist:: ↑good ↑job	U (Self-RPT) & (Other-RPT, CRF, PR)
18		receptionist , there's also receptionist	
19		and you can also call a FRONT desk clerk	
20		FRONT desk , FRONT desk , it's FRONT desk	
21		okay , receptionist or FRONT desk clerk::	

Extract E(6) highlights building S12s' linguistic vocabulary, particularly by introducing and clarifying professional terms such as *"hotel clerk," "receptionist,"* and *"front desk clerk."* The teacher used various strategies, including direct appeal for help, prompting, clarification, and repetition, to guide S12 toward discovering alternative vocabulary and understanding its appropriate usage. The interaction highlighted the importance of expanding S12s' vocabulary repertoire to include synonyms and context-specific terms, which were essential for effective

communication in real-world settings. Through this activity, the teacher not only introduced new words but also ensured the correct application in meaningful contexts, supporting both comprehension and practical language use.

The teacher introduced the next topic by mentioning *"hotel clerk"* and asked the class for another term that could be used for a hotel clerk (lines 1-2). S12 hesitantly responded with *"hotel ?,"* showing uncertainty (line 3). The teacher responded and confirmed it was technically correct but explained that another term was more appropriate (lines 4-5). S12 made another attempt, suggesting *"room service ?,"* as a possible answer (line 6). The teacher rejected this suggestion, clarified it was incorrect, and provided further guidance by asking what the term would be when referring to someone at the front of a hotel (lines 7-9). S12 responded with another guess, saying *"receptioner casher ?,"* which was again incorrect (line 10). The teacher responded and prompted S12 to try again (line 11). S12 guessed *"reception ?"* next (line 12). The teacher encouraged further clarification and prompted S12 to elaborate (line 13). S12 repeated *"reception ?"* but with hesitation, showing some uncertainty (line 14). The teacher urged S12 to clarify further, asking for more detail (line 15). Finally, S12 arrived at the correct term, *"receptionist,"* after several hesitations and repetitions (line 16). The teacher praised the response, saying *"good job,"* and expanded on the answer by explaining that *"receptionist"* could also be referred to as *"front desk clerk"* (lines 17-21).

This extract was successful because the teacher guided S12 from uncertainty to discovering the correct term, *receptionist*, while also expanding their vocabulary with *front desk clerk*. By prompting multiple attempts and clarifying errors, the teacher kept S12 engaged and persistent rather than discouraged.

Positive-reinforcement and praise at the moment of success validated S12's effort, creating a positive learning atmosphere that encouraged risk-taking. The teacher enriched the exchange by adding synonyms and real-world usage, giving the student greater communicative flexibility.

Overall, the interaction showed how constructive feedback, encouragement, and step-by-step guidance can transform uncertainty into a meaningful learning

opportunity, leaving the student more confident and better prepared for authentic communication.

4.3.2 Resolving Interactional Issues

Interactional difficulties arose from sources beyond linguistic error, including mishearing, unclear referents, and incomplete discourse. IPSs such as clarification (CRF), backchanneling (BCC), repair (RP), and prompting (PT) played critical roles in restoring understanding.

4.3.2.1 Interactional Mishearing (IM)

Extract E(7) presents a clear example of how the strategic integration of IPSs can effectively address and resolve a mishearing problem during classroom interaction. In this instance, the coordinated use of IPSs not only facilitated clarification and meaning negotiation but also contributed to maintaining the continuity of communicative flow. By collaboratively managing the breakdown in understanding, both the teacher and the students were able to restore mutual comprehension and keep the conversation on track. This extract underscores the pedagogical value of IPSs in supporting real-time problem-solving and fostering a communicative environment where misunderstandings are viewed as opportunities for learning and interaction.

Extract E(7) [P:20.9.24.W12] (Transcript lines 1070-1080)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	BCC: Backchanelling Cue	CRF: Clarification
RPT: Repetition	AKL: Acknowledgement	ECR: Encouragement
PR: Positive-Reinforcement	RP: Repair	RTV: Retrieval

1→	S27:	can you tell me ?	PI (Self-DAH)
2		if there's a ° tricycle ° store near here ?	
3→	S29:	ah:: (0.2) you need ° bicycle ° ?	PI (Other-BCC, CRF)
4→	T:	huh:: bicycle ?	PI (Other-BCC, CRF, RPT)
5→	S27:	TRI:: TRI:: ↑tricycle ,	R (Self-RPT, RP, RTV) & (Other-CRF)
6→	T:	tricycle ↑wow:: hh:: okay , good:: say again ?	R (Other-RPT, BCC, AKL, ECR)
7→	S27:	can you tell me ?	R (Self-DAH, RPT)
8		if there's a tricycle store near here ?	

9→ S29: a tricycle store , near here R (Other-RPT, CRF)

10 sorry , I have no idea::

11→ T: very good , thank you so much U (Other-PR, AKL)

In this classroom interaction, the conversation took place between two students and the teacher, focusing on a request for information about a *"tricycle store."* The students were engaged in practicing how to ask for directions or inquire about places, which is an essential skill for real-life communication. The interaction began when S27 asked a question, aiming to gather information, but faced difficulty in being understood. The teacher and S29 collaboratively engaged in helping S27 clarify and restate the question. Throughout the exchange, the teacher and peer worked together to ensure that the intended meaning was understood and to maintain a smooth conversational flow. This interaction reflected a natural classroom discourse where students encountered challenges with pronunciation, word recognition, and meaning clarification while the teacher created an opportunity for negotiation of meaning and peer-supported learning.

The conversation began when S27 initiated a question by asking for information about a nearby tricycle store (lines 1-2). However, S27 spoke in a low voice in line 2, which caused S29 and the teacher to have difficulty hearing and understanding the question properly. This led S29 to seek clarification by asking if S27 meant a bicycle instead, showing some uncertainty about the word choice (line 3). The teacher also joined in to confirm whether *"bicycle"* was the intended word, reflecting the shared uncertainty and the need for clarification (line 4). As a result, S27 repeated the word *"tricycle"* in the next turn to emphasize what they were asking for and to make their intended meaning clearer (line 5). The teacher acknowledged this clarification with encouragement and asked S27 to repeat the question, indicating an effort to reinforce the word and check pronunciation (line 6). S27 then restated the full question, again asking for the location of a tricycle store, showing persistence in making S29 understood (lines 7-8). S29 repeated part of the question to check understanding and then admitted not knowing the answer, which showed an attempt to process the question and respond appropriately (lines 9-10). Finally, the teacher

concluded the interaction by praising both students, acknowledging their efforts and participation in the exchange (line 11).

This extract provides a clear example of how a mishearing problem in classroom interaction can be effectively managed and resolved. Instead of allowing the misunderstanding to block communication, the teacher and students worked together to clarify meaning and restore comprehension. This collaborative effort ensured that the conversation remained on track and created opportunities for pronunciation practice, repetition, and confidence building. The extract highlights how communication challenges can be reframed as valuable learning opportunities, fostering both problem-solving skills and a supportive classroom environment.

In addition to Extract E(7), Extract E(8) further illustrates how IPSs were successfully employed to negotiate meaning, clarify misunderstandings, and achieve effective communication. Through strategies, the teacher and student collaboratively worked to resolve issues of mishearing, sustaining the conversational flow, and creating opportunities for language learning.

Extract E(8) [P:23.8.24.W8] (Transcript lines 240-259)

PT: Prompting	RPD : Responding	CRF: Clarification
RPT: Repetition	DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	GS: Guessing
RPS: Rephrasing	UFL: Use of Fillers	RP: Repair
RTV: Retrieval	AKL: Acknowledgment	

1→	T:	any other store ?	
2		we have Uniqlo in Central Plaza:::	
3		what else ? >yes<	PI (Self-PT, DAH)
4→	S26:	° Playboy:: ° /ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/	R (Other-RPD)
5→	T:	again >please< ?	PI (Self-RPD)
6→	S26:	° Playboy:: ° /ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/	R (Other-RPT)
7→	T:	Playban /ˈpleɪ.bɑːn/? <@>Playban:: /ˈpleɪ.bɑːn/ </@>	PI (Self-GS, DAH, RPT)
8		what's the name again ? name ?	
9→	S26:	Un	R (Other-RPD)
10→	T:	hh::: >no<what ? , what's the name of the store ?	PI (Self-RPS, UFL)
11→	S26:	Playboy:::. /ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/	R (Other-RPD) & (Self-RPT)

12→ T: hu::h:: ? Playban /ˈpleɪ.bɑːn/ ? in:: in:: in:: PI (Self-UFL, GS, RTV)
13 in Central Plaza:: ? okay:: I will search that one::: Un ?
14→ S26: yes::. R (Other-RPD)
15→ T: what do they sell in Play-Playban /ˈpleɪ. bɑːn/ ? PI (Self-RPT) & (Other-CRF)
16→ S26: boy:: , boy:: , Playboy , Playboy /ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/ R (Other-RP) & (Self-RPT, RTV)
17→ T: ah::: yes::: , Playboy::: /ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/ , >yes< U (Self-RP, AKL, UFL)
18 have Playboy /ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/ in Central Plaza:::
19 there's a Playboy /ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/ ?
20 ↑AH::: I didn't KNOW:::. I should GO::::@

In Extract E(8), the interaction occurred during a vocabulary lesson where the teacher introduced the word *"boutique,"* explaining it as a store selling dresses. The teacher aimed to expand S26's vocabulary by encouraging S26 to name other types of stores and describe the store's function. However, interactional mishearing became a central challenge in this extract. The teacher misheard S26's repeated attempt to say *"Playboy,"* leading to the collaborative use of IPSs; the teacher and S26 worked to negotiate meaning and resolve the misunderstanding, highlighting the dynamic communication process in language learning.

The teacher initiated the interaction by prompting S26 to name another store, setting the context for vocabulary expansion (lines 1-3). S26 responded by naming a store with a soft voice, but the teacher did not clearly understand the response (line 4). The teacher responded by requesting clarification to elicit repetition (line 5). S26 repeated the earlier response in a soft voice again, making it difficult to understand; again, the teacher misheard it as *"Playboy"* and attempted to confirm this interpretation (line 7). The teacher further clarified by asking for confirmation of the intended name (line 8). S26 misunderstood the question as asking for the name, leading to an ambiguous response of *"Un"* (line 9). To resolve the misunderstanding, the teacher explicitly rephrased the question to clarify that the teacher asked for the store's name (line 10). S26 repeated *"Playboy"* with clearer emphasis, which clarified the misunderstanding (line 11). The teacher hesitated, used filler, and incorrectly guessed again, signaling another attempt to verify the response (line 12). The teacher acknowledged S26's tentative response (line 13), and S26 responded to confirm the signal agreement (line 14). The teacher then asked for additional details about the

store to enhance understanding (line 15). S26 provided a detailed response, which corrected the teacher's misunderstanding and used repair, repetition, and retrieval to clarify and emphasize the response, aiding S26 to bridge the communication gap despite the response being softly spoken and somewhat unclear (line 16). The teacher fully acknowledged S26's clarification and contextualized it by reinforcing the correct term (line 18). Finally, the teacher concluded the interaction humorously, ensuring mutual understanding and marking the closure of the exchange (lines 19-20).

This exchange was successful because the teacher persisted in seeking clarification while keeping the student engaged, and S26 remained committed to making themselves understood. The step-by-step negotiation of meaning not only resolved the mishearing but also strengthened the student's confidence and ability to persist through communication difficulties. Ultimately, the interaction turned a breakdown into a learning opportunity, reinforcing vocabulary knowledge, encouraging active participation, and maintaining a supportive, humorous, and engaging classroom atmosphere.

4.3.2.2 Interactional Reference (IR)

Extract E(9) presents a successful example of how an interactional reference issue was effectively managed within classroom discourse, thereby maintaining communicative coherence and flow.

Extract E(9) [P:20.9.24.W12] (Transcript lines 993-1013)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	RPD: Responding	RP: Repair
MDL: Modeling	RPT: Repetition	CFM: Confirmation
TLG: Translanguaging	NVB: Non-verbal	CRF: Clarification
BCC: Backchanelling Cue	AKL: Acknowledgment	UFL: Use of Fillers
PR: Positive-Reinforcement	SCF: Scaffolding	ECR: Encouragement

1→ S9: hello:: sis:::

2→ S6: okay:::: hi::::

3→ S9: can you tell me where is the pharmacy store ? PI (Self-DAH)

4→ S6: ↑oh actually , I don't know , I'm so sorry:: R (Other-RPD)

5→ S9: can you tell me [if...] ? PI (Self-DAH)

6→	T:	[do you] know ?	R (Other-RP, MDL)
7→	S9:	do you- do you know ? pai leaw:::	R (Self-RP, RPT, CFM, TLG, NVB)
8→	T:	no , you said can you tell me	R (Other-RP, CRF, RPT, MDL, BCC)
9		you have to say:::	
10		can you tell me, and do you know ?	
11		>can< hm.. then do you?	
12→	S6:	you said ya- you said can you tell me already	R (Other-CRF, RPT)
13→	S9:	oh , okay::	R (Self-AKL)
14→	T:	do you….? then what ? =	R (Other-SCF, RPT, ECR)
15		go on, you're almost ↑there	
16→	S9:	= do you know hm..the prices ?	R (Self-RP, UFL, RPT, DAH)
17		(0.3) do you know:: how much the taxi is ?	
18→	S6:	hm:: it's $20 @ , it is a taxi in Dubai @	R (Other-BCC, CRF)
19→	S9:	↑oh my god::: , I don't have money	U (Self-AKL, UFL)
20→	T:	↑wow:: it's expensive @	U (Other-BCC, PR)
21		that's a funny and good answer ↑well done	

In this classroom interaction, the conversation occurred between two students and the teacher, focusing on practicing how to ask for directions and inquire about places. The students were engaged in a speaking activity that required them to formulate questions about specific locations, such as a pharmacy. This communicative activity aimed to provide students with authentic opportunities to use English in real-life situations. However, during the exchange, S9 encountered difficulties in constructing appropriate question forms, which led to interactional negotiation involving both the teacher and another student, S6. Throughout the interaction, participants referred back to previous utterances to clarify meaning and adjust the sentence forms, showing the use of interactional reference to sustain communication and support learning. The teacher actively facilitated the conversation by offering corrective feedback, modeling appropriate expressions, and guiding S9 to improve the question, while S6 contributed by clarifying and responding to S9's attempts, enabling collaborative meaning-making in the classroom.

The interaction began when S9 greeted S6 with a casual opening, saying *"hello sis"* (line 1), and S6 responded with a friendly reply (line 2). S9 then asked,

"can you tell me where is the pharmacy store?" attempting to ask for directions but using an incorrect question form (line 3). S6 politely answered that she did not know, apologizing for being unable to help (line 4). S9 attempted to reformulate the question by starting again with *"can you tell me if..."* but left it unfinished (line 5). At this point, the teacher provided a model by suggesting that S9 should begin the sentence properly by using *"do you know,"* highlighting that when asking a question like *"where is the pharmacy store,"* S9 needed to start from the beginning to make a complete and natural sentence, not just inserting *"can you tell me"* without proper structure (line 6). S9 tried to adopt this suggestion but struggled to form a complete sentence, saying "do you- do you know? pai leaw," where *"pai leaw"* in Thai means *"already said,"* indicating that S9 thought she had already used *"do you know?"* earlier, though she actually had not (line 7). This shows an interactional reference because S9 referred back to her own earlier attempt at phrasing the question, although she was mistaken about what she had said. The teacher addressed this misunderstanding by pointing out that S9 had originally used *"can you tell me"* and repeated it to clarify what was said (line 8). The teacher then provided explicit instruction, explaining that both *"can you tell me"* and *"do you know"* are acceptable forms but need to be used correctly, and modeled both forms for S9 to hear and compare (lines 9-11). S6 also helped clarify by reminding S9 that she had already said *"can you tell me"* (line 12), which further illustrates the use of interactional reference to prior turns for understanding. S9 acknowledged this clarification by saying *"oh, okay"* (line 13). The teacher then encouraged S9 to continue the sentence by prompting with *"do you...? then what?"* (lines 14-15). S9 attempted to apply this model by asking *"do you know hm...the prices?"* (line 16) and followed up with a clearer question, "*do you know how much the taxi is?"* showing improvement (line 17). S6 responded by giving the answer, stating *"$20"* and connecting it to a real context by adding *"it is a taxi in Dubai"* and also laughed, showing her engagement and enjoyment of the interaction (line 18). S9 reacted naturally to the information with an exclamation, *"oh my god, I don't have money,"* expressing surprise (line 19). Finally, the teacher responded enthusiastically, acknowledging S9's response as a good, funny answer and praising the effort with *"well done"* (lines 20-21).

Extract E(9) was successful because the teacher and students collaboratively managed referential misunderstandings by revisiting earlier utterances, clarifying meaning, and modeling accurate question forms. The teacher's scaffolding and encouragement, combined with S6's supportive contributions, enabled S9 to move from incomplete and inaccurate questions to clearer, more natural ones. This process not only resolved the immediate communication issue but also turned the interaction into a meaningful learning opportunity, building S9's confidence and strengthening her ability to use English spontaneously in real-life contexts.

Extract E(10) further demonstrates how IPSs were effectively used to facilitate meaningful negotiation, address misunderstandings, and ensure successful communication. By employing these strategies, the teacher and student worked together to overcome interactional reference issues, maintain the flow of conversation, and create meaningful language practice and learning opportunities.

Extract E(10) [P:20.9.24.W12] (Transcript lines 112-125)

BCC: Backchanelling Cue CRF: Clarification RPT: Repetition
TLG: Translanguaging NVB: Non-verbal RPS: Rephasing
AKL: Acknowledgment

1→	S23:	no YELlow:: ?	PI (Self-CRF)
2→	T:	↑really::::? mai me YELlow:::..?	PI (Other-RPT, TLG, NVB)
3→	S23:	↑ bor me YELlow:: YELlow:: ↑kha:::	R (Self-CRF, RPT, TLG, NVB)
4→	T:	↑bor ↑me yellow::: ?	PI (Other-CRF, RPT) & (Self-TLG, NVB)
5		paeb neang na kha , I check na::	
6→	S11:	me tea ORange	R (Self-CRF, TLG, NVB)
7→	T:	me ORange bor ? paeb neang na kha.	PI (Other-CRF, TLG, NVB, RPT, RPS)
8		I check kon:: , check kon::	
9		wait, let me check , really ?	
10		I really make sure::: don't have yellow ?	
11		yellow at the last ?	
12→	S23:	it's final to the total::::	R (Self-CRF)
13→	T:	yeah , final total::.↑oh , not yellow::	U (Other-RPT, BCC, AKL)
14		sorry, my bad , not yellow::	(Politeness apology)

Extract E(10) occurred during a classroom interaction where the teacher referred to her grading process. The teacher mentioned that grades were highlighted in yellow to make them visually distinguishable. However, S23 pointed out the absence of yellow in the grades and expressed confusion, as only orange highlights were present. This initiated a negotiation process where the teacher and students worked collaboratively to resolve the misunderstanding. S11 later clarified that orange highlights referred to the findings, not the grades, ultimately helping to sort the issue. This conversation demonstrates interactional reference, as the teacher consistently referred to her earlier statement about the yellow highlights, and the student-built on this information to clarify the discrepancy and reach a mutual understanding.

In this interaction, S23 initially expressed confusion about the absence of yellow and sought clarification from the teacher (line 1). The teacher responded with a surprised tone, questioning the lack of yellow and repeating the query for verification using translanguaging in Thai Language and non-verbal, saying, *"mai me YELlow:::..?"* , Thai means *"no yellow?"* (line 2). S23 confirmed the absence again, emphasizing the word and adding a polite tone by responding in Isan and English language: *"↑bor me YELlow:: YELlow:: ↑kha:::",* in Isan means *"no yellow"* (line 3). The teacher reiterated the question by repeating S23's response and again using translanguaging and non-verbal cues to ensure clarity while indicating their intention to verify the issue: *"↑bor ↑me yellow:::? paeb neang na kha, I check na::,"* meaning *"no yellow? Please wait, let me check"*. The teacher further reassured the students of their intent to verify the details (lines 4-5). S11 contributed by pointing out that orange, rather than yellow, was present, also using the Isan language (line 6). The teacher followed up by confirming the information about the orange and assured further investigation, once again using translanguaging and non-verbal (line 7). They verbalized their commitment to reviewing the details carefully and asked the students for patience (lines 8-9). The teacher continued emphasizing their intention to verify, questioning whether yellow appeared at any final stage (lines 10-11). Finally, S23 clarified that yellow referred to the final total, resolving the misunderstanding (line 12). The teacher acknowledged the correction, apologized for the mistake, and

expressed politeness, fostering a supportive and collaborative environment (lines 13-14) (see Appendix F, field note 3).

Extract E(10) was successful because the teacher and students collaboratively resolved a misunderstanding about grading highlights through clarification, repetition, and reframing. The teacher skillfully balanced verification with reassurance, using translanguaging, non-verbal cues, and polite apologies to maintain trust and clarity, while students actively contributed by pointing out discrepancies and refining the explanation. This negotiation not only resolved the referential confusion but also fostered a supportive and inclusive atmosphere where learners felt comfortable questioning and clarifying. Ultimately, the interaction turned a moment of confusion into an opportunity for shared meaning-making, reinforcing both communicative flow and student engagement.

4.3.2.3 Interactional Discourse (ID)

In classroom settings, interactional discourse plays a crucial role in facilitating language learning as teachers and students collaboratively engage in meaning-making processes. Interactional discourse also reflects the dynamic and collaborative nature of classroom talk, where participants actively engage to resolve misunderstandings and ensure mutual comprehension. In this context, Extract E(11) serves as a clear example of interactional discourse, showing how the teacher and S6 engaged in the negotiation of meaning and mutual support by using IPSs to achieve effective communication and learning outcomes.

Extract E(11) [P:26.7.24. W4] (Transcript lines 40-54)

UFL: Use of Fillers	NVB: Non-verbal	CRF: Clarification
RPT: Repetition	MDL: Modeling	ECR: Encouragement
TLG: Translanguaging	RP: Repair	AKL: Acknowledgment
PR: Positive-Reinforcement		

1→	T:	↑aham:: aham:: aham::: ham:::	PI (Self-UFL, RPT)
2		↑aham:: ↑aham:: ham::: ham:::	
3		↑hm:: ↑hm:: hm::: hm:::	
4→	S6:	@ I'm sorry::: I'm late	R (Other-NVB, RPD)
5→	T:	[<@>↑no ↑no ↑no::: ↑not ↑what ? </@>]	PI (Self-RPT, CRF)

6→	Ss: [/@/@/]	R (Other-NVB)
7→	T: I'm sorry teacher- (0.3)	R (Self-RPT, RP) & (Other-MDL)
8	I'm sorry teacher, I'm late.	
9	[May I come in, please?]	
10→	S6: [<@>I'm sorry:::] I'm late</@>	R (Other-RPT, RP)
11→	T: <@> ao mai , ao mai:: again:: </@>	R (Self-RPT) & (Other-ECR, TLG, NVB)
12→	S6: I'm sorry teacher , I am late:::	R (Other-RPT) & (Self-RP, RPT)
13	may I come in, please ?	
14→	T: very ↑good::: , okay , thank you , sit down	U (Self-AKL) & (Other-PR)
15	move over here in the ↑front	

In this classroom interaction, interactional discourse was evident as the teacher and students engaged in a real-time conversation focusing on appropriate classroom language, specifically how to ask for permission to enter the classroom when late. This communicative exchange was part of a speaking activity that aimed to encourage students to use polite requests and apologies in English, which are commonly used in everyday school settings. The teacher and students co-constructed understanding and worked together to achieve accurate language production through ongoing negotiation of meaning, turn-taking, and collaborative repair.

The interaction began when the teacher hesitated and used fillers such as *"aham"* and *"hm"* while attempting to manage the situation and think of how to guide S6 (lines 1-3). S6 responded with laughter, signaling possible nervousness or uncertainty in reaction to the teacher's hesitation (line 4). The teacher then sought clarification and showed some frustration or urgency to redirect S6, saying *"no, no, no::: not what?"* as a way to push S6 toward giving the expected response (line 5). Other students also joined in with laughter, reflecting the shared recognition of the situation among classmates (line 6). After that, the teacher provided a full model of what S6 was expected to say, beginning with *"I'm sorry teacher, I'm late. May I come in, please?"* to give a clear example of appropriate language use (lines 7-9). S6 attempted to repeat part of this modeled sentence, though incompletely, managing to say *"I'm sorry, I'm late"* (line 10). The teacher encouraged S6 to try again by saying *"ao mai, ao mai,* in Thai, which meant *"again,"* using a mix of Thai and English to offer gentle prompting and support (line 11). S6 then successfully repaired and

completed the sentence more fully: *"I'm sorry teacher, I am late. May I come in, please?"* showing progress in producing the correct form (lines 12-13). The teacher praised S6 by saying *"very good, okay, thank you, sit down,"* providing positive-reinforcement and acknowledgment of the effort (line 14). Finally, the teacher instructed S6 to move to the front of the class, signaling the closing of the interaction (line 15).

This interaction was successful because the teacher guided S6 step by step from hesitation to producing a complete and polite request. Through modeling, prompting, and encouragement, the teacher turned uncertainty into a learning opportunity. Praise and positive-reinforcement further built S6's confidence, while the collaborative exchange ensured progress in both language accuracy and classroom engagement. Extract E(12) further exemplifies this case with interactional discourse.

Extract E(12) [P:6.9.24. W10] (Transcript lines 405-436)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	CRF: Clarification	RPT: Repetition
RPD: Responding	RP: Repair	UFL: Use of Fillers
RTV: Retrieval	RPS: Rephasing	PT: Prompting
MAB: Message Abandonment	BCC: Backchanneling Cue	AKL: Acknowledgment

1→	S28:	hi:: I'm a restaurant manager	PI (Self-PT)
2		what would you like to order::?	
3→	T:	ah:: yes:: I heard that	R (Other-BCC, CRF)
4		tomorrow you're going to give free pizza	
5		if we get a table =	
6→	S28:	= a table =	R (Self-RPD) & (Other-RPT)
7→	T:	= yes:::. =	R (Other-RPD)
8→	S28:	= yes:::. (0.2)	PI (Self-UFL, RTV, RPT)
9		I am:: er:: I could:: I can:: , [I can for::.]	
10→	T:	[you can] what for me ?	PI (Other-CRF)
11→	S28:	for:: for you:: , [for you]	R (Self-RPT, RTV)
12→	T:	[you can] what ?	PI (Other-CRF)
13→	S28:	(0.7) can for:: for:: I don't know @	PI (Self-RTV, RPT, MAB)
14→	T:	tomorrow you have an event	R (Other-RPS, CRF)

15		you're giving FREE pizza	
16		if we get a spot tomorrow	
17→	S28:	um::: um::: spot ?	PI (Self-UFL, RPT, CRF)
18→	T:	↑yes::: , if you- , if I can get a spot tomorrow	R (Other-CRF) & (Self-RP, RPS)
19		I can get the free pizza	
20→	S28:	you mean in the restaurant ?	PI (Self-CRF)
21→	T:	yes:: , in your restaurant	R (Other-CRF)
22→	S28:	restaurant ? (0.5) um:: restaurant ?	PI (Self- RPT, UFL, CRF)
23		(0.3) I will give a pizza for you ?	
24→	T:	ah::: yes::: do you have a table for me ?	PI (Other-BCC, DAH)
25		I need to reserve a table , for tomorrow:::	
26→	S28:	you need table ? tomorrow ?	PI (Self-CRF)
27→	T:	right:::: for free pizza	PI (Other-CRF, DAH) & (Self-RPS)
28		can you reserve a table for me ?	
29→	S28:	yes:: I will:: , I can:: I can reserve for you	U (Self-RTV, RPT, CRF)
30→	T:	thank you so much:: , bye:::	U (Self-AKL: Polite farewell)
31→	S28:	you are welcome:: , bye:: bye:::	U (Self-AKL: Polite farewell)

In Extract E(12), the teacher and S28 participated in a role-play exercise where S28 acted as a restaurant manager, and the teacher assumed the role of a customer. This activity aimed to simulate a realistic service interaction, encouraging both participants to use conversational strategies such as clarification, repetition, and acknowledgment. This role-play created a natural setting for interactional discourse as both participants navigated through communication challenges, negotiated to mean, took overlapping turns to clarify information, and maintained the flow of the conversation. The exercise emphasized the dynamic nature of spoken interaction, with both speaker and listener contributing to the discourse.

The interaction began with S28 introducing the restaurant as S28 was a manager offering assistance and prompting the teacher to provide specific information, creating the context for the discussion (lines 1-2). The teacher acknowledged and referenced the free pizza promotion the next day, explaining the interest in getting a table (lines 3-5). S28 repeated the word *"table,"* likely to confirm the understanding of the teacher's inquiry (line 6). The teacher affirmed this

understanding by reiterating *"yes"* (line 7), and S28 hesitated briefly before responding with fragmented speech, showing difficulty expressing (lines 8-9). The teacher, noticing this, asked for clarification to guide S28 toward completing the sentence (line 10). S28 attempted to clarify by repeating *"for you,"* but the response remained incomplete and unclear (line 11). The teacher pressed further for clarification, asking, *"you can what ?"* to encourage a more specific response (line 12). S28 struggled, admitting uncertainty with fragmented and hesitant speech, reflecting the challenge of articulating the idea and attempting to respond but failing to complete the message by *"saying I don't know"* (line 13). The teacher redirected the conversation by reiterating the details of the free pizza promotion and emphasizing the need for a spot to help clarify the situation (lines 14-16). S28 appeared confused about the term *"spot,"* repeating it with hesitation, which indicated the word was unfamiliar with its usage (line 17). The teacher confirmed the term and elaborated further on the request, specifying the teacher's intent to secure a spot for free pizza (lines 18-19). S28 sought clarification by asking whether the teacher meant a table in the restaurant (line 20), to which the teacher affirmed and added more detail to ensure mutual understanding (line 21). Despite this, S28 repeated the word *"restaurant"* with hesitation, showing ongoing uncertainty (line 22). S28 then tentatively suggested, *"give a pizza for you ?,"* which showed an attempt to confirm understanding of the teacher's request (line 23). The teacher responded positively but redirected the conversation to explicitly ask about reserving a table, clarifying the intention (lines 24-25). S28 echoed the need for a table but with some uncertainty, repeating, *"you need a table? tomorrow?"* as S28 processed the information (line 26). The teacher confirmed again and rephrased the request for emphasis, clarifying the situation (lines 27-28). This led S28 to confidently state that S28 could reserve a table for the teacher, showing improved comprehension and communication (line 29). The teacher thanked S28 and ended the conversation politely (line 30), to which S28 responded with a polite farewell, signaling the successful resolution of the interaction (line 31).

This interaction was successful because the role-play created an authentic and engaging context where the teacher guided S28 from hesitation and fragmented speech toward producing clear and complete responses. Through modeling,

clarification, and persistence, the teacher helped S28 overcome difficulties with vocabulary and expression while keeping the conversation natural and purposeful. The process not only improved S28's confidence in managing a service encounter but also highlighted the value of guided practice, patience, and mutual support in achieving effective communication.

4.3.3 Resolving Factual Issues

Factual challenges were a common source of communication breakdown in the data. These issues typically involve problems related to regulatory and instructional information. Each type of factual problem triggered the use of distinct IPSs, although multiple strategies were often employed within the same interaction to verify, clarify, and confirm the accuracy of the shared information.

4.3.3.1 Factual Regulative (FR)

Factual regulative refers to interactional moves in classroom discourse where teachers regulate or guide student understanding by focusing on factual knowledge, often connected to academic content or classroom expectations. Through factual regulation, teachers manage classroom activities, explain tasks, and ensure that students understand what is required. Extract E(13) illustrates this process, as the teacher provides clear explanations and corrections to help S2 follow instructions and complete the assignment correctly. The teacher also emphasizes classroom rules, such as not using a cell phone, to maintain an orderly learning environment. This interaction highlights how factual regulation helps support student understanding and ensures smooth classroom management.

Extract E(13) [P:19.7.24.W3] (Transcript lines 241-252)

CRF: Clarification AKL: Acknowledgment RPT: Repetition

TLG: Translanguaging NVB: Non-verbal ECR: Encouragement

1→	T:	>one to seventeen< match a , b , c , d , e , f , g	
2		nineteen, twenty write the sentences, understand ?	
3→	S2:	and add them more here ? =	PI (Self-CRF)
4→	T:	= no here , now you can open your book	R (Other-RF)
5		and check the definition, but only your notebook	

6→	S2:	okay::	R (Self-AKL)
7→	T:	NO cellphones , understand? (0.1) only your book	R (Other-CRF) & (Self-RPT)
8		NO cellphones , you can open your notebook (0.1)	
9		you have a homework, okay , understand ?	
10→	S2:	yes:: , understand:::	R (Self-AKL)
11→	T:	↑SU ↑SU	R (Other-TLG, NVB, ECR) & (Self-RPT)
12→	S2:	↑SU ↑SU	U (Self-TLG, NVB, RPT) & (Other-RPT)

In this classroom interaction, the teacher was giving instructions related to an assignment where students had to match and write sentences based on their lesson. The teacher aimed to ensure that S2 clearly understood the task requirements and classroom expectations, including focusing on the notebook without distractions such as cell phone. The interaction reflects how the teacher managed classroom tasks and checked for students' understanding through direct explanation and supportive dialogue while also maintaining a positive learning atmosphere.

The teacher began by explaining that the assignment required matching answers from one to seventeen and writing sentences for nineteen and twenty, then asked if the instruction was clear (lines 1-2). S2, unsure about the task, asked whether more information needed to be added to the notebook, seeking clarification (line 3). The teacher responded directly, clarifying that only checking definitions in the book was allowed, but work must be done in the notebook, emphasizing the correct process (lines 4-5). S2 acknowledged this clarification with a simple *"okay,"* signaling understanding (line 6). The teacher firmly reminded the class not to use cellphones and repeated that only books and notebooks should be used, reinforcing the classroom rule (lines 7-8). A reminder about the homework followed, along with another check for understanding to ensure S2 was ready to proceed (line 9). S2 confirmed understanding clearly (line 10). To motivate and encourage, the teacher used the Thai expression *"SU SU,"* meaning *"keep fighting"* or *"keep trying,"* paired with supportive gestures (line 11). S2 echoed *"SU SU"* in response, showing readiness to continue the task with motivation (line 12).

This interaction was successful because the teacher provided clear explanations and step-by-step guidance, ensuring that S2 fully understood the

assignment and classroom expectations. By directly addressing confusion, reinforcing rules such as avoiding cell phone use, and checking for comprehension, the teacher maintained both clarity and order. The use of encouragement, including the motivational phrase “SU SU,” created a supportive atmosphere that boosted S2’s confidence and willingness to engage. Ultimately, the combination of firm regulation, clarification, and emotional support enabled the student to proceed with the task confidently and positively. Extract E(14) provides another illustrative example of how IPSs work together to solve communication problems under the factual regulative category.

Extract E(14) [P:19.7.24.W3] (Transcript lines 541-571)

PT: Prompting	CFM: Confirmation	GS: Gussing
RP: Repair	RPD: Responding	AKL: Acknowledgment
CRF: Clarification	RPT: Repetition	BCC: Backchanneling Cue
DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	ITS: Interpretive Summary	RPS: Rephrasing

1→	T: how much percent to get a grade A ? the answer ?	PI (Self-PT, DAH)
2→	S9: 90, 90 to100	R (Other-RPD)
3→	T: 90 to 100 , 90 =	R (Self-RPT) & (Other-RPT)
4→	S4: = ↑oh::: 90	R (Other-RPT) & (Self-BCC)
5→	T: yes:: ↑so:: high , right ? ↑so:: high , 90	R (Self-ITS, RPT, CFM, CRF)
6	my ↑gosh , teacher , so high , 90 , of ↑course	
7	if I want to give you a grade A	
8	it means we can talk in English	
9	you talk to me in English	
10	you understand my English::	
11	↑yes , sure:: I will give you a grade A	
12	↑MAjor in ↑ENGlish::	
13	you get a grade A , you can speak ENGlish::	
14	okay ? that’s 90	
15→	S4: what about point ? =	PI (Other-DAH)

16→ T: = what about point ? it is ↑percent R (Self-CRF) & (Other RPT, RP)

17→ S4: um::: not point:: R (Other-RPT) & (Self-RPT, BCC, RP)

18→ T: it is ↑percent , so what is the passing rate ? PI (Self-CRF, DAH)

19 what is the passing rate ?

20 <pass> <in order to pass the subject>

21 <how MUCH percent?>

22→ S4: 44 ? R (Other-GS)

23→ T: ↑no::: R (Self-RPD)

24→ S4: 43 ? R (Other-GS)

25→ T: ↑no::: , <45> R (Self-RPD)

26→ S4: ↑or::: R (Other-AKL, BCC)

27→ T: very low:: , actually , ↓like normally to pass 50 R (Self-RPS, CRF)

28 but because I' m nice , I m a nice person 45::: love:::

29 I'm not that happy , but because I'm very nice

30 okay , love:::: , discount 5

31→ S4: okay::: , I see @ U (Self-AKL)

In Extract E(14), the teacher discussed with S9 and S4 the percentage required to achieve a grade A, using this context to understand performance expectations. The conversation transitioned to exploring the passing rate, incorporating humor and clarification to maintain a dynamic interaction. The focus emphasized factual regulation, as the teacher managed the conversation flow, clarified misunderstandings, and reinforced instructional objectives while maintaining an engaging and supportive environment.

The teacher initiated the discussion with a direct question, *"how much percent to get a grade A?"* This inquiry established the focus of the interaction and encouraged active participation from students, setting up opportunities for clarification (line 1). S9 responded with *"90, 90 to 100,"* providing a correct answer. This response reflected comprehension but prompted the teacher to confirm and clarify further, ensuring all participants understood (line 2). The teacher repeated the

response, *"90 to 100, 90,"* to reinforce the correct answer and validate the student's contribution. This repetition emphasized clarity and ensured the information was accessible to all students, a key feature of effective clarification (line 3). S4 interjected with *"oh::: 90,"* expressing surprise and acknowledgment. While this demonstrated S4's engagement, it also signaled a potential need for further elaboration to ensure comprehension (line 4). The teacher elaborated on the significance of 90%, describing it as *"so high"* and using rhetorical questions like *"right?"* to encourage reflection. This elaboration served as an interpretive summary, a form of clarification, where the teacher expanded on the key point to connect the percentage to its contextual importance (line 5). The teacher extended the explanation, linking the grading criteria to English proficiency and communication skills. By elaborating and repeating key points, the teacher used clarification as a scaffolding tool, ensuring students grasped the relevance of achieving this high standard (lines 6-14). S4 asked, *"what about point?"* This self-initiated query demonstrated a need for clarification, as the student misunderstood the grading system. This allowed the teacher to address the confusion and explain clearly (line 15). The teacher engaged in repair by repeating S4's question, *"what about point?"* and clarifying, *"it is percent."* This repair served to address and correct S4's misunderstanding, ensuring clarity while maintaining the flow of the conversation. By restating the concept in simpler terms, the teacher provided immediate feedback that reinforced the correct information (line 16). S4's hesitant response, *"not point,"* reflected an attempt at self-RP, indicating ongoing uncertainty and the need for additional clarification. This exchange highlights how the teacher and S4 actively contributed to resolving the misunderstanding through repair mechanisms, emphasizing the collaborative nature of the learning process (line 17). The teacher emphasized that *"it is percent"* to clarify S4's misunderstanding, ensuring the student understood the context of the grading criteria. The teacher then asked, *"so what is the passing rate?"* This clarification not only addressed the initial confusion but also redirected the focus, prompting students to apply the understanding of percentages to a different context. By repeating and emphasizing the question, the teacher facilitated further engagement and critical thinking, encouraging students to actively participate and refine S4 understanding (lines 18–21). S4 guessed *"44?"* in response to the teacher's question. This guess, though incorrect, reflected the S4's

willingness to participate, highlighting the role of clarification in fostering active engagement (line 22). The teacher provided immediate feedback with *"no:::,"* rejecting the incorrect guess. This correction maintained the interactional flow and guided the student toward the correct answer (line 23). S4 guessed again with *"43?"* This persistence demonstrated the student's effort to process the teacher's question, relying on ongoing clarification to refine S4's understanding (line 24). The teacher clarified by providing the correct answer, *"45,"* and emphasizing it to reinforce understanding. This clarification ensured that the student's confusion was resolved and the correct concept was solidified (line 25). S4 responded with *"or:::,"* signaling understanding of the clarification and an effort to process the explanation. This moment reflected the student's engagement in the interactive learning process (line 26). The teacher elaborated further, explaining why the passing rate was lowered to 45% as an act of leniency. This clarification added humor and context, ensuring the information was relatable and memorable for the students. These elaborations demonstrated how clarification strategies can deepen understanding and sustain engagement (lines 27-30). S4 concluded with *"okay:::, I see,"* signaling successful clarification. This acknowledgment confirmed that the teacher's repeated use of clarification had effectively resolved the misunderstanding (line 31).

This interaction was successful because the teacher transformed a potentially confusing discussion about grading percentages into a clear and engaging learning moment. By clarifying misconceptions, repeating key points, and providing immediate feedback on incorrect guesses, the teacher ensured that students fully understood the grading criteria. The use of humor, encouragement, and relatable explanations kept the exchange lively, while the collaborative repair of misunderstandings demonstrated active negotiation of meaning between teacher and student. Ultimately, the process not only resolved confusion but also reinforced comprehension, fostered student confidence, and created a supportive classroom atmosphere where learners felt comfortable participating and asking questions.

4.3.3.2 Factual Instructional (FI)

Factual instructional refers to instances in classroom discourse where the teacher provides or elicits specific linguistic forms or content knowledge to guide S4

toward accurate language use in real-life contexts. This interaction type focuses on ensuring S4 knows how to appropriately respond to everyday situations, emphasizing correct and context-relevant language use. Extract E(15) is an example of this, where the teacher scaffolds students to produce a practical sentence that fits the given scenario.

Extract E(15) [P:6.9.24.W10] (Transcript lines 526-533)

PT: Prompting	RPD: Responding	RPT: Repetition
RTV: Retrieval	BCC: Backchanneling Cue	SCF: Scaffolding
RP: Repair	PR: Positive-Reinforcement	UFL: Use of Fillers

1→	T: okay:: another , um::: ↑Eew:::	PI (Self-PT, UFL)
2	I saw cockroach on the floor:: @	
3	@ what are you going to say ?	
4→	S4: I will::: , I will::: , ah:::	PI (Other-RPD) & (Self-RPT, RTV, BCC)
5→	T: = I will , I will get::: ? =	R (Self-RPT) & (Other-SCF)
6→	S4: = I will get someone to look at it =	R (Other-RPT) & (Self-RP)
7→	T: = I will get someone to look at it.	U (Self-RPT) & (Other-RPT, PR)
8	good:: that's a great way to say::	

This classroom interaction took place during a speaking activity where the teacher presented S4 with real-life situations and guided them to produce appropriate English responses. In this scenario, the teacher created an everyday context involving seeing a cockroach on the floor and asked S4 how she would respond. The aim was to help S4 practice polite and functional English expressions for dealing with unexpected or uncomfortable situations. The teacher scaffolded the interaction by prompting S4, providing sentence models, and encouraging self-correction.

The interaction began when the teacher presented the scenario, pretending to react to a cockroach on the floor and asking S4 how she would respond (lines 1-3). S4 attempted to answer but struggled to complete the sentence, repeating *"I will"* and using backchanneling cues as a way to hold the floor while thinking (line 4). Seeing the hesitation, the teacher stepped in to guide S4 by providing partial words to scaffold, encouraging S4 to complete the sentence by suggesting the next part of the

phrase (line 5). S4 then successfully completed the sentence, saying *"I will get someone to look at it,"* showing an effort to respond appropriately by following the teacher's scaffold (line 6). The teacher immediately acknowledged S4's answer by repeating it, affirming its correctness, and praising the way S4 constructed the sentence, reinforcing the learning point and providing positive feedback (lines 7-8).

This interaction was successful because the teacher transformed a simple real-life scenario into an opportunity for practical language use, guiding S4 step by step toward producing a clear and appropriate response. By scaffolding the incomplete attempts, offering partial prompts, and encouraging self-correction, the teacher helped S4 move from hesitation to a confident and grammatically accurate sentence. The teacher's immediate praise and positive-reinforcement further validated S4's effort, creating a supportive environment that encouraged risk-taking and active participation. Ultimately, the exchange highlighted how structured guidance and positive feedback can turn uncertainty into meaningful language learning, equipping students with functional expressions for everyday situations. Extract E(16) presents another example to illustrate factual instructional.

Extract E(16) [P:2.8.24.W5] (Transcript lines 1,209-1,250)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	PT: Prompting	CRF: Clarification
RPS: Rephasing	UFL: Use of Fillers	TLG: Translanguaging
NVB: Non-verbal	RPT: Repetition	STL: Stalling
RTV: Retrieval	PR: Positive-Reinforcement	ITS: Interpretive Summary
CFM: Confirmation	RPD: Responding	AKL: Acknowledgment
BCC: Backchanneling		

1→	T: Earn let's say the dress is 700	PI (Self-PT, DAH)
2	and I'm the cashier you give me 1,000	
3	so how much I give you ?	
4→	S5: 300	R (Other-RPD)
5→	T: Omsin , what if:: I give you 700	PI (Self-PT, CRF, DAH)
6	are you going to keep it ? or give it back ?	
7→	S6: give back	R (Other-RPD)
8→	T: give back 700 ? are you sure ?	PI (Self-CRF, RPS, RPT, UFL,

9		you're going to give me back 700 ?	TLG, NVB, DAH, CFM)
10		are you sure ?	
11		you don't want to keep it ?	
12		you know::: it can be like:: Moo Ka Ta	
13		aroi mak:: mak:::: <@>are you sure</@> ?	
14→	S6:	I'm not sure @	R (Other-CFM)
15→	T:	you're not sure , right ? for me also not sure	PI (Self-PT, CRF, RPT, ITS,
16		you know you still have 300 but she gave you 700.	DAH, CFM)
17		imagine the dress is only 700	
18		the change you should get is only 300	
19		but I give you 700 so you have 400 but more , right ?	
20		okay are you going to keep the 400 ? or give me back ?	
21		are you going to keep or give me back ?	
22		keep? you give me back [400 ?]	
23→	S6:	[400]	R (Other-RPD)
24→	T:	you give me back 400 , are you sure ?	PI (Self-CRF, RPT, CFM) & (other-RPT)
25→	S6:	um:: let my:: let me think:: ah:::	R (Other-STL, RPT, RTV)
26		I give:: gave:: I will give , I will give you back	
27→	T:	you give me back 400 ?	PI (Self-RPT, RPS, CRF, UFL,
28		you know:: how many ice cream is 400	TLG, NVB)
29		how many ice cream	
30		or 400 is already for shabu shi ↓im mak:: loei::@	
31→	S6:	sure @	R (Other-CFM, NVB)
32→	T:	sure ? no shabu shi ?	PI (Self-CFM, TLG, NVB)
33→	S6:	no:::@	R (Other-RPD, NVB)
34→	T:	no::: ? oh::: you're so honest , okay yes::	PI (Self-AKL, UFL, RPT, DAH)
35		↑so thank you:: ah::: Angel	
36		↑so what is the value in this story	
37		what is the value in this story	
38→	S7:	**(S7 is raising hand)**	R (Other-NVB)
39→	T:	↑Kie , tell me::	R (Self- CRF)
40→	S7:	er::: hon:: /ˈhɔːrn , ah::: honesty /ˈɑː.nɪ.sti/	R (Other-RPD) & (Self-RTV, BCC)
41→	T:	o↑kay::: ↑very good:: honesty /ˈɑː.nɪ.sti/	U (Self-RPT) & (Other-PR, CRF, RPT)

42 o↑kay::: that's the value of this story

In this interaction E(16), the teacher introduced the concept of honesty as a moral value by creating a role-play scenario involving a seller and customers. This situational example involved calculating change and making decisions about whether to keep extra money mistakenly given or return it. The teacher used this activity with students S5, S6, and S7 to engage them in practical problem-solving while subtly instilling a lesson in ethics. The activity emphasized factual instruction, as the teacher guided the students through collaborative questioning, clarifications, and confirmations to reach a shared understanding of the scenario's moral value.

The teacher initiated the scenario by setting up a context to encourage problem-solving and understanding values like honesty (lines 1-3). The interaction began with a question requiring S5 to calculate change, and S5 confidently provided the correct answer (line 4). The teacher then extended the situation to S6 by posing a hypothetical question to prompt moral reasoning (lines 5-6). S6 responded affirmatively, confirming intent to return excess money (line 7). The teacher challenged S6's response with further clarifying and probing statements, encouraging deeper critical thinking and exploration of the concept (lines 8-13). When S6 expressed uncertainty, the teacher reframed the scenario with detailed calculations to ensure a thorough grasp of the situation (lines 15-22). S6 eventually provided a confident response, demonstrating an understanding of the problem (line 23). The teacher reinforced the lesson by repeating the scenario, further assessing S6's confidence and comprehension (lines 24-30). S6 reaffirmed the answer, showing clarity and understanding (line 31). The teacher transitioned the discussion to the moral value of the activity, prompting the class to reflect on the importance of honesty (lines 34-37). S7 participated by correctly identifying the value, and the teacher validated this response, emphasizing the lesson's significance and successfully concluding the activity (lines 38-42). This approach highlighted the teacher's skill in blending problem-solving with moral education, fostering both critical thinking and ethical awareness.

This interaction was successful because the teacher skillfully combined a mathematical problem with a moral dilemma, guiding students to reason through both

practical and ethical dimensions of the scenario. By using probing questions, clarifications, and step-by-step scaffolding, the teacher helped students move from initial uncertainty to confident responses, ensuring they understood not only the calculation but also the underlying moral choice. The gradual shift from problem-solving to value identification allowed students to engage critically while also internalizing the importance of honesty. Positive-reinforcement and praise further encouraged participation, creating a supportive environment where students felt motivated to reflect on both language use and ethical reasoning.

4.3.4 Discussion: Synthesis of IPSs in Resolving Classroom Communication Problems

This study investigated how IPSs work collectively to foster mutual understanding and resolve communication difficulties in Thai EFL classroom discourse. Through a detailed examination of teacher-student interactions, it became evident that effective communication is not accomplished through isolated strategic choices but rather through the dynamic, flexible, and context-sensitive chaining of multiple IPSs. These strategies—both those grounded in prior literature and those emerging from the specific sociocultural context—operated collaboratively to manage linguistic challenges, maintain discourse coherence, and enhance student participation.

Traditional IPSs such as RPT, RP, CRF, DAH, and RPS were instrumental in scaffolding student comprehension and resolving breakdowns. However, these were frequently integrated with context-specific strategies that emerged uniquely within the Thai EFL environment. These include ECR, PR, SCF, MDL, and TLG. This co-deployment of strategies suggests that interactional success hinges on a collaborative effort where both teachers and students actively engage in meaning-making processes. For example, when students struggled with linguistic vocabulary, linguistic grammar, or linguistic pronunciation, the teacher did not rely solely on prompting or correction. Instead, a blend of ECR and SCF was used to maintain student engagement, while MDL provided accurate linguistic input that students could imitate and internalize. Similarly, challenges related to interactional reference, interactional discourse, and interactional mishearing were addressed through the integration of TLG and NVB.

These strategies provided accessible pathways to meaning-making by bridging students' existing knowledge with new or difficult input.

This study also revealed that IPSs often appeared in sequential chains, rather than in isolation. For instance, a student's communicative difficulty may first be met with a clarification request, followed by repetition and a supporting gesture, and concluded with a reformulated utterance from the teacher. This chaining of IPSs not only addressed immediate communication gaps but also functioned as a model for effective communicative behavior. As such, IPSs chaining emerged as a fundamental mechanism through which shared understanding and interactional continuity were sustained in the classroom.

Furthermore, the findings affirm that classroom communication is a co-constructed process. Both teacher and students contributed to interactional success by collaboratively deploying appropriate IPSs in response to emerging communicative needs. This reciprocal engagement fostered a supportive classroom environment in which students were encouraged to take risks, ask questions, and participate actively, despite linguistic limitations or anxiety.

These results align with and extend previous studies on IPSs (e.g., Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Smit, 2010; Dang et al, 2019; Lemana et al., 2023; Alharbi, 2023; Muntasir & Akbar, 2023), which highlight the pivotal roles of RP, CRF, and RPT in addressing communication breakdowns. While reaffirming the value of these strategies, the present study goes further by identifying context-specific IPSs—such as ECR, SCF, and TLG—as crucial to sustaining communication in Thai classrooms. These findings are consistent with research on culturally responsive pedagogy (García & Wei, 2014; Walsh, 2011; Boonsuk & Ambele, 2024), which emphasizes the importance of attending to students' sociocultural realities.

For instance, the use of SCF echoes findings from Dang et al. (2024), who noted the value of supportive teacher scaffolding in boosting student confidence. MDL was frequently employed by teachers to provide real-time demonstrations of correct grammar, pronunciation, and sentence structure—an approach supported by Hidalgo López (2023), Bondarenko (2022), and Rustam and Amir (2022). Similarly,

PR was used to affirm correct student responses, serving not only as validation but also as a tool to reinforce communicative effectiveness (Ghafar & Raheem, 2023).

Importantly, this study highlights that IPSs serve purposes beyond linguistic correction. They create dialogic spaces where students can experiment with language in a psychologically safe environment. This is particularly salient in Thai classrooms, where cultural factors such as saving face, avoiding mistakes, and maintaining hierarchical respect may inhibit spontaneous student participation (Ambele, 2022; Kulsawang & Ambele, 2024).

In sum, this study makes several significant contributions to English language teaching and interactional pragmatics. First, it extends the theoretical framework of IPSs by documenting emerging context-specific strategies that have been underrepresented in existing research. That is, the findings expand the current understanding of IPSs by documenting emergent, context-specific strategies that have been underexplored in existing literature. Second, it demonstrates that IPSs function most effectively when used collaboratively and flexibly, allowing for chaining and adjustment in response to students' needs. In other words, the findings illustrate that IPSs are most effective when used as part of a dynamic, collaborative process between teacher and students, allowing for adaptation and chaining based on interactional needs. Third, it offers practical implications for teaching, suggesting that teachers should be trained not only in recognizing and applying traditional IPSs but also in developing sensitivity to their students' cultural and emotional needs. Put differently, the findings offer concrete guidance for teachers, demonstrating how the thoughtful integration of both established and emergent IPSs can promote meaningful communication, scaffold learning, and encourage student confidence and agency.

Ultimately, successful communication in EFL classrooms requires more than corrective feedback; it demands a flexible, responsive approach that fosters opportunities for students to engage meaningfully, negotiate understanding, and build communicative competence. The findings of this study affirm that combining literature-based IPSs with contextually grounded strategies offers a powerful framework for effective teaching and learning in culturally diverse classroom settings.

4.3.5 Structural Patterns of IPS Chains for Effective Classroom Communication

The analysis in Sections 4.3.1, 4.3.2, and 4.3.3 underscored how the chaining of IPSs enabled successful communication by resolving language-related issues and sustaining dialogic interaction. These strategy chains—such as PT, CRF, RPT, TLG, and RP—revealed the collaborative nature of meaning-making in the EFL classroom, where both the teacher and students dynamically co-constructed understanding. Building on this, this section extends the analysis beyond individual strategies to explore additional features that contributed to effective communication.

The section categorizes the patterns of IPS chains into three structural types—Simple, Complex, and Atypical (Unique)—based on their frequency, interactional flow, and level of elaboration in achieving understanding. These patterns reflect how communication problems were identified and resolved, highlighting the varying depths and dynamics of IPSs engagement across classroom discourse. The following subsections explore these structural types with illustrative extracts.

4.3.5.1 Simple IPSs Structure

The simple IPSs structure consists of a straightforward, linear sequence: one Problem Indicator (PI), one Response (R), and one Understanding (U). This pattern typically occurs when the problem is immediately identifiable and resolvable, requiring minimal scaffolding or elaboration.

Extract E(17) illustrates this type. The teacher initiates a prompt about classroom rules (PI), S3 responds appropriately (R), and the teacher affirms and elaborates on the response (U), reinforcing classroom expectations:

Extract E(17) [P:19.7.24.W3] (Transcript lines 1,350-1,353)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	RPD: Responding	CFM: Confirmation
CRF: Clarification	RPT: Repetition	PT: Prompting

1→	T: what are the classroom rules:: ? number ↑one ?	PI (Self-DAH, PT)
2→	S3: keep phones away	R (Other-RPD)
3→	T: >yes< , >yes< , keep your phones	U (Self-CFM, CRF, RPT)
4	listen:::you have NO choice:::	

In extract E(17), the teacher began the first class by establishing classroom rules, aiming to create a structured and disciplined environment. The teacher initiated the interaction by asking about classroom rules, demonstrating a processing issue, and reflecting on the teacher's effort to prompt S3 participation (line 1). S3 responded correctly, resolving the interaction and marking a resolution (line 2). The teacher then reinforced the response with a confirmation and expanded on it with additional instructions and emphasis, demonstrating understanding by affirming S3's answer while ensuring clarity and engagement (line 3).

This concise chain effectively demonstrates how a clear prompt, an accurate student response, and teacher affirmation together lead to mutual understanding. The simplicity of the structure allows for smooth communication with minimal need for corrective strategies. Specifically, it examines the communicative structure of interactions, highlighting how the use of simple, well-organized utterances further supports shared understanding. In particular, this pattern shows how the use of simple structure in teacher talk not only enhances comprehension but also provides a scaffold for students to respond confidently and accurately. This structural support, in tandem with IPSs chaining, fostered a communicative environment where students were more willing to participate, take risks, and negotiate meaning.

4.3.5.2 Complex IPSs Structure

The complex IPSs structure involves multiple cycles of PI, R, and U, with several IPS features such as CRF, RP, and RPT employed across turns. This structure is commonly used when misunderstandings are more nuanced or layered.

Extract E(18) exemplifies this structure. The teacher seeks to clarify a student's name pronunciation and spelling, moving through several iterations of PI and R with contributions from different students:

Extract E(18) [P:19.7.24.W3] (Transcript lines 150-155)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help	BCC: Backchanneling Cue	CRF: Clarification
CFM: Confirmation	RPT: Repetition	RP: Repair

1→	T: It's D-O, D-O-W, is it D-A-O or D-A-O ?	PI (Self-DAH)
2→	S1: maybe she::: hh:: wrong translated	R (Other-BCC, CRF)
3→	T: are you Do / duː/or Dao:: /daʊ/ ?	PI (Self-CFM)

4→ S2: Dao:: /daʊ/ R (Other-RP)

5→ T: Dao:: /daʊ/ okay:: , please change it U (Self-RP, RPT)

6 I will read it as Do /du:/, ↑Do/du:/

In extract E(18), the teacher aimed to clarify the correct spelling and pronunciation of S2's name. The teacher repeated options to verify the correct spelling and pronunciation, emphasizing the need for accuracy (line 1). S1 provided input, offering a possible explanation for the misunderstanding and assisting in resolving the issue (line 2). The teacher sought further confirmation by directly questioning the name's pronunciation (line 3), and S2 responded clearly, clarifying the correct pronunciation (line 4). The teacher deployed repair to instruct a spelling revision to ensure accuracy moving forward (line 5). Finally, the teacher repeated the correct pronunciation to confirm understanding and prevent future confusion (line 6).

The multi-step resolution reveals the need for iterative clarification, signaling that understanding sometimes requires adaptive strategies and peer support. This extract shows how complex IPS structures promote accuracy and inclusiveness in classroom discourse.

4.3.5.3 Atypical IPSs Structure: A Unique Case

A unique case refers to an atypical IPSs pattern that occurred only once in the dataset, where Problem Indicator (PI) and Response (R) were combined in a single turn.

In Extract E(19), the teacher repeatedly asks for the correct letter answer, but the student fails to provide the correct response. Despite multiple attempts using GS and RPT strategies, the teacher ultimately supplies the correct answer:

Extract E(19) [P:26.7.24.W4] (Transcript lines 225-233)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help GS: Guessing RPT: Repetition RP: Repair

1→ T: number 4 , letter ? (0.2) what? (0.2) PI (Self-DAH)

2 >what's your answer?<

3→ S1: Q ? R (Other-GS)

4→ T: letTER ? PI (Self-RPT)

5→ S1: Q ? R (Other-GS)

6→	T: no:: , agin:: agin::, letTER ?	PI (Self-RPT)
7→	S1: S ?	R (Other-GS)
8→	T: no:: letTER ? (0.3) C	PI (Self-RPT) R (Other-RP)

The interaction began with the teacher initiating participation problem indicator by asking S1 to provide an answer (line 1). S1 guessed incorrectly, failing to meet expectations (lines 3 and 5). The teacher repeated the question and provided encouragement to guide S1 (lines 4 and 6). Despite another attempt from S1, the teacher ultimately provided the correct answer, combining participation initiation and corrective feedback (lines 1 and 8).

This finding in E (19) explores a unique case of IPSs, where participation initiation PI equaled R but failed to result in successful collaborative learning. The analysis highlights a rare instance in which repetitive teacher prompting did not lead to the desired outcome, underscoring the limitations of such strategies in certain contexts.

This case highlights the limitations of repeated IPS strategies when scaffolding is insufficient. While the teacher persistently used RPT and RP, these were ineffective without variation or support to address the student's knowledge gap. The case aligns with prior research (Smit, 2010; Wheatley, 2002), which cautions against over-reliance on RPT without adapting instructional approaches.

In conclusion, the analysis of structural patterns of IPSs chains— Simple, Complex, and Atypical—demonstrates the dynamic and varied nature of IPSs in the EFL classroom. The simple structure enabled efficient communication through direct PT and immediate student responses, fostering clarity and participation. In contrast, the complex structure illustrated how layered misunderstandings were navigated collaboratively through CRF, RP, and RPT, promoting accuracy and deeper engagement. The Atypical case, however, revealed the limitations of RPT when not supported by adaptive scaffolding, emphasizing the importance of responsive and varied instructional approaches. Together, these patterns underscore that effective classroom communication hinges not only on the deployment of IPSs but also on the

structure and adaptability of their use within context-specific interactions. The next section presents how the usage of IPSs varied according to classroom task types.

4.4 Patterns of IPSs Use Across Classroom Tasks

The triangulated data presented in Chapter III—derived from classroom observations (audio recordings and field notes), semi-structured interviews, and documentary analysis—revealed meaningful patterns in the use of IPSs across various task types. The primary classroom activities observed included structured discussions, role-plays, and impromptu interactions, all of which elicited different configurations and frequencies of IPSs deployment.

Discussions, often planned and moderately scaffolded, typically prompted the use of CRF, RPT, and CFM. These strategies helped students manage turn-taking and maintain topic coherence. Teacher interventions in this task type frequently included PT, PR, and RP to guide student contributions and encourage elaboration.

Role-plays, designed to simulate real-world communicative contexts, proved to be rich environments for IPSs use. Because they required students to improvise responses while remaining in character, role-plays elicited high levels of interactional negotiation. Strategies such as GS, DAH, and OAC were more prevalent in these settings. The necessity for spontaneous dialogue often led to communication breakdowns, which were addressed through IPSs chaining, including MDL, RPT, and TLG.

Impromptu interactions, particularly during students' pair work activity or ad hoc questioning, triggered extensive use of ECR, SCF, NVB, and BCC. Teachers frequently relied on these strategies to support hesitant speakers, reduce performance anxiety, and maintain audience engagement. In these contexts, the emotional and affective dimensions of IPSs were especially salient, underscoring their role not only in resolving linguistic problems but also in supporting student confidence.

These patterns demonstrate the dynamic interplay between classroom design, pedagogical goals, and IPSs use. Task type directly influenced the kinds of strategies required, while the instructor's pedagogical approach—anchored in student-centered, communicative practices—created an environment conducive to pragmatic flexibility

and strategic adaptation. These findings suggest that effective IPSs deployment is both task-sensitive and pedagogically driven, requiring instructors to foster interactional spaces that promote authentic communication, negotiation of meaning, and shared understanding.

While the previous section (see 4.3) illustrated how IPSs function as effective tools for achieving mutual understanding during communication breakdowns, not all instances of breakdown were successfully resolved. Despite the strategic deployment of both literature-based and context-specific IPSs, there were moments when these strategies did not lead to shared understanding or communicative closure. Such moments offer equally valuable insights into the limits of IPSs, the complexities of interactional challenges, and the contextual factors that can inhibit their effectiveness. To provide a more comprehensive understanding of classroom communication dynamics, the following section turns to examine these unsuccessful cases.

4.5 IPSs in Unresolving Communication Problems (Unsuccessful Cases)

Although IPSs played a critical role in facilitating communication and resolving interactional problems in many classroom episodes (see 4.3 and 4.4), there were notable instances where communication breakdowns persisted despite the interlocutors' active use of these strategies (see 3.6.5, Chapter III). This section addresses those cases in which mutual understanding was not achieved, thereby illuminating the limitations and constraints of IPSs deployment in real-time classroom interaction. In other words, unsuccessful cases refer to episodes where a communication problem occurred, but understanding was not achieved due to several non-linguistic factors.

Drawing on the analytical framework presented earlier—particularly Smit's (2010) notion of "repairables"—this section examines how IPSs were employed in problem-solving attempts that ultimately failed to restore coherence or clarify meaning. These unresolved episodes are significant because they help identify the boundaries of pragmatic strategy effectiveness. They also point to potential gaps in pragmatic awareness, proficiency limitations, task complexity, or affective factors (e.g., anxiety or disengagement) that may impede communication despite strategic effort.

The analysis includes representative examples of such unsuccessful cases drawn from the dataset. These cases span various categories of communication problems, including pronunciation, vocabulary confusion, interactional misalignment, and misinterpretation of discourse cues. In each case, IPSs such as CRF, RPT, PT, or SCF were mobilized, but failed to elicit the intended repair or uptake. Where appropriate, comparison with successful cases highlights what distinguishes successful resolution from unsuccessful attempts.

By exploring these moments of unresolved communication, this section underscores the necessity of nuanced pedagogical strategies that go beyond the mere presence of IPSs. It emphasizes the importance of timing, clarity, and contextual awareness in the deployment of pragmatic strategies and suggests areas where additional support, training, or task scaffolding may enhance communicative outcomes. These insights are particularly relevant for EFL context, where linguistic, cognitive, and socio-affective factors intertwine in complex ways during classroom interaction.

4.5.1 Attitude (ATT)

Attitude, as conceptualized in this study, refers to the interlocutor's emotional and cognitive disposition toward engaging in classroom tasks, particularly their willingness, attentiveness, and responsiveness during communication. This aligns with Smit's (2010) characterization of attitude as a communicative barrier rooted in participants' beliefs, feelings, or reluctance to perform requested actions or respond to interactional cues. In classroom interactions, attitudinal resistance may manifest as inattentiveness, passivity, or outright refusal to participate, which can critically impair the effectiveness of even well-deployed IPSs.

In the current dataset, two representative extracts illustrate how attitudinal barriers impeded communication despite the teacher's persistent use of IPSs. These instances underscore the limitations of pragmatic strategies when students are unmotivated or disengaged, and they reveal the importance of socio-affective factors in shaping interactional outcomes.

Case 1: Inattentiveness and Misalignment (Extract E(20))

Extract E(20) [P:30.9.24.W9] (Transcript lines 222-226)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help RPT: Repetition CRF: Clarification NVB: Non-verbal

1→	T:	↑Dom , [do you have another facility ?]	PI (Self-DAH)
2→	S13:	[teacher 15 minutes break]	PI (Other-CRF)
3→	T:	[I'm talking to Dom] are you Dom ?	PI (Self-RPT, CRF)
4		are you Dom ? are you Dom ?	
5→	S13:	(0.5)	PI (Other-NVB)

In Extract E(20), the teacher initiated a classroom interaction by directing a question specifically to a student named *"Dom."* However, instead of Dom, another student—S13—responded with an unrelated remark about a *"15-minute break."* This unexpected and off-topic response demonstrated inattentiveness and a misalignment with the teacher's intended communicative context. It suggested an attitude-related issue, as S13 either lacked the willingness to engage appropriately with the teacher's inquiry or failed to recognize and follow the expected classroom interaction norms.

Following this miscommunication, the teacher attempted to clarify by directly asking, *"are you Dom?"* This was intended to redirect the question to the correct student and to encourage recognition of the initial misunderstanding. However, S13's brief silence (0.3 seconds) after the clarification signaled hesitation and a possible unwillingness to engage or acknowledge the miscommunication. The teacher continued to repeat the question in subsequent turns, emphasizing the intended recipient and attempting to realign the flow of interaction. Despite these efforts, S13 remained passive, which further reinforced the communication breakdown and highlighted the challenges in managing inattentive behavior in classroom discourse. Another possible reason for this breakdown lies in classroom culture, as the interaction occurred in the afternoon session when students often feel tired or sleepy after lunch. This time-of-day factor may have influenced S13's inattentiveness and lack of responsiveness, reflecting how external conditions can impact learners' engagement and participation. In all, in this extract, the teacher directs a question to a specific student, Dom, requesting input related to the lesson. However, S13 interjects with an unrelated comment about a break, indicating a lack of contextual awareness

and attentiveness. The teacher attempts clarification and repair by explicitly asking whether S13 is Dom, repeating the question multiple times (lines 3–4). S13's continued silence further signals disengagement (line 5). Although strategies such as direct appeal for help, repetition, and clarification were employed, these did not lead to mutual understanding or successful interaction.

This breakdown illustrates how inattentiveness, not a lack of linguistic competence, can derail classroom communication. The student's failure to attune to the teacher's intent exemplifies a misalignment in participation frameworks (Goffman, 1981), where the expected roles and responses in the communicative exchange are not fulfilled. Inattentiveness, therefore, constitutes a significant interactional barrier that IPSs alone may not be able to resolve. Furthermore, this episode illustrates the frequency and impact of problem indicators (PIs), revealing how students' attitudes, particularly inattentiveness, can disrupt effective communication in a learning environment. The analysis focused on this specific incident involving S13 to demonstrate how attitude influenced the dynamics of the interaction and contributed to the communication failure. S13's unrelated comment and subsequent silence (in lines 2 and 5) exemplified a reluctance or inability to align with the teacher's instructional cues. Despite the teacher's persistent attempts to manage the situation through clarification and repetition, S13's attitude posed a barrier to restoring communicative alignment.

These findings support Smit's (2010) argument that attitude, understood as a psychological state shaped by one's feelings and beliefs, significantly affects one's ability to perform tasks or respond to instructions. In this case, S13's inattentiveness reflected a misalignment with expected classroom behavior, underscoring the importance of focus and attention in determining interactional success. Moreover, the analysis reinforces previous studies (Kaur, 2009, 2011; Mauranen, 2012) which emphasize that student attitudes critically influence the effectiveness of classroom communication. Addressing attitudinal barriers, such as inattentiveness or disengagement, is therefore essential to fostering meaningful interaction and enhancing the overall learning experience. In addition to this example, there was also a case (see Case 2) in which no student was willing to respond to the teacher's

question. However, in that instance, it is difficult to definitively determine the cause of the students' silence, as no explicit indicators of attitude or intent were present.

Case 2: Hesitation and Reluctance to Respond (Extract E(21))

Extract E(21) [P:26.7.24.W4] (Transcript lines 225-232)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help BCC: Backchanneling Cue RPT: Repetition CRF: Clarification

1→	T: number 1, letTER ? (0.2) what ? (0.3)	PI (Self-DAH)
2→	USs: ahem::: (**An unidentified Ss clears their throat)**	PI (Other-BCC)
3→	T: >why you look at me?<	PI (Self-DAH, RPT)
4	>what's your answer ?< letTER ?	
5→	USs: a::hem:::(**An unidentified Ss clears their throat)**	PI (Other-BCC)
6→	T: alright::: letTER ? (0.5)	PI (Self-DAH, RPT, CRF)
7	okay::. I will let all of you revise the answers again:::	
8	I will give you 10 minutes:::	

The teacher demonstrated a supportive attitude during the classroom Interaction in Extract E(21), actively encouraging unwilling and hesitant unidentified students (USs) to participate. The student's throat-clearing behavior signaled uncertainty and reluctance to engage, yet the teacher's patience and empathetic demeanor contributed to a safe and non-threatening learning environment. Despite these efforts, the interaction ultimately remained unsuccessful, as the student's unwillingness to respond persisted, highlighting the ongoing challenge of addressing hesitation, even when the teacher employed positive and supportive strategies.

The interaction began with the teacher initiating a question intended to prompt students participation (line 1). In response, the students offered only a minimal non-verbal cue—throat-clearing—suggesting hesitation and a lack of readiness to engage (line 2). In an attempt to sustain the interaction, the teacher continued prompting (line 3), encouraging a fuller response. However, this was again met with another minimal, non-verbal acknowledgment from the student (line 5), indicating continued reluctance. In response to this persistent hesitation, the teacher reiterated the question and added verbal encouragement (line 6), attempting once more to facilitate engagement. Recognizing the lack of progress, the teacher then shifted strategies by

allowing the students additional time to revise their answers and by providing more explicit task-related instructions (lines 7–8). This strategic adaptation reflected a thoughtful approach aimed at easing students into participation.

In all, in this interaction, the teacher attempts to elicit a response from unidentified students, using DAH and RPT. The students' responses consist only of throat-clearing—a form of BCC that signals discomfort or hesitation but no substantive engagement. Despite the teacher's supportive stance, the students' reluctance to verbalize a response persists, ultimately leading the teacher to suspend the task and offer more time for review. This section of the analysis underscores how students' willingness—or lack thereof—significantly influences the outcome of classroom interactions. It specifically examines the interplay between the teacher's supportive attitude and the students' reluctance to participate. Although the teacher utilized multiple interactional strategies—including DAH, CRF, and RPT as seen in lines 1, 3, and 6—the students' minimal responses (such as throat-clearing in lines 2 and 5) and continued lack of verbal engagement revealed a persistent unwillingness to participate.

This example demonstrates a different dimension of attitude: passive resistance or social reticence. In Thai classrooms, students may avoid participation not due to disinterest but because of fear of public error, desire to save face, or discomfort with speaking in English (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2024; Kulsawang & Ambele, 2024). These culturally influenced affective factors can override even the most encouraging pedagogical approaches, suggesting that IPSs must be supplemented with socio-emotional scaffolding that addresses students' affective needs. These findings are consistent with Smit's (2010) assertion that attitude plays a crucial role in shaping classroom participation. Willingness to engage is often influenced by psychological factors such as confidence, fear of failure, and perceptions of one's own competence. In this case, despite the teacher's evident efforts to support and scaffold participation, the students' continued reluctance illustrates that a lack of willingness can serve as a formidable barrier to effective communication, even in a supportive classroom context. Ultimately, the analysis highlights that student willingness is a critical determinant of successful classroom interaction. While teacher encouragement and positive-reinforcement are essential,

fostering genuine student engagement requires a deeper understanding of the emotional and cognitive factors underpinning hesitation. Addressing these attitudinal barriers is vital to promoting meaningful communication and enhancing the overall quality of the learning experience.

These two cases illustrate how attitude, in the form of inattentiveness or reluctance, can undermine the communicative function of IPSs, regardless of how strategically they are employed. While the teacher utilized a variety of IPSs—such as RPT, CRF, PT, and BCC—to sustain interaction, these efforts were insufficient when the student's willingness to engage was absent. As noted by Kaur (2011) and Mauranen (2012), the success of ELF communication is not solely dependent on linguistic strategies but also on affective engagement and mutual attunement between interlocutors. Research suggests that willingness to communicate is a dynamic psychological construct influenced by contextual, cultural, and interpersonal factors (Peng, 2022; Yashima, 2021). Therefore, fostering effective classroom communication requires not only linguistic support but also the cultivation of positive affective environments where students feel safe and motivated to speak. Incorporating context-sensitive strategies such as ECR, PR, and TLG may help overcome attitudinal barriers by building trust, reducing anxiety, and accommodating cultural communication norms (García & Wei, 2014; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). In conclusion, attitude is a complex and often underexplored dimension of classroom communication. These findings reinforce the need for holistic pedagogical strategies that consider students' emotional readiness and social positioning, alongside their linguistic needs.

4.5.2 Pedagogical Skills (PDS)

Pedagogical skills refer to a teacher's ability to manage classroom dynamics, guide interactional flow, and respond effectively to unforeseen disruptions while maintaining student engagement. According to Smit (2010), pedagogical skills are critical in ensuring that communication remains purposeful, structured, and conducive to learning, even when interactional problems arise. When pedagogical management falters—whether due to unclear instructions, inattentiveness to students' needs, or external interruptions—the effectiveness of IPSs is often compromised.

In this section, a representative classroom episode Extract E(22) illustrates how an unanticipated emergency disrupted the interactional rhythm of the classroom and impeded communication. Despite the teacher's deployment of IPSs such as STL, CRF, and CFM, the failure to maintain control of the classroom focus resulted in an unresolved communication problem.

Case Example: Classroom Disruption and Lost Instructional Focus

Extract E(22) [P:26.7.24.W4] (Transcript lines 165-176)

DAH: Direct Appeal for Help UFL: Use of Fillers CRF: Clarification
CFM: Confirmation

1→	T:	guys, are you done? (0.10)	PI (Self-CFM)
2→	S4:	teacher how to [describe ?]	PI (Other-DAH)
3→	T:	[hh:: just a moment]	R (Self-UFL, CRF)
4		let me finish my message	
5		(0.4) because someone is in my house	
6		° maybe it is important °	
7		give me:: 10 seconds (0.2) just a moment (0.14)	
8→	S4:	teacher ?	PI (Other-DAH)
9→	T:	yes:: just a moment:: (0.5)	R (Self-UFL, CRF) & (Other-CFM)
10		huh: I'm so rude (.) I'm SO sorry , it's an emergency	
11		I don't usually have my phone , I'm SORRY	
12		EMergency , someone is in my house	
13		(**clap**) OKAY , are you done ? yes ? yes ?	
14		okay:: ° yes na ? yes ? yes ? °	

The classroom interaction in Extract E(22) was ultimately unsuccessful due to the teacher's need to address a personal emergency, which disrupted the classroom dynamic. Additionally, the lack of clear strategies for re-engaging students after the interruption highlighted the importance of strong pedagogical skills in managing disruptions and sustaining student engagement.

The interaction began with the teacher initiating participation by asking the class to confirm their progress (line 1). This prompt was directed at the whole-class and aimed to maintain momentum in the lesson. In response, S4 attempted to engage by directly appealing to the teacher for help, though the question raised was unrelated

to the teacher's initial prompt (line 2). Despite the misalignment, S4's response indicated a willingness to participate. However, the interaction was abruptly stalled when the teacher announced the need to address a personal emergency. The teacher offered a brief explanation for the delay, signaling a temporary pause and attempting to manage the disruption while maintaining classroom awareness (lines 3-7). During this pause, S4 persisted by making another appeal for the teacher's attention (line 8), demonstrating continued engagement and a desire for support. The teacher responded by acknowledging S4's presence but continued to delay addressing the query (line 9). The teacher apologized for the interruption and provided additional context to explain the urgency and unusual nature of the emergency (lines 10–12). Unfortunately, the teacher failed to return to S4's original question, shifting the focus entirely to the emergency. This lapse represented a missed opportunity to support student learning and reflected a breakdown in instructional follow-through. Eventually, the teacher attempted to re-establish classroom flow by redirecting the students' attention back to the task and prompting them to confirm their progress once again (lines 13–14). Although the class was nominally re-engaged, the unresolved nature of S4's question and the absence of a clear pedagogical response left the interaction incomplete and ineffective.

This interaction reveals a critical lapse in pedagogical skills: the teacher did not effectively reorient the classroom focus after the interruption. Although the use of IPSs—such as UFL, CRF, and CFM —demonstrated an attempt to manage the situation empathetically, the pedagogical goal of supporting student understanding was not fulfilled. The unresolved nature of the student's inquiry and the lack of explicit closure underscore the communicative breakdown. These findings support Smit's (2010) argument that effective classroom management and clear, responsive communication are vital components of strong pedagogical practice. Disruptions, particularly emergencies, can significantly derail classroom dynamics if not handled with composure and strategic planning. In this case, the teacher's repeated apologies and extended explanation diverted attention from the core learning objectives, ultimately hindering participation.

This episode exemplifies how pedagogical breakdowns—especially those related to classroom management during emergencies—can negatively impact

communicative outcomes. As Chaisiri (2022) emphasizes, effective pedagogical practice requires not only content knowledge but also the capacity to make real-time decisions that preserve the integrity of instructional interactions. When disruptions are not strategically managed, students may experience confusion, disengagement, or frustration, ultimately undermining the learning environment. Research supports the view that strong classroom management is essential for successful communication in the EFL context. For example, studies by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) and Williams (2023) indicate that disruptions—whether external (e.g., noise or emergencies) or internal (e.g., lack of task clarity)—can derail student participation and limit the effectiveness of communicative strategies. Teachers must be equipped not only with linguistic and pragmatic tools but also with the professional agility to maintain focus and restore task continuity in moments of unexpected interruption. Moreover, this case highlights the need for contingency planning as part of effective pedagogical skills. While emergencies are unpredictable, having a strategy to swiftly acknowledge the interruption, delegate control (if necessary), and return to pedagogical objectives can help prevent communicative derailment. A follow-up to S4's question, even briefly, would have signaled attentiveness and reinforced the instructional goal.

The failure of communication in this instance was not due to a lack of IPSs per se but rather a breakdown in pedagogical scaffolding and classroom flow management. While the teacher's emotional openness and apologies humanized the moment, they did not suffice to sustain instructional coherence. This underscores the need for professional development programs that address not only pragmatic strategy use but also adaptive classroom management techniques. As this study has shown, pedagogical skills are central to the success of the deployment of IPSs. Without clear classroom leadership and the ability to manage disruptions tactfully, even robust IPSs may fall short of resolving communication problems. Future teacher training should incorporate simulations of such high-pressure scenarios to build both pedagogical resilience and strategic responsiveness.

4.5.3 Knowledge (KL)

In the context of interactional communication, knowledge refers to a speaker's ability to understand and respond appropriately to language input in real time. While linguistic competence provides the foundation, it is the adaptive application of this knowledge—especially in dynamic and unpredictable situations—that determines communicative success (Smit, 2010; Mauranen, 2012). When students lack the ability to interpret contextual cues or apply linguistic resources flexibly, communication may break down even when IPSs are present.

The following case illustrates a communication breakdown caused primarily by limitations in adaptive knowledge. Despite the use of multiple IPSs by both teacher and student, mutual understanding was not achieved. This case highlights that linguistic knowledge, in isolation, is insufficient for successful classroom interaction.

Case Example: Inflexible Application of Knowledge in Role-Play

Extract E(23) [P:19.7.24.W10] (Transcript lines 436-448)

PT: Prompting	RPD: Responding	STL: Stalling
UFL: Use of Fillers	RPS: Rephrasing	CRF: Clarification
RPT: Repetition	NVB: Non-verbal	BCC: Backchanneling Cue

1→	S22:	hello:: , I am ((0.8)) at the zoo::	PI (Self-PT)
2		do you want me to guide you ?	
3→	T:	ah::: no:: but I want to join the ZOO TOUR	R (Other-BCC, RPD, CRF)
4		tomorrow:::	
5→	S22:	(0.5)	PI (Self-NVB)
6→	T:	tomorrow , <not> today	R (Other-RPS)
7→	S22:	um:: do you::: ? do you:::: ?	PI (Self-STL, UFL, RPT)
8→	T:	yes:: not:: not today , tomorrow:::	R (Other-RPS) & (Self-RPT)
9→	S22:	do you want me to:: to:: to call to:::: ?	PI (Self-RPT)
10→	T:	no:::: , but I want to reserve for <tomorrow>	R (Other-RPS, CRF)
11		I want to join the tour in zoo tomorrow::	
12→	S22:	phone , can I call a taxi for you ?	PI (Self-PT)

13→ T: okay:::bye:::. NU (Non-understanding)

(Polite termination without resolution)

In Extract E(23), S22 and the teacher engaged in an impromptu role-play designed to simulate a real-life conversation about joining a zoo tour. The task required S22 to prepare and deliver dialogue in response to unexpected prompts from the teacher, thereby testing the student's ability to adapt and respond fluently in an unpredictable communicative context. Although S22 had rehearsed certain parts of the dialogue beforehand, she struggled with comprehension and real-time interaction. This highlighted a gap in knowledge skill, which emerged as the primary challenge in the interaction. Specifically, S22's difficulty in interpreting the situation and producing appropriate responses demonstrated a lack of adaptive language use—a critical element in successful role-play activities.

The interaction opened with S22 greeting the teacher and introducing the zoo setting, thereby establishing the context for the conversation (line 1). S22 then offered assistance by asking whether the teacher needed a guide, signaling a willingness to be helpful (line 2). In response, the teacher politely declined this offer and instead stated the intent to join the zoo tour, specifying that the tour would take place *"tomorrow"* (lines 3–4). S22 responded with a silent pause, indicating hesitation or the need to process the information (line 5). To clarify, the teacher reiterated the key detail—*"tomorrow, not today"*—emphasizing the time frame to ensure understanding (line 6). S22 then attempted to formulate a follow-up question but stalled, repeating phrases such as *"do you"* multiple times. This repetition reflected difficulty in organizing thoughts and progressing with the dialogue (line 7). Sensing the continued confusion, the teacher once again reassured S22 and repeated the request, emphasizing the need to book the tour for *"tomorrow"* (line 8). In an attempt to contribute, S22 asked if the teacher wanted to make a call (line 9), which, although well-intentioned, misaligned with the teacher's original request. The teacher responded with further clarification, restating the desire to reserve a spot for the zoo tour the next day and emphasizing the specific intent (lines 10–11). S22 then shifted to a different form of assistance by offering to call a taxi (line 12), a helpful gesture, but one unrelated to the actual request. The teacher concluded the interaction with a polite *"okay, bye,"* signaling the

end of the conversation without the original communicative goal being achieved (line 13).

This extract sheds light on the role of knowledge application in role-play tasks, particularly the importance of processing and using linguistic information in real-time interactions. The focus here is on S22's challenges in adapting language to meet situational demands, despite having prepared certain phrases in advance. While S22 demonstrated an initial understanding by introducing the scenario and attempting to assist, their difficulty in responding to the teacher's evolving prompts revealed a lack of flexibility in language use. Key indicators included verbal STL, RPT, and RPD that diverged from the communicative objective. These behaviors suggest a gap in S22's ability to transfer linguistic knowledge to dynamic, interactive situations. The teacher's repeated attempts to clarify, redirect, and scaffold the conversation further underscore that the primary barrier to effective communication was not pedagogical in nature but rather a limitation in S22's adaptive language skills. This aligns with Smit's (2010) findings, which emphasize that effective role-play requires more than rote linguistic knowledge; it also demands the ability to process context-specific cues and respond accordingly. S22's performance illustrates a common challenge faced by language students: transitioning from rehearsed language to spontaneous, meaningful interaction.

This episode underscores a crucial issue in classroom interaction: the inability to apply linguistic knowledge adaptively in novel or fluid situations. While S22 had likely memorized phrases, her inability to infer meaning from the teacher's contextual cues or shift conversational strategies reflects a deeper gap between declarative knowledge and procedural fluency. This aligns with research by Smit (2010) and Dörnyei and Scott (1997), who stress that the successful use of IPSs depends on students' ability to integrate cognitive, pragmatic, and linguistic skills in real time. The challenges faced by S22 also reflect the transitional difficulty many EFL students encounter when moving from controlled practice to spontaneous communication (Dang et al., 2024; Boonsuk & Ambele, 2024). In these moments, students may resort to overgeneralized phrases or "safe" language that fails to meet the communicative demands of the task.

The case reveals a critical insight: knowledge alone is not communicative competence. Teachers must explicitly develop students' capacity to interpret shifting contexts, draw inferences, and flexibly restructure language during interaction. Role-play and impromptu speaking tasks should be scaffolded with pre-task MDL, ECR, and CRF to gradually build students' responsiveness and linguistic agility. Furthermore, strategies such as TLG can support meaning-making by allowing students to draw on their full linguistic repertoire during breakdowns. Encouraging peer-supported interaction or reflecting on role-play outcomes can also enhance metacognitive awareness and foster adaptive communication skills (García & Wei, 2014; Ambele, 2022). In this case, the student's communicative failure was not due to a lack of vocabulary or effort, but to a limited ability to process and apply language adaptively under pressure. The interaction emphasizes the need for a more holistic approach to communicative competence—one that integrates linguistic knowledge with strategic responsiveness, contextual awareness, and cultural pragmatics. Addressing these elements through reflective practice and targeted instruction can enhance students' interactional readiness and support more effective communication in EFL contexts.

4.6 Interpreting Problem Types and Interactional Solutions in Classroom Communication

4.6.1 Reframing Problem Types: Adaptations to Smit's (2010) Repairables Framework

The previous sections on resourcing IPSs in the classroom have illustrated how IPSs support communication, which problems were solved, and how the problems observed worked well within Smit's (2010) framework of repairables (see Appendix N); nevertheless, some categories were slightly modified to fit the findings of the current study. Grammar and instruction remained the same, but pronunciation, vocabulary, mishearing, reference, discourse, and factual problems were modified to include new outcomes. Table 8 shows these modifications.

Table 8 *Problem Adaptations*

Categories	Explanation (Smit, 2010)	Findings/Modifications
Linguistic Pronunciation (pro)	Phonological and pronunciation-linked problems	Phonological and pronunciation-linked problems (phonemic similarity confusion and spelling-induced pronunciation errors)
Linguistic Grammar (gra)	Morphological and syntactic problems	Same (grammar problems)
Linguistic Vocabulary (voc)	Lexical choice, unclear denotation or idiomatic expressions, technical terms (can overlap with 'ref' and 'facI')	Lexical choice, unclear denotation (can overlap with 'ref,' 'facI,' 'dis,' facR)
Interactional Mishearing (mis)	Problems of intelligibility (can overlap with 'pro,' 'voc,' 'ref')	Intelligibility problems including mishearing (can overlap with 'ref' and 'pro'), partial hearing (can overlap with 'pro'), and non-hearing (can overlap with 'dis')
Interactional Reference (ref)	Problems of referential specifications, situated meaning	Problems of referential specifications linked to previous words and utterances, situated meaning of content, and classroom activity.
Interactional Discourse (dis)	Problems of topic development and turn-taking	Problems of topic development and turn-taking that include phenomena such as silence, overlapping, speech pace,

Categories	Explanation (Smit, 2010)	Findings/Modifications
		hesitation, and repetition, soft voice (overlap with 'mis')
Factual Instructional (facI)	Topic or content-linked repairables in the instructional register	Same (instructional problems of contents/topics)
Factual Regulative (facR)	Topic or content-linked repairables in regulative register	Lesson organizational matters related to topics or contents and external factors.

The linguistic category in this study has been slightly modified in terms of how the problems were analyzed, compared to Smit (2010). For instance, in the area of pronunciation, Smit broadly referred to *phonological and pronunciation-linked problems*. However, the current study identified specific subcategories relevant to the Thai EFL university context. One such subcategory is phonemic similarity confusion, which refers to cases where two words or sounds are phonetically similar, causing confusion or misinterpretation during communication. These types of errors are especially common in English, where the relationship between spelling and pronunciation is often inconsistent.

For example, the Thai words *"Hong"* (sworn) and *"Hong"* (room) share the same syllable sound /hɒŋ/ in both English and Thai pronunciation, leading to potential confusion in context (see Extract E (2)). Another subcategory identified is spelling-induced pronunciation errors, where students mispronounce words due to reliance on spelling rather than phonetic cues. For instance, the spelling of the word *"Noon:::"* as *">Nun<"* resulted in the teacher mispronouncing it, influenced by the incorrect spelling rather than the correct sound /nu:n/ (see Appendix J, Extract E(1)). This finding highlights how spelling can interfere with pronunciation and subsequently affect communication clarity.

Regarding grammar, this study retained Smit's (2010) categorization of morphological and syntactic problems, without modification.

The vocabulary category in Smit's framework includes lexical choice, unclear denotation, idiomatic expressions, and technical terms, with overlaps into other categories like 'ref' and 'facI'. However, the findings of this study introduced a slight variation: there was a noticeable absence of idiomatic expressions and technical terminology in the EFL classroom. The teacher followed the textbook closely, opting for simplified, standard language to ensure comprehensibility for all students, many of whom were unfamiliar with more complex or idiomatic English. This pedagogical decision likely stemmed from a desire to prevent misunderstandings and maintain clarity in a multilingual classroom setting.

Interestingly, vocabulary-related issues in this context showed greater overlap with other categories than originally proposed by Smit. Specifically, vocabulary problems intersected with 'ref,' 'facI,' 'dis,' and 'facR'. For example, under 'dis' (interactional discourse), there was confusion between the terms *"flight attendant"* and *"flight agent"* (see Appendix J, Extract E(2)). Under 'facR' (factual regulative issues), one student confused *"point"* with *"percent,"* a misunderstanding likely arising from an unfamiliarity with technical terminology or contextual use (see Extract E(14)).

In the interactional category, the concept of mishearing was re-examined. While Smit (2010) defined mishearing as intelligibility problems—potentially overlapping with 'pro,' 'voc,' and 'ref'—the term in her analysis appeared to focus primarily on hearing the *wrong* word. This study argues that such a narrow definition omits partial hearing and complete non-hearing, which are also critical to understanding intelligibility issues. As such, this study expands the category to include mishearing, partial hearing, and non-hearing.

For example, a mishearing instance involved the confusion between *"late::"* */leɪt/* and *"leave::"* */liːv/* (see Appendix J, Extract E(3)). Partial hearing was observed when "flexible */ˈflɛk.sɪ.bəl/*" produced as */ˈfɪ.sɪ.bəl/* (see Appendix J, Extract E(4)), *"sworn"* */swɔːrn/* was mistaken for *"Saun"* */saːn/,* and *"Playboy"* */ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/* was mistaken for *"Playban"* */ˈpleɪ.baːn/* (see Extracts E(2) and E(8)). Finally, non-hearing instances, such as when a student softly uttered *"°hello::: can I help you?°,"* required teacher intervention: *">lou↑der, please::< I cannot hear you, again::?"* (see

Appendix J, Extract E(5)). These cases demonstrate that intelligibility problems often overlap with other categories and are not unique.

In terms of reference, Smit (2010) defined referential problems as involving *specifications and situated meanings*. This study extends that definition by showing that referential issues are not only linked to previous utterances but can also arise from classroom content and activities. For instance, a teacher verifying a student's name initially assumed *"A"* to be a girl based on the name and said, *"I thought A… oh::: sorry I have a friend:: she's a girl, and her name is A."* Upon discovering that S3 identified as a ladyboy, the teacher softened the assumption and said humorously, *"you are a cute boy:::"* (see Appendix J, Extract E(6)). This case illustrates how reference can draw on broader social and contextual cues beyond prior utterances.

The discourse category deals with topic development and turn-taking (Smit, 2010). This study revealed additional discourse issues, including abrupt topic changes, hesitation and repetition, and soft voice, many of which overlapped with 'mis'. For instance, an abrupt topic change occurred when S7 tried to initiate a role-play as a hotel clerk, saying *"hi, guest, I [want to::],"* but was interrupted by the teacher: *"[no:::::::..], you are the guest, I am the hotel clerk"* (see Appendix J, ExtractE (7)). This interruption disrupted the conversation flow.

In cases of hesitation and repetition, speakers struggled to maintain fluency. For example, a teacher in role-play said: *"oh yes, hi teacher:: ah::: I'm new here and ah::: I'm new here"* (see Appendix J, Extract E(8)), repeating the same phrase and hesitating throughout. This disrupted the message's clarity and delayed turn-taking. Similarly, speaking in a soft voice caused communication breakdowns. S3's softly spoken greeting *"° hello::: can I help you?°"* required the teacher to prompt repetition for comprehension, again overlapping with mishearing issues (see Appendix J, Extract E(5)).

The factual instructional problems subcategory remained consistent with Smit's (2010) definition. It includes issues related to topic or content instruction, observable from the beginning of class (e.g., introducing the topic) through various stages such as checking answers, discussions, homework tasks, vocabulary work,

pronunciation practice, confidence-building in speaking, and summarizing lesson content.

The regulative problems, which Smit (2010) described as topic- or content-linked *repairables* in the regulative register, were slightly redefined. While Smit confined the analysis to *situation-internal* elements without reference to external norms, the current study also considers external classroom factors that disrupt interactions. This broader analytical lens is informed by Discourse Analysis (Ritchie et al., 2014), which incorporates contextual issues, as opposed to Smit's Conversation Analysis approach (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Seedhouse, 2004), which focuses on turn-by-turn interaction.

Consequently, regulative problems in this study encompass lesson organization, instructional challenges, and external classroom routines, such as asking for permission to enter, prohibiting phone use, enforcing English-only policies, grading practices, notebook formatting, and score tallying.

Finally, it is important to note that the overlap between categories was more extensive than suggested by Smit (2010). In the current study, overlaps between categories (e.g., between pronunciation, vocabulary, mishearing, reference, discourse, and regulative) were more common and varied. As a result, the categorization in this study intentionally leaves open the specification of overlaps, recognizing their complex and context-dependent nature.

4.6.2 Progression of IPSs: From Simple to Complex Forms of Strategic Competence

This subsection explores the dynamic progression of IPSs used by the teacher and students in the Thai EFL classroom, tracing a continuum from basic to more sophisticated forms of strategic language use. The analysis reveals that the deployment of IPSs is not random but follows discernible patterns reflecting students' growing pragmatic competence. This developmental trajectory suggests that as interlocutors gain confidence and linguistic resources, they tend to move from reliance on simple, reactive strategies to the more complex, proactive, and context-sensitive forms of communication.

At the simplest level, strategies such as BCC *(e.g., "uh-huh," "yeah"),* RPT, and UFL were commonly employed. These strategies served foundational functions—maintaining conversational flow, signaling attentiveness, and buying time for speech planning. For instance, when students hesitated during spontaneous speaking tasks, fillers and repetitions often preceded their substantive responses. These basic IPSs functioned as interactional scaffolds, allowing students to remain engaged in discourse even when faced with lexical or grammatical uncertainty.

As students' proficiency and confidence increased, their strategic repertoire expanded to include more goal-directed strategies such as PT, CRF, and DAH. These intermediate-level IPSs marked a shift from passive participation to active negotiation of meaning. For example, in classroom discussions and pair work, students frequently used DAH to elicit information from peers or sought confirmation to ensure understanding. Such strategies reflect an emerging awareness of the cooperative nature of communication and the interlocutor's role in co-constructing meaning.

More complex IPSs were typically associated with instructional or cognitively demanding tasks, such as discussions and role-play simulations. These included strategies like ITS, SCF, PRPS, RPS, and TLG. Unlike the simpler strategies, which addressed immediate interactional needs, these complex IPSs often involved higher-order thinking and metapragmatic awareness. For instance, TLG was strategically used not merely to fill lexical gaps but to enhance metalinguistic understanding and support peer comprehension. Similarly, SCF provided structured support that guided students toward more autonomous language use.

The data suggest that these more sophisticated strategies were often deployed in response to communication breakdowns involving abstract concepts, cross-linguistic ambiguity, or task-related confusion. Importantly, these IPSs were frequently resourced in combination—chained together in real-time interaction—to manage multifaceted communicative demands. For example, in one interaction, a student mispronounced an English term, prompting the teacher to model the correct form, encourage repeated attempts, and provide verbal positive-reinforcement, all while integrating non-verbal cues and occasional L1 references to reinforce meaning.

This chaining of IPSs reflects a holistic communicative competence, wherein pragmatic awareness, linguistic knowledge, and interactional sensitivity converge.

In sum, the observed progression from simple to complex IPSs illustrates the adaptive and developmental nature of pragmatic strategy use in EFL classrooms. This continuum not only underscores students' increasing agency and linguistic maturity but also highlights the pedagogical importance of fostering a supportive environment where diverse IPSs are modeled, practiced, and valued. The strategic flexibility observed in this study aligns with communicative competence models (Canale & Swain, 1980; Bachman, 1990) and reinforces the role of IPSs as critical tools for facilitating intelligibility, sustaining interaction, and fostering mutual understanding in multilingual learning contexts.

4.6.3 Strategic Interplay: The Interconnectivity of IPSs in Collaborative Meaning-Making

This subsection explores the dynamic interplay among IPSs as they coalesce in real-time classroom discourse to facilitate mutual understanding. Rather than functioning in isolation, IPSs were frequently deployed in overlapping, sequential, or recursive ways—what can be described as strategic chaining. These interconnected strategies served as tools for managing communicative challenges, maintaining conversational coherence, and co-constructing meaning between teacher and students in the Thai EFL context.

The analysis of classroom interactions revealed that successful communication often relied not on a single strategy, but on the orchestration of multiple IPSs in response to evolving interactional demands. This phenomenon was especially evident during episodes of communication breakdown or hesitation, where interlocutors combined strategies such as PT, RPT, RP, and ECR to sustain engagement and clarify meaning. For example, a student encountering difficulty in pronunciation might initially respond with a filler *(e.g., "uh::"),* followed by a hesitant attempt at the target word. In response, the teacher might use prompting *("say it again"),* modeling of the correct form, and verbal positive-reinforcement *("good job")*—a sequence that underscores the collaborative and cumulative nature of IPSs deployment.

Moreover, the chaining of IPSs was not random but showed clear functional relationships. PT often triggered CRF or RP sequences; RPT was frequently followed by PR and TLG regularly emerged as a strategic response to unsuccessful RP or CRF attempts. These patterns suggest a high level of strategic awareness and pedagogical sensitivity among both teachers and students, particularly in their ability to fluidly switch between strategies to manage discourse and support peer learning.

For instance, in interactions involving unfamiliar vocabulary or abstract content, students might begin by guessing the target word, then appeal to peers or the teacher for confirmation. Upon receiving feedback, they often reformulated their utterance, drawing on both English and their first language to clarify meaning. Teachers, in turn, reinforced these attempts through NVB, TLG, or SCF. This cyclical pattern of strategy use illustrates how meaning is not only negotiated but dynamically co-constructed through mutual responsiveness and interactional alignment.

Additionally, this interconnectivity of strategies contributed to the emergence of interactional routines, whereby specific IPS combinations became recurrent patterns in the classroom discourse. These routines provided students with familiar communicative templates, lowering anxiety and enabling more fluid participation. For example, the sequence of CRF → MDL → RPT → PR became a recognizable interactional rhythm, especially in pronunciation-focused tasks. Similarly, during role-plays, students and teacher frequently used a sequence of DAH → RP → SCF → PR, demonstrating strategic competence in orchestrating interactional tools.

Such patterns of interconnected IPSs use support the argument that pragmatic competence in ELF classrooms involves not only the selection of appropriate strategies but also the ability to coordinate and adapt them in real-time interaction. This aligns with interactional competence theory (Young, 2011) and the sociocultural view of language learning, which posits that meaning is co-constructed through guided participation and contextualized scaffolding. The teacher's role in modeling these inter-strategic connections was particularly salient, as students often mirrored these combinations in peer-to-peer exchanges, gradually internalizing them as part of their pragmatic repertoire.

In sum, the interconnectivity of IPSs in the co-construction of meaning reflects the complex, situated, and dialogic nature of classroom communication. This strategic synergy highlights the importance of fostering not just isolated strategy use, but the ability to flexibly integrate multiple IPSs to meet the communicative demands of diverse learning situations. Recognizing and supporting this interplay is essential for developing students' interactional competence and ensuring more effective and inclusive ELF pedagogy.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter addressed the first two research questions through an in-depth analysis of classroom discourse, supported by triangulated data sources including audio recordings, observational field notes, and classroom transcripts. Drawing on a micro-ethnographic approach, the chapter provided both qualitative and frequency-based insights into the use of interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs) by a teacher and students in a Thai university EFL classroom.

In relation to RQ1, the findings revealed that participants employed a diverse range of IPSs to manage interaction and facilitate communication. These strategies included well-established, literature-based IPSs—such as RPT, RP, CRF, PT, and GS—as well as context-specific strategies that emerged organically from the Thai classroom setting, including ECR, MDL, PR, SCF, and TLG. Notably, while students often used IPSs reactively to cope with linguistic difficulties, teacher tended to initiate and model IPSs use more proactively, playing a directive role in scaffolding students' communicative development. For RQ2, the analysis illustrated how IPSs were crucial in resolving linguistic problems (e.g., pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary gaps), interactional challenges (e.g., mishearing, incomplete discourse, or referential ambiguity), and factual issues (e.g., factual instructional and factual regulative). Importantly, these strategies were frequently used in combination—forming what the study terms *strategic chaining*—to collaboratively co-construct meaning. The data also emphasized the multimodal nature of classroom communication, as verbal strategies were often supported by non-verbal cues such as gestures, facial expressions, and intonation, further reinforcing understanding and engagement.

Across a variety of task types—including discussion, role-play, and impromptu role-play —the findings underscored the adaptability and pedagogical function of IPSs in maintaining communicative flow, boosting student confidence, and fostering mutual intelligibility. The emergence of context-specific IPSs suggests that strategic language use is not only driven by linguistic necessity but also shaped by sociocultural norms, pedagogical intentions, and classroom dynamics. Collectively, the results highlight the interconnectivity and developmental progression of IPSs, illustrating how students move from using simple strategies to deploying more complex and integrated forms of strategic competence. These findings underscore the importance of cultivating not only individual strategy use but also strategic interplay, where multiple IPSs are coordinated flexibly to address diverse communicative challenges. The classroom discourse examined in this chapter affirms that both universal and contextually grounded IPSs are vital resources in promoting effective ELF communication. Finally, the chapter points to the importance of pedagogical practices that support the development of students' strategic interactional competence. Teachers' modeling, responsiveness, and scaffolding were pivotal in fostering an environment conducive to strategic communication. These insights form a strong foundation for the next phase of the study.

Chapter V will build upon these findings by exploring participants' perceptions of IPSs use, thus linking observable pragmatic behaviors with students' and instructors' reflective insights. This shift from discourse-based analysis to perceptual data offers a more holistic understanding of IPSs—not only as external strategies but also as internalized communicative competencies that shape language learning and use in the classroom.

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CHAPTER V
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION (RQ3): PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTIONS OF IPSs

This chapter presents findings related to Research Question 3 (RQ3), which explores how both the teacher and students perceive the use of IPSs in an EFL classroom context. While the previous chapter examined the implementation of IPSs during classroom interactions, this chapter focuses on participants' reflective insights into the effectiveness, challenges, and impact of these strategies on communication and learning. Drawing on semi-structured interview data, the analysis reveals key themes that represent participants' views, including the role of IPSs in facilitating communication, addressing classroom challenges, promoting cultural awareness, enhancing engagement, and supporting language development. These themes are organized into two sections: the teacher's perceptions (see 5.1) and students' perceptions (see 5.2). Each theme is supported by direct excerpts from interview transcripts and interpreted within current pedagogical and sociolinguistic frameworks.

5.1 Teacher's Insights into the Use of IPSs

This section examines the teacher's perceptions of IPSs in classroom interactions, focusing on how these strategies facilitate communication, address classroom challenges, and enhance learning in a Thai EFL context. The teacher's responses reflect both intuitive practices and reflective evaluations of the instructional approaches. Overall, the teacher viewed IPSs as instrumental in building a supportive, inclusive, and responsive learning environment. These perceptions are categorized into five subthemes: (1) effective communication strategies, (2) managing communication challenges, (3) cultural sensitivity in instruction, (4) fostering students' engagement, and (5) supporting language development.

5.1.1 Effective Communication Strategies

The teacher consistently acknowledged the value of IPSs in clarifying meaning and supporting students' understanding. Strategies such as repetition (RPT), repair (RP), translanguaging (TLG), and non-verbal (NVB) emerged as integral tools in the teacher's repertoire. These strategies were often deployed instinctively to bridge communication gaps, especially when students appeared confused or disengaged.

Excerpt 5.1

"Personally, if my students still don't understand after I correct them, using examples or acting out and speaking some Thai words, what I mean can help clarify things for them." (T)

Excerpt 5.2

"To me, when it comes to listening and speaking, I realized that what I would usually do is ask someone to talk with me there at the front and then do a sample conversation. Then I just keep giving them examples and examples as long as I can until they all can understand." (T)

Excerpt 5.3

"I would say sometimes I would lower my level of English. I would say that the term for that one is to dumb down. Dumb down the English, speak slowly, and coordinate with the body language as well." (T)

Excerpt 5.4

"I am always unaware of using IPSs. Although I may sometimes notice them during interactions, I seldom consider how these strategies assist me in managing and overcoming communication challenges." (T)

Excerpt 5.5

"It seems to me when I see incorrect grammar, I correct and repeat it repeatedly, even if it seems redundant, to help students avoid repeating the same mistake. But sometimes, I wonder if so much repetition is truly helpful or counterproductive." (T)

The findings revealed that the teacher viewed IPSs as essential components in fostering a collaborative and responsive learning environment. For instance, the teacher highlighted how modeling dialogues, using simple vocabulary, or incorporating Thai words could clarify meaning and reduce ambiguity. The use of gestures and slowing down speech also helped students better comprehend content. This perception highlights the intuitive and adaptive nature of IPSs use in classroom instruction, where the teacher continuously adjusts strategies to accommodate students' comprehension and engagement. The use of strategies such as RP and RPT

was particularly emphasized as effective for reinforcing linguistic accuracy and providing students with repeated exposure to target structures (see Excerpts 5.1 and 5.2). These practices align with Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) conceptualization of communication strategies as tools for resolving breakdowns and facilitating self-correction during interaction. Furthermore, the teacher's intuitive deployment of IPSs aligns with Kulsawang and Ambele's (2024) observation that experienced educators often employ pragmatic strategies without explicit awareness.

In addition, TLG was employed to create linguistically meaningful contexts in which students could navigate between English and Thai, thereby constructing understanding and expressing themselves authentically. This approach resonates with García and Lin's (2017) view of TLG as a pedagogical tool that bridges linguistic gaps and affirms multilingual identities. Recent studies (e.g., Curle et al., 2024; Ambele, 2022; Huang & Chalmer, 2023) further affirm that TLG promotes inclusivity and engagement, particularly in linguistically diverse classrooms. NVB such as gestures and facial expressions, along with simplification of language (see Excerpt 5.3), were also strategically used to enhance comprehension, particularly for lower-proficiency students, underscoring the importance of multimodal scaffolding in meaning-making (Tai & Li, 2020; Lin & He, 2017).

Despite these largely positive reflections, the teacher acknowledged a lack of conscious awareness in deploying IPSs, noting that many strategies were used instinctively during interaction rather than being deliberately planned (see Excerpt 5.4). This observation aligns with research by Khenat (2023) and Sari et al. (2023), who found that experienced teachers often rely on intuitive strategies, drawing from pedagogical experience rather than explicit frameworks. Kulsawang and Ambele (2024) further argue that such intuitive deployment of IPSs reflects deep pedagogical knowledge, though it may limit opportunities for reflective practice and strategic refinement.

Moreover, the teacher expressed ambivalence about certain IPSs, particularly the use of RPT. While RPT was acknowledged as a valuable tool for emphasizing correct language use and reinforcing content, the teacher questioned whether excessive use might lead to diminished student engagement or reliance on teacher

correction (see Excerpt 5.5). This pedagogical dilemma raises important concerns about striking a balance between the benefits of repetition and the need to foster students' autonomy. As previous studies have shown, overcorrection can potentially undermine students' confidence and hinder the development of self-monitoring skills (Wong & Chapman, 2023; Pérez, 2023). To address the potential pitfalls of unconscious strategy use and excessive repetition, Yang (2024) recommends a balanced approach to corrective feedback. This includes combining clarification requests, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback to involve students in the error correction process actively. Similarly, Casla et al. (2025) emphasize that interactive feedback fosters metacognitive engagement and enhances students' ability to monitor and adjust their language use in real-time.

In conclusion, the teacher perceived IPSs as foundational to promoting effective communication, students' comprehension, and language development in the EFL classroom. Strategies such as RPT, RP, TLG, NVB, and role-playing were used flexibly and often intuitively to support the diverse needs of students. While the teacher's use of IPSs was largely beneficial, reflective considerations regarding overuse and unconscious application highlight the need for greater intentionality and professional development in the deployment of strategies. These findings highlight the importance of incorporating interactive, culturally responsive, and multimodal communication strategies into language teaching to enhance students' learning outcomes and engagement in multilingual contexts.

5.1.2 Addressing Communication Barriers Through Adaptation

The teacher identified key challenges in classroom communication, notably students' reluctance to seek clarification, reliance on memorized responses, and wide variations in language proficiency. These barriers were often linked to sociocultural factors, such as students' shyness, politeness norms, and a high-power distance classroom dynamic, which is common in many Asian educational contexts (Toomaneejinda & Paksasuk, 2024). To mitigate these challenges, the teacher employed a range of adaptive strategies, including the "buddy system," simplified questioning, and responsive adjustments based on non-verbal cues. For example, pairing high- and low-proficiency students enabled peer scaffolding, while adapting

questions in role-plays increased students' comfort and participation. These approaches support Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory, which highlights the importance of scaffolding in language development.

Excerpt 5.6

> "I believe with Thai students, it's important to adapt teachers' responses based on students' reactions and level of understanding. Many Thai students might hesitate to ask questions or clarify if they don't understand, so paying attention to their non-verbal cues, such as silence or smiling, and adjusting by explaining or approaching accordingly is essential. This helps ensure students genuinely grasp the concept rather than just nodding along out of politeness." (T)

Excerpt 5.7

> "I notice some low-proficiency students tend to be shy and hesitant to participate, while higher-level students are usually more confident. By pairing them during activities like the buddy system, I feel it encourages peer support—helping lower-level students build confidence and allowing higher-level students to practice skills like simplifying language, clarifying meanings, and providing explanations." (T)

Excerpt 5.8

> "I feel that tweaking the questions makes the randomized roleplay with my students more interesting and engaging for them." (T)

Excerpt 5.9

> "In my experience with Thai students, when I assign pair work using textbook dialogues, explain the meaning, and ask if they understand, they often say 'yes,' stay silent, or smile—even when they don't understand. Thai students tend to memorize scripts and are shy about asking questions." (T)

The teacher acknowledged the significant challenge of accommodating students with diverse English proficiency levels within a single classroom. To navigate these differences, the teacher employed several adaptive strategies aimed at promoting inclusivity and enhancing students' comprehension. CRF techniques were frequently used to ensure understanding, particularly for students who might struggle with

processing classroom input (see Excerpt 5.6). Additionally, the teacher implemented structured peer support through the “buddy system” (see Excerpt 5.7), pairing higher-proficiency students with peers needing more assistance. This practice facilitated scaffolded learning and peer-mediated interaction, helping to balance disparities in language skills across the classroom.

The teacher also adapted questions to increase engagement and accessibility, often “tweaking” them to align with students’ cognitive and linguistic readiness (see Excerpt 5.8). These tailored interactions reflect a responsive pedagogical approach in which instruction is continuously adapted based on real-time classroom dynamics. Despite these proactive strategies, the teacher expressed neutral to slightly negative views toward persistent communication challenges, particularly students’ reluctance to ask questions, shyness, and dependence on memorized scripts (see Excerpt 5.9). These behaviors were perceived as limiting opportunities for spontaneous and authentic interaction.

Such challenges are consistent with broader cultural and educational patterns observed in Asian contexts, where students are often socialized into classroom environments that emphasize deference to authority and avoidance of confrontation (Huang et al., 2025; Wei & Cao, 2024). In Thailand, specifically, these tendencies are linked to high power distance—a cultural dimension in which hierarchical relationships are emphasized and teacher authority is rarely questioned (Kulsawang & Ambele, 2024). Within this framework, students may interpret questioning or requesting clarification as disrespectful or face-threatening behavior, a notion rooted in face-saving theory (Toomaneejinda & Paksasuk, 2024). Consequently, students may avoid admitting confusion or expressing uncertainty during class interactions, instead opting for silence or polite agreement—even when comprehension is incomplete.

The teacher’s application of strategies such as the buddy system and question adaptation reflects an awareness of these culturally embedded behaviors and a commitment to fostering a supportive and confidence-building learning environment. By recognizing the socio-cultural dynamics influencing students’ participation, the teacher was able to address communicative barriers in ways that are both

linguistically and culturally responsive. Peer-based scaffolding, for instance, aligns with sociocultural theories of learning (Vygotsky, 1978), in which more capable peers mediate knowledge construction through collaborative interaction (Chan et al., 2025; Somsai & Interaprasert, 2011; Pornpibul, 2005). Moreover, the use of clarification strategies and impromptu roleplay highlights the importance of equipping students with tools for navigating real-time communication. These methods support students in developing interactional competence, a key component of communicative ability that goes beyond grammatical accuracy to include managing miscommunication, negotiating meaning, and responding adaptively to different interlocutors and contexts (Yang et al., 2025; Yong et al., 2024; Qizi, 2024).

As Santoso and Prasetyo (2024), Canagarajah (2018), and Pennycook (2017) argue, communicative proficiency is not simply about mastering a language system, but about using available linguistic, semiotic, and contextual resources effectively in socially situated interactions. In this study, the teacher's strategies reflect a recognition of this broader understanding of language use, one that incorporates both linguistic flexibility and cultural sensitivity.

In summary, the teacher viewed communication challenges as deeply rooted in the sociocultural fabric of the classroom, particularly in the Thai context. To address these issues, the teacher implemented a range of supportive strategies, including peer scaffolding, adapting questions, and using clarification techniques. These efforts created a classroom environment conducive to risk-taking, confidence-building, and student' participation. The findings underscore the importance of aligning instructional practices with the cultural and linguistic realities of students, providing valuable insights for EFL educators working in similarly diverse or hierarchical educational settings.

5.1.3 Integrating Cultural Sensitivity into Instruction

Cultural sensitivity emerged as a crucial component of the teacher's strategy use. The teacher emphasized the importance of acknowledging cultural nuances and tailoring content to align with students' lived experiences. Examples included explaining regional language differences (e.g., American vs. British English) and

referencing popular culture figures (e.g., BTS) to enhance relevance and engagement. These practices not only supported comprehension but also fostered rapport and inclusivity.

Excerpt 5.10

> "To me, it's important to explain cultural differences in language, like how in America, the toilet refers to the seat to use, while in Britain, the toilet means the entire room." (T)

Excerpt 5.11

> "I think it's important to relate to students' generation by using examples they connect with, like BTS or their favorite pop stars. I feel this helps create a shared context, making communication more engaging and meaningful. It also encourages students to use communication strategies, such as clarifying, asking for confirmation, or negotiating meaning, especially when discussing topics they are genuinely interested in." (T)

Excerpt 5.12

> "In my view, Thai students appreciate it more when the teacher can speak a little Thai. They seem to see the teacher making an effort, encouraging students to be more open and willing to try speaking in English." (T)

The findings revealed that the teacher placed strong emphasis on integrating students' cultural backgrounds into classroom practices and highlighted the pivotal role of cultural awareness in language instruction. This focus was particularly evident in the teacher's attention to the semantic variations across English varieties and the use of culturally relevant examples to facilitate understanding. For instance, the teacher pointed out how the word "*toilet*" holds different meanings in American and British English—a subtle yet crucial illustration of regional lexical variation (see Excerpt 5.10). This example not only raised students' awareness of global English diversity but also encouraged them to think critically about language in real-world contexts.

To further enhance students' engagement, the teacher purposefully incorporated familiar cultural references, such as popular K-pop groups like BTS, into classroom

discussions and examples (see Excerpt 5.11). These references served as meaningful points of connection that bridged generational and linguistic gaps, making the content more relatable and increasing students' willingness to participate. Humor, often grounded in culturally resonant comparisons, was also used strategically to create a relaxed and inclusive atmosphere, thereby lowering students' affective filters and encouraging risk-taking in language use (Krashen, 1981; Almuhammadi, 2024). Additionally, the teacher's occasional use of Thai words demonstrated empathy and reinforced a sense of mutual understanding between teacher and students (see Excerpt 5.12). This deliberate code-switching functioned as a form of translanguaging—a pedagogical approach that validates students' full linguistic repertoire to support meaning-making and comprehension in multilingual classrooms (García & Lin, 2017; Boonsuk & Ambele, 2024; Wu & Othman, 2025). By bridging the linguistic divide, the teacher created a psychologically safe environment in which students felt more confident and motivated to communicate in English, even when uncertain about their vocabulary or grammar.

These pedagogical practices align with current research, which emphasizes the critical role of sociocultural relevance in language learning. Garrett (2010) and Oboko and Egemba (2024) note that acknowledging students' cultural identities fosters motivation, engagement, and a sense of belonging in the classroom. The teacher's culturally responsive approach also aligns with Jenkins (2015) and Kirkpatrick (2010), who argue that exposure to a range of Englishes in ELF contexts equips students with the pragmatic awareness needed for cross-cultural communication. When students are aware that English is not monolithic but shaped by diverse linguistic and cultural norms, they are better prepared to navigate global interactions (Kulsawang & Ambele, 2024; Taglialatela, 2024). Furthermore, the incorporation of local linguistic resources into instruction supports recent calls in applied linguistics to reconceptualize classrooms as translingual spaces, where students' multiple languages serve as resources rather than barriers (Hidayati et al., 2024; Cordova & Ureña, 2024). In this way, translanguaging not only enhances comprehension but also challenges traditional monolingual ideologies that often dominate EFL classrooms in Asia (Canagarajah, 2018; Pennycook, 2017).

Overall, the teacher's culturally sensitive pedagogy played a crucial role in establishing rapport, enhancing classroom interaction, and supporting students' confidence. By drawing on familiar cultural references, incorporating humor, and demonstrating flexibility in language use, the teacher addressed communication challenges rooted in both linguistic and sociocultural factors. These strategies fostered active participation and mutual respect, contributing to a more inclusive and effective learning environment. The findings underscore the importance of adapting instructional practices to reflect the cultural and contextual realities of students. For EFL educators—especially those working in settings with high cultural homogeneity or power distance dynamics—this approach offers a valuable framework for promoting deeper engagement and fostering communicative competence grounded in students' lived experiences.

5.1.4 Fostering Students' Engagement Through Interactive Strategies

The teacher noted an apparent increase in students' participation when lessons incorporated interactive and personalized elements. Roleplaying, adjusted discussion prompts, and humor were cited as effective in reducing students' anxiety and encouraging authentic use of language. For example, modifying questions to include playful topics *("What do you think about aliens?")* elicited greater enthusiasm and sustained dialogue among students.

Excerpt 5.13

> "I think my students enjoy roleplaying, even though some say, 'That's not what I memorized.' I explain to them that in real life, you can't expect someone to say exactly what you've prepared and then respond to it." (T)

Excerpt 5.14

> "I feel that when I tweak the questions to make them more fun, like asking, 'What do you think about aliens?' students respond better and seem to enjoy the discussion more." (T)

The teacher observed that students responded positively to interactive instructional strategies, particularly those that made learning relatable, low-pressure, and enjoyable. These approaches included roleplaying and personalized discussion activities, both of which encouraged active participation and gradually reduced

students' communication anxiety. Roleplaying, for example, was used to simulate real-life scenarios in a safe and supportive environment, allowing students to practice language spontaneously without fear of making mistakes (see Excerpt 5.13). Similarly, the teacher reported success with modifying discussion questions to make them more engaging, such as incorporating imaginative or humorous topics like aliens, which fostered curiosity and sustained students' interest (see Excerpt 5.14). Despite students' initial hesitancy, these interactive techniques contributed to a noticeable increase in students' confidence and creative expression. As students became more comfortable, they demonstrated a greater willingness to experiment with language, take risks, and collaborate with peers in communicative tasks. These observations highlight the importance of employing student-centered, experiential strategies in EFL contexts, particularly where students may be hindered by cultural norms related to authority, error avoidance, or performance anxiety (Brookfield et al., 2023; Brody, 2024).

This pedagogical approach aligns with longstanding research emphasizing the centrality of interaction in language acquisition. Scholars such as Breen (2011), Hutchins (1991), and Zhai and Wibowo (2023) argue that learning occurs most effectively when students engage in authentic, task-based communication. Roleplaying, in particular, provides a dynamic space for students to co-construct meaning, develop communicative competence, and apply language in context-specific situations (Holmes & Riddiford, 2011; Yulita et al., 2023). These findings are echoed in Valero (2024) and Ly (2024), who stress that real-world, meaningful tasks enhance students' engagement and prepare students for communicative demands beyond the classroom. Moreover, the teacher's emphasis on low-stakes, creative activities is consistent with Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis, which posits that students acquire language more efficiently in environments where anxiety is minimized and motivation is high. Sevarakhon (2024) similarly highlights the benefits of enjoyment-based learning in lowering psychological barriers to participation. By incorporating playful or imaginative elements into classroom prompts, the teacher not only enhanced students' enjoyment but also stimulated their critical thinking and discourse skills. This aligns with Chiles (2023) and Mollick and Mollick (2023), who advocate for playful learning as a means of fostering creativity and deep cognitive engagement.

The teacher's reflections also echo Dörnyei's (2001) insights on second language motivation, particularly the notion that confidence and willingness to communicate evolve gradually in response to positive classroom experiences. Through repeated opportunities to interact in comfortable, familiar, and relevant contexts, students incrementally and meaningfully built their communicative competence. In this study, the teacher's perspective on students' engagement underscores the effectiveness of using interactive and culturally grounded teaching strategies to overcome communicative reluctance. Techniques such as role-playing, thematically relatable discussion topics, and cultivating a supportive classroom climate proved particularly successful in empowering Thai university students to participate actively. These findings reaffirm the importance of tailoring instruction to students' cultural, emotional, and linguistic realities, especially in contexts where traditional educational norms may inhibit spontaneous communication. Ultimately, interactive teaching strategies not only addressed students' initial hesitations but also nurtured a sense of agency and enjoyment in language use. By adapting activities to align with students' interests and contextual needs, the teacher fostered an environment that supports communicative risk-taking, builds confidence, and promotes sustained engagement—key outcomes for effective language learning in multilingual and EFL classrooms.

5.1.5 Promoting Language Development Through Real-World Application

Finally, the teacher emphasized the importance of fluency and real-world language use over grammatical perfection, especially during the early stages of learning. By encouraging students to speak freely, even with errors, the teacher sought to build confidence and communicative competence. Techniques such as critical questioning, vocabulary simplification, and spontaneous discussion were used to promote meaning-focused interaction.

Excerpt 5.15

> "I believe the focus of my teaching is conversation, so I prefer to put students in real-life scenarios immediately and provide them with the basics to navigate them effectively." (T)

Excerpt 5.16

"I think it's important to encourage my students to just speak without worrying about grammar. I tell them to keep speaking, and over time." (T)

Excerpt 5.17

"To me, asking critical questions related to the topic helps students gather their prior knowledge and speak freely about whatever comes to mind." (T)

The teacher placed strong emphasis on the role of continuous practice, critical thinking, and fluency-oriented instruction as central pillars for language development in the EFL classroom. A key focus of the teacher's approach was to encourage students to communicate freely without the fear of making grammatical errors, thereby creating a psychologically safe space where students felt empowered to experiment with language (see Excerpt 5.15). This perspective aligns with the principle that reducing anxiety facilitates language acquisition—a notion supported by Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis and reinforced by more recent studies emphasizing the importance of affective engagement in EFL settings (Sevarakhon, 2024; Haqnawaz, 2024).

The teacher's instructional approach prioritized meaning-making over grammatical perfection, stressing the value of adaptability and fluency in preparing students for real-world communication scenarios (see Excerpt 5.16). By shifting the focus away from rigid form and toward communicative competence, the teacher actively supported students in building confidence, engaging in spontaneous dialogue, and developing pragmatic skills necessary for effective interaction in diverse contexts. This perspective aligns with Caprario (2024), who underscores that effective communication in ELF environments often requires flexibility and intelligibility rather than native-like accuracy. To foster critical thinking, the teacher integrated thought-provoking questions and encouraged open-ended, spontaneous responses (see Excerpt 5.17). These practices encouraged students to retrieve prior knowledge, make inferences, and apply concepts in contextually relevant ways—skills essential for conversational problem-solving and higher-order cognitive development. The use of interactional questioning techniques aligns with the work of Anggraeni et al. (2023), who emphasize the connection between dialogic instruction and students' cognition.

Similarly, Cui and Teo (2023) and Rasyid (2023) argue that classroom interaction plays a pivotal role in stimulating reflective thought and developing students' communicative autonomy.

The teacher's emphasis on fluency and cognitive engagement also draws on foundational SLA theories, including Canale and Swain's (1980) framework of communicative competence, which emphasizes linguistic, sociolinguistic, and strategic dimensions of language use. According to Suer (2023), when students are encouraged to interpret, negotiate, and convey meaning—even in the absence of grammatical precision—they gain valuable exposure to the real-time demands of communication. This is particularly salient in Thai EFL contexts, where traditional classroom instruction has often favored rote memorization and teacher-centered delivery (Prabjandee, 2019; Walsh, 2011). By shifting toward an interactive, meaning-driven pedagogy, the teacher disrupted conventional patterns of language teaching and created space for more authentic and student-centered engagement. Moreover, the teacher's use of IPSs—including strategies such as repetition, clarification requests, and rephrasing—was closely tied to this broader goal of preparing students for communicative effectiveness beyond the classroom. These strategies were not just corrective but served as scaffolds that promoted students' independence and deeper engagement with content. Shawaqfeh et al. (2024) support this view by asserting that interactional strategies contribute to language development when they are used to mediate rather than dominate discourse. In summary, the teacher's perception of IPSs reflects a holistic understanding of language learning as a dynamic interplay among fluency, adaptability, and critical thinking. By encouraging students to focus on communication rather than perfection, the teacher created a classroom environment conducive to experimentation, reflection, and real-world language use. These findings highlight the importance of integrating interactional, fluency-oriented approaches into EFL pedagogy, particularly in contexts where students are traditionally conditioned to prioritize accuracy over expression. For educators seeking to cultivate communicative competence in global English contexts, this study offers valuable insights into the role of IPSs as tools for empowering students and fostering authentic, confidence-driven communication.

5.2 Students' Perceptions of IPSs Deployed in the Classroom

This section presents the perspectives of students regarding the use and effectiveness of IPSs within the classroom. Drawing on qualitative data from semi-structured interviews, the findings reveal a range of perceptions, primarily positive, though occasionally neutral or ambivalent, about how IPSs support learning and communication. Key themes that emerged include: (1) the use of IPSs to overcome communication barriers, (2) perceived benefits for learning and interpersonal interaction, (3) the teacher's role in facilitating IPSs use, (4) challenges associated with applying IPSs, and (5) the influence of interactive learning on IPSs development and effectiveness.

While most students acknowledged the value of IPSs in improving their ability to communicate in English, some expressed mixed feelings, citing difficulties such as limited vocabulary, fast-paced speech, and anxiety during spontaneous interactions. These varied perceptions reflect the complex and context-dependent nature of IPSs use, shaped by students' individual experiences, language proficiency levels, and the sociocultural dynamics of the classroom.

5.2.1 Use of IPSs for Overcoming Communication Barriers

Students consistently identified IPSs as crucial strategies for navigating communication breakdowns and maintaining engagement during classroom interactions. Techniques such as repetition (RPT), clarification (CRF), and non-verbal (NVB)—including gestures, facial expressions, and physical cues—were widely perceived as effective tools for ensuring mutual understanding. Despite often lacking formal knowledge of these terms, students described how they intuitively employed such strategies to manage moments of uncertainty or misunderstanding during classroom activities.

Excerpt 5.18

> "I notice that when I do not understand something, I often ask for repetition, like 'Teacher, can you say it again?' Sometimes, I also check with my classmates for clarification." (Student C)

Excerpt 5.19

> "It seems to me that using gestures and facial expressions helps when my classmates do not understand the meaning of my words." (Student A)

For instance, several students reported that when they did not fully understand the teacher or their peers, they would request repetition or clarification, or seek support from classmates. These practices demonstrate students' emerging strategic competence—the ability to recognize gaps in communication and take steps to resolve them, even when linguistic proficiency is limited. As Student C noted, asking for repetition and confirming understanding with peers helped them remain engaged and keep pace with the lesson (see Excerpt 5.18). Similarly, Student A explained that gestures and facial expressions helped convey meaning when words failed (see Excerpt 5.19).

These findings support Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) model of communication strategies, which positions IPSs as central to students' ability to maintain interaction and manage breakdowns in meaning. The use of RPT and CRF, in particular, aligns with Tarone's (1977) emphasis on the importance of student-initiated strategies in facilitating repair and promoting comprehensibility. More recent studies by Karacan (2023), Amelia (2024), and Rashidova (2023) similarly highlight that when students engage in meaning negotiation, whether through verbal repetition or multimodal cues, they take an active role in co-constructing understanding within interaction.

Additionally, the role of peer collaboration emerged as a recurring theme. Students frequently turned to classmates to clarify instructions or explain unfamiliar vocabulary, suggesting that social interaction played a critical role in their strategic language development. This aligns with the sociocultural theory of learning (Vygotsky, 1978), which emphasizes the importance of social mediation in cognitive and linguistic development. Peer-supported IPSs use not only facilitated comprehension but also reinforced students' confidence in using English as a communicative tool. Interestingly, students were often unaware that the strategies they used had pedagogical or theoretical underpinnings. This unawareness is reflected in findings by Wong and Chapman (2023) and Almusaed et al. (2023), who noted that

students frequently develop pragmatic strategies informally, based on interactional necessity rather than formal instruction. Nonetheless, the strategic deployment of IPSs, even if unconscious, underscores students' ability to adapt and manage language demands in real-time communication. In sum, students viewed IPSs as indispensable for overcoming communication challenges in the classroom. Through the use of RPT, CRF, and NVB, they were able to remain active participants in classroom discourse despite linguistic limitations. These findings emphasize the importance of supporting IPSs development through explicit instruction and practice, empowering students to become more confident, autonomous, and effective communicators.

5.2.2 Benefits of IPSs for Learning and Communication

Students widely perceived IPSs as highly beneficial to both their language learning process and classroom communication. These strategies—particularly repetition (RPT), clarification (CRF), paraphrasing (PRPS), non-verbal (NVB), and self-repair (self-RP)—enabled students to express themselves more confidently and effectively, even when faced with vocabulary limitations or communication breakdowns.

Excerpt 5.20

> "Repeating questions for clarity encourages me to express myself without fear." (Student D)

Excerpt 5.21

> "To me, using simple vocabulary helps keep the conversation going and makes it easier to clarify the meaning when the teacher does not understand." (Student G)

Excerpt 5.22

> "Using IPSs helps me feel more confident in speaking English. For example, when I forget a word, I can describe it using simple terms or gestures, like saying 'a person who works in the coffee shop' instead of 'barista.' This way, I can keep the conversation going without feeling stuck." (Student H)

Excerpt 5.23

> "It seems to me that IPSs are helpful when I do not know the right word, but I still want to express my ideas and continue the conversation. For example, if I forget the word 'coffee shop', I can say 'café' or use gestures to express my meaning. This helps me communicate even when I do not know the exact vocabulary." (Student B)

The qualitative data highlight how students strategically utilized these tools to remain engaged, clarify meaning, and sustain dialogue during classroom interactions. For instance, Student D shared that repeating questions helped them feel more comfortable expressing themselves without fear of making mistakes (see Excerpt 5.20). Student G echoed this sentiment, noting that using simpler vocabulary facilitated ongoing communication and improved clarity (see Excerpt 5.21). Meanwhile, Student H illustrated how describing concepts in accessible terms, such as saying *"a person who works in the coffee shop"* instead of *"barista,"* helped maintain the flow of conversation even when specific vocabulary was forgotten (see Excerpt 5.22). Student B emphasized the value of fallback strategies, such as using paraphrasing or accompanying gestures, to express ideas when exact words were unavailable (see Excerpt 5.23).

These students' reflections demonstrate the instrumental role IPSs play in fostering a sense of linguistic agency and interactional autonomy. By applying RPT, CRF, PRPS, NVB, and RP, students not only bridge gaps in linguistic knowledge but also build pragmatic skills essential for meaningful, real-time communication. Their use of IPSs illustrates a shift from passive reception to active engagement, supporting the creation of an inclusive classroom where students participate confidently, despite linguistic limitations. This view aligns with existing research in second language acquisition. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) argue that IPSs serve as compensatory strategies, allowing students to manage communication difficulties by substituting or negotiating meaning. These strategies become particularly valuable when students lack full lexical command, offering alternatives that maintain conversational coherence (Chiera et al., 2023; Nirme et al., 2024). Markee (2000) and Kaur (2011)

further highlight that self-RP and PRPS enhance interactional flow, providing students with opportunities for metacognitive reflection during speech.

Students' reported use of paraphrasing (PRPS) and non-verbal (NVB) also reflects growing awareness of multimodal communication, where meaning is co-constructed not only through words but also through gestures, facial expressions, and spatial positioning (Karacan, 2023; Amelia, 2024). Such practices are essential in ELF settings, where mutual intelligibility often takes precedence over grammatical accuracy (Jenkins & Dewey, 2012; Mason et al., 2023). In these contexts, IPSs are not merely fallback tools but core components of communicative competence, helping students remain intelligible and engaged in interaction. Moreover, IPSs support the psychological dimensions of language learning. According to Kulsawang and Ambele (2024), confidence-building strategies like repetition (RPT) and clarification (CRF) can significantly reduce anxiety and enhance students' willingness to communicate. This is particularly relevant in Thai educational contexts, where students often experience apprehension about speaking English in front of their peers due to fear of making errors or losing face (Manel, 2024; Koç et al., 2023; Liando et al., 2023).

The findings from this study thus illustrate how IPSs serve as practical, student-driven mechanisms for overcoming communication barriers. By fostering a participatory and problem-solving approach to language use, these strategies enable students to move beyond rote memorization and engage in spontaneous, meaningful interactions. In classrooms where English is often taught through highly structured and teacher-centered methods, IPSs represent a shift toward more flexible, interactive, and student-empowering practices. In conclusion, students in this study perceived IPSs as critical tools for navigating communicative challenges and enhancing their capacity to interact in English. Their intuitive and strategic use of repetition (RPT), clarification (CRF), paraphrasing (PRPS), non-verbal (NVB), and self-repair (self-RP) demonstrates not only linguistic adaptability but also the development of broader communicative competence. For Thai university EFL programs, integrating explicit instruction and practice of IPSs into the curriculum can significantly enhance students' fluency, reduce anxiety, and prepare students for authentic language use in academic, professional, and global contexts.

5.2.3 Teacher's Role in Facilitating IPSs

Students in this study consistently emphasized the vital role of the teacher in facilitating the use of IPSs in the classroom. They reported that teacher-led interventions, such as repetition (RPT), clarification requests (CRF), rephrasing (RPS), and structured speaking activities, were instrumental in helping them communicate more effectively, particularly in moments of uncertainty or language breakdown. These pedagogical strategies increased students' confidence, enhanced comprehension, and fostered a supportive learning environment that encouraged strategic language use.

Excerpt 5.24

> "It appears that the teacher repeats and explains in detail until I fully understand the lesson, making it easier for me to follow along." (Student C)

Excerpt 5.25

> "I notice that when the teacher doesn't understand me, the teacher rephrases the question until I can answer, which helps me express my thoughts more clearly." (Student F)

Excerpt 5.26

> "In my view, I understand better when the teacher slows down and provides examples, as this helps clarify difficult concepts and improves my comprehension." (Student I)

Excerpt 5.27

> "From my perspective, being randomly paired for conversations helps me practice real-life speaking, making me more comfortable using English in different situations." (Student E)

Several students highlighted how teacher behaviors, such as repeating instructions, simplifying language, and offering multiple examples, contributed to their ability to follow lessons and engage in classroom discussions. For example, Student C noted that detailed explanations and repetition ensured complete

comprehension of lessons (see Excerpt 5.24). At the same time, Student F appreciated how the teacher rephrased questions to help them articulate responses more clearly (see Excerpt 5.25). Similarly, Student I valued slower speech and illustrative examples as tools for improving comprehension and reducing anxiety when encountering complex content (see Excerpt 5.26). In addition, Student E emphasized the benefits of being paired with classmates for practice, stating that such structured activities helped them feel more confident using English in diverse conversational contexts (see Excerpt 5.27). These excerpts highlight the significance of adaptive teacher strategies in influencing how students learn and apply IPSs. Techniques such as RPT and RPS not only reinforced understanding but also scaffolded students' output, allowing them to respond with greater fluency and precision. Clarification (CRF), when modeled by the teacher, also encouraged students to seek clarification in peer interactions, supporting their development of strategic competence. Furthermore, structured speaking tasks, such as pair work and roleplays, provided safe, low-pressure spaces for students to apply IPSs in real-time communication, thereby reinforcing their practical utility and deepening engagement.

These findings are consistent with the literature, which emphasizes the teacher's role as a facilitator of strategic communication. Seidlhofer (2001) and Caprario (2024) emphasize how teacher adjustments, such as slowing down speech and simplifying input, facilitate comprehensible communication, particularly for students at intermediate levels. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) similarly underscore the significance of RPT and RPS as scaffolding techniques that help students internalize language forms and sustain interaction. Holmes and Riddiford (2011) further argue that structured speaking tasks, guided by the teacher, enable students to rehearse language use in contextually meaningful ways. However, it is important to acknowledge critiques, such as Mauranen's (2012) observation that excessive RPT may be viewed as indicative of a lack of fluency. While repetition can support comprehension, overreliance on this strategy, especially in exam-driven contexts, may hinder the development of spontaneous, fluent expression. Therefore, balance and intentionality in the use of IPSs are essential for optimizing the pedagogical impact.

The value of teacher-led RPS was also evident in the data. Dippold (2023) emphasizes that RPS is a powerful pedagogical strategy that enhances students' comprehension by offering multiple pathways to understanding. In EFL and ELF contexts where students often face vocabulary gaps or syntactic limitations, RPS helps maintain the flow of communication and reduces pressure on students to respond ideally (Suseno, 2023). Additionally, students' appreciation for slowed speech and concrete examples points to the relevance of comprehensible input in second language acquisition (Chiu & Chen, 2023; Järvinen et al., 2024). These strategies reduce cognitive load, enhance processing, and facilitate the long-term retention of language forms. The teacher's use of contextualized examples further increased accessibility and relevance, allowing students to connect new information with their existing knowledge base.

Structured pairing and peer interaction were also noted as critical elements of IPSs development. Pair work offered students the opportunity to practice IPSs such as CRF, RPT, and RPS in real-time, collaborative settings. This approach aligns with sociocultural theories of language learning, which view language acquisition as a socially mediated process (Tai & Chen, 2024; Khalilova, 2023). Through guided interactions and roleplaying, students practiced IPSs in meaningful contexts, which helped solidify their understanding of when and how to deploy these strategies effectively. In conclusion, Thai university students in this study viewed teacher facilitation as fundamental to their development and application of IPSs. Teacher strategies such as RPT, CRF, RPS, and structured communicative tasks were crucial in enhancing comprehension, reducing anxiety, and encouraging confident participation. These instructional practices empowered students to apply IPSs purposefully and autonomously, even in challenging or unfamiliar communicative situations. In contexts where students are accustomed to more rigid, exam-oriented instruction, the teacher's role in modeling and facilitating IPSs is particularly important for fostering a dynamic, communicative, and student-centered classroom environment. Integrating IPSs into EFL instruction not only enhances students' strategic competence but also prepares them for real-world English use in academic, professional, and intercultural settings.

5.2.4 Challenges in Using IPSs in the Classroom

While students in this study recognized the benefits of IPSs, they also reported a range of challenges that hinder their practical use in real-time communication. Their responses reflected a mix of neutral to slightly negative perceptions, particularly about linguistic limitations, anxiety, and the cognitive demands of spontaneous interaction. These challenges suggest that, although IPSs are seen as valuable tools, their application is not without obstacles, especially for students navigating the complexities of classroom communication in a second language.

Excerpt 5.28

> "At the beginning of the lessons, I found the teacher spoke quite fast and difficult to understand. However, over time, I became more familiar with the accent and speaking style, making it easier to understand." (Student F)

Excerpt 5.29

> "I notice that when the teacher speaks too fast, I also need to ask for repetition to fully understand the lesson." (Student B)

Excerpt 5.30

> "I feel that my limited vocabulary sometimes makes it challenging to communicate, so I simplify my words to express my ideas more clearly." (Student K)

Excerpt 5.31

> "From my perspective, I get confused when the teacher asks questions spontaneously during roleplay, as I need more time to process my response. For example, I often pause in silence or use fillers like 'um' or 'ah' while thinking of what to say." (Student D)

A recurring difficulty noted by students was understanding fast-paced speech and unfamiliar pronunciation. For instance, Student F initially struggled to follow the teacher's speech due to its speed and accent, although familiarity over time helped ease comprehension (see Excerpt 5.28). Student B similarly noted the need to ask for

repetition when the teacher spoke quickly (see Excerpt 5.29), highlighting the ongoing demand for adaptation in processing spoken input. These responses highlight the significance of exposure and adaptation to diverse English varieties, particularly in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) contexts, where intelligibility is prioritized over native-like pronunciation (Jenkins, 2006; Jenkins & Dewey, 2012).

Students also identified limited vocabulary as a key barrier to effective communication. Student K noted that when struggling to recall specific words, they resorted to simplified expressions to convey their ideas (see Excerpt 5.30). While this demonstrates strategic adaptation, it also suggests limitations in lexical repertoire, which can hinder the depth, accuracy, and fluidity of students' responses. Similarly, Student D described experiencing hesitation during spontaneous roleplays, often pausing or using fillers while trying to organize thoughts (see Excerpt 5.31). This hesitation reflects the cognitive load involved in language production and the anxiety students may feel when required to respond without preparation. These findings are supported by a broad body of literature addressing common challenges in the use of IPSs among EFL students. Fast speech, unfamiliar accents, and pronunciation variations are known to impair listening comprehension, particularly for students with limited exposure to multiple English varieties (Farsi, 2024; Rungsinanont, 2024; Miao et al., 2024). Jenkins (2006) argues that in ELF settings, mutual intelligibility—not adherence to native norms—is central, and speakers must often negotiate meaning across diverse pronunciation systems. Smith (1981) and Ilahiy and Kirana (2023) also emphasize the need for both speaker and listener to adjust in such interactions, noting that unfamiliar prosodic features (e.g., stress, rhythm, and intonation) can complicate communication.

Vocabulary limitations similarly present a substantial challenge. Research indicates that lexical proficiency plays a crucial role in students' ability to select and employ effective communication strategies (Ankush et al., 2024; Holguin, 2024; Guo & East, 2024). According to Prapobratanakul and Kangkun (2011), approximation and simplification—commonly used IPSs—account for over a quarter of the strategies used by Thai students; however, these are often less effective when lexical gaps are too broad. Pornpibul (2005) and Wannaruk (2003) also found that lower-proficiency

students tend to rely on avoidance strategies due to insufficient vocabulary, reducing their engagement in communicative tasks. Emotional and psychological factors further impact students' ability to use IPSs effectively. Language anxiety, particularly in spontaneous speaking situations, has long been linked to a reduced willingness to communicate (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Perrodin et al., 2024). Students in this study echoed these concerns, expressing fear of making mistakes and stress during on-the-spot interactions. This fear often manifests in avoidance behaviors, including silence, use of fillers, or reliance on simpler language. Studies by Zondag (2024), Böttger et al. (2024), and Andriani et al. (2024) confirm that anxiety diminishes communicative performance, especially among students unfamiliar with unscripted dialogue. Wannaruk (2003) similarly noted that avoidance strategies are more prevalent among low-proficiency students, reinforcing the connection between linguistic limitations and hesitation in classroom communication. These findings emphasize the multifaceted nature of IPSs challenges. While strategies like RPT, CRF, and RPS are designed to support communication, their successful application depends heavily on students' linguistic proficiency, processing speed, confidence, and comfort with interactive dynamics. As such, the implementation of IPSs cannot be assumed to be uniformly effective without addressing the barriers that restrict their use.

To mitigate these challenges, targeted pedagogical support is essential. Structured pronunciation training and exposure to varied English accents can improve listening comprehension and reduce confusion (Callies, 2023; Boutheyna & Oumayma, 2024). Vocabulary-building strategies—such as context-based learning, word webs, and collocation training—can expand students' expressive range and reduce their reliance on simplified or vague expressions (Hasan, 2024; Othman, 2024). Furthermore, speaking practice in controlled, scaffolded environments can gradually reduce anxiety and increase students' confidence. As Muryani and Yunus (2024) argue, structured practice not only builds fluency but also empowers students to engage more deeply in meaning negotiation. In conclusion, this study highlights that although Thai university students value IPSs as tools for overcoming communication barriers, their use is constrained by pronunciation challenges, lexical

limitations, and language anxiety. These barriers underscore the need for intentional instructional support. By integrating pronunciation awareness, vocabulary enrichment, and anxiety-reduction strategies into EFL instruction, educators can enhance students' capacity to apply IPSs effectively. Doing so will not only improve communicative competence but also foster a more confident, engaged, and autonomous cohort of English users in both academic and real-world contexts.

5.2.5 The Role of Interactive Learning in Enhancing IPSs

Students in this study consistently identified interactive learning as a critical factor in improving their use of IPSs. Activities such as impromptu roleplays, pair work, and small-group discussions were viewed as instrumental in fostering authentic communication practice.

Excerpt 5.32

> "From my perspective, being randomly paired for conversations is a great way to practice real-life speaking, as it helps me become more confident in using English in different situations." (Student A)

Excerpt 5.33

> "I feel that doing a lot of impromptu roleplays makes learning more fun and interactive, allowing me to practice speaking naturally in a comfortable environment." (Student D)

These strategies provided students with opportunities to experiment with language in contextually rich, low-stakes environments, allowing for both fluency development and strategic competence. For example, Student A explained that being randomly paired for conversations allowed them to practice English in real-life scenarios and helped increase their confidence in diverse speaking contexts (see Excerpt 5.32). Similarly, Student D shared that engaging in unscripted roleplays made learning more enjoyable and interactive, allowing them to speak more naturally in a comfortable setting (see Excerpt 5.33). These reflections underscore the importance of authentic interaction as a means of both reducing anxiety and building competence in real-time language use. These findings are well supported by the literature in

communicative language teaching and second language acquisition. Interactive tasks, such as role-playing, peer dialogue, and collaborative problem-solving, are widely recognized for their effectiveness in promoting language use that is both meaningful and contextualized (Walsh, 2011; Irgasheva, 2024). According to Jenks (2024), the development of interactional competence goes beyond mastering grammatical accuracy; it requires students to engage in turn-taking, negotiate meaning, repair breakdowns, and manage communication dynamics—all of which are central to IPSs. Azkia (2025) and Dingemanse and Enfield (2024) similarly highlight that the ability to navigate real-time conversational challenges is fundamental to successful communication and that IPSs are central to this process.

Impromptu roleplay, in particular, serves as a powerful pedagogical tool by simulating spontaneous communicative situations. These exercises compel students to think on their feet, apply vocabulary creatively, and draw on a range of strategies—including clarification requests, repetition, and paraphrasing—to convey meaning and sustain dialogue (Tiu et al., 2023; Sevarakhon, 2024). Students reported that such activities not only improved their speaking fluency but also increased their willingness to communicate and take linguistic risks.

Motivational aspects also play a crucial role in students' perceptions of interactive learning. Guo and Ortega-Martín (2023) argue that interactive activities enhance students' motivation and willingness to participate by reducing anxiety and creating an engaging classroom atmosphere. This aligns with the observations of students in this study, who felt that pair work and discussion tasks made speaking less intimidating and more enjoyable (Zhang et al., 2024; Sadoughi & Hejazi, 2024). Furthermore, interactive learning shifts the classroom dynamic from teacher-centered to student-centered, enabling students to take ownership of their communicative development and practice IPSs in a collaborative setting (Irgasheva, 2024; Walsh, 2011).

The emphasis on real-life language use is especially relevant in Thai EFL contexts, where students often have limited opportunities to engage in spontaneous English communication outside the classroom. As previous research has shown, students in such contexts greatly benefit from classroom-based simulations of real-

world interactions (Khalilova, 2023). These simulations prepare students to apply IPSs in various communicative scenarios and adapt to different interlocutors and settings, thereby enhancing their overall communicative competence. In conclusion, Thai university students in this study perceived interactive learning as a vital component in the development and application of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Systems (IPSs). Through role-plays, peer dialogues, and structured pair work, students were able to rehearse strategic communication in supportive and realistic contexts. These interactive tasks fostered confidence, increased students' motivation, and provided crucial practice in managing real-time language challenges. The findings suggest that incorporating interactive learning into EFL instruction not only enhances students' fluency and strategic competence but also bridges the gap between classroom learning and real-world communication. For Thai students, in particular, interactive pedagogies offer an essential means of developing the communicative skills necessary for academic, professional, and intercultural success.

5.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter explored the perceptions of both the teacher and students regarding the use of IPSs in a Thai university EFL classroom, offering a nuanced understanding of how these strategies function in practice to support communication and language development. The findings offer valuable insights into the role of IPSs in promoting engagement, overcoming linguistic barriers, and enhancing classroom interaction in contexts where students frequently struggle with communication due to limited proficiency, anxiety, and traditional learning methods.

From the teacher's perspective, IPSs such as RPT, CRF, RPS, TLG, and NVB were viewed as essential tools for promoting comprehension, encouraging participation, and building students' confidence. The teacher emphasized the intuitive and adaptive use of these strategies to accommodate students' diverse needs and enhance classroom interaction. However, the teacher also acknowledged challenges, such as concerns over the overuse of repetition and the unconscious application of some strategies, suggesting a need for more intentional integration of IPSs in pedagogy. Students' responses largely echoed the teacher's views, with most expressing positive perceptions of IPSs as practical tools for navigating

communication challenges. Students reported that IPSs helped them manage vocabulary limitations, reduce anxiety during spontaneous speech, and sustain dialogue through approximation and paraphrasing. They particularly valued the teacher's facilitative role in modeling and supporting the use of strategies, and highlighted the effectiveness of structured activities, such as pair work and role-plays, in providing authentic opportunities for practice. Nonetheless, students also identified several challenges in applying IPSs, including difficulties with fast-paced speech, unfamiliar pronunciation, limited vocabulary, and fear of making mistakes during spontaneous communication. These barriers often led to hesitation, avoidance, or oversimplification of speech. The findings indicate that while IPSs are inherently valuable, their successful use is mediated by both linguistic and psychological factors, and students benefit from scaffolding, strategy instruction, and repeated exposure to interactive language use.

A key theme that emerged across both teacher's and students' perspectives was the importance of interactive learning in enhancing IPSs' development. Activities such as impromptu role-plays, peer discussions, and structured communicative tasks were found to be effective in fostering strategic competence, increasing motivation, and creating a supportive learning environment. In a context like Thailand, where students often have limited opportunities for spontaneous English communication, these interactive practices serve as essential bridges between theoretical knowledge and real-world language use. In summary, the findings of this chapter highlight that IPSs play a crucial role in facilitating meaningful communication in the EFL classroom. Their effectiveness, however, depends on how they are supported, modeled, and practiced through intentional pedagogy. By recognizing the challenges and embracing the potential of IPSs, educators can create more inclusive, student-centered, and communicatively rich environments that prepare students for academic, professional, and intercultural communication beyond the classroom.

Overall, the study concludes that IPSs are not only useful but essential in the Thai classroom context. From both teacher and student perspectives, IPSs provide critical support in maintaining interactional flow, fostering mutual understanding, and addressing challenges related to proficiency, confidence, and engagement. While

issues such as inattentiveness or psychological barriers cannot always be fully resolved through IPSs alone, they remain indispensable in creating communicatively rich, supportive, and student-centered classrooms. Thus, IPSs are vital not only for facilitating successful communication in class but also for preparing Thai students for broader academic, professional, and intercultural contexts beyond the classroom.

Furthermore, IPSs in the Thai classroom context differ from other settings in their emphasis on scaffolding, repetition, and teacher facilitation, reflecting students' limited exposure to authentic English communication outside class. Unlike in professional or intercultural ELF contexts, where IPSs often emerge naturally in negotiation of meaning, Thai students rely heavily on the teacher's modeling, structured practice, and supportive feedback. This highlights the contextual specificity of IPSs use in Thailand, showing that while the strategies themselves are universal, their functions and applications are deeply shaped by local classroom culture and learners' needs.

CHAPTER VI
CONCLUSION

The findings in Chapters IV and V have demonstrated the diverse complexity of communication from two perspectives: classroom interaction and participants' perceptions. From these issues, a myriad of IPSs patterns that speakers develop to reach understanding have been observed. Also, we have witnessed participants' perceptions regarding the use of IPSs. Therefore, a summary of the research is presented next, which leads to a discussion of the pedagogical implications of IPSs. The conclusion of the thesis is provided at the end.

6.1 Summary of the Present Study

The present study explored the use of IPSs in a Thai university EFL classroom, focusing on both teacher and student perspectives. Using a micro-ethnographic qualitative approach, the study collected data through classroom observations, field notes, and semi-structured interviews to examine how IPSs were employed, perceived, and responded to during classroom interaction. Additionally, the study sought to explore participants' perceptions of IPSs. From this, the research questions were threefold:

RQ 1. What interactional pragmatic strategies are deployed by a teacher and her students in a Thai university English language classroom interaction?

RQ 2. How do the interlocutors (i.e., teacher and students) utilize interactional pragmatic strategies to facilitate mutual understanding and resolve communication problems during teaching and learning in the classroom?

RQ 3. What are the teacher and students' perceptions of interactional pragmatic strategies usage in a Thai university English language classroom?

The findings revealed that participants utilized a vast repertoire of IPSs to facilitate communication. These included well-established strategies drawn from the literature, such as repetition (RPT), repair (RP), clarification (CRF), prompting (PT), and guessing (GS), as well as context-specific strategies that emerged from the Thai classroom environment, including encouragement (ECR), modeling (MDL), positive-reinforcement (PR), scaffolding (SCF), and translanguaging (TLG). A clear

distinction was observed in how these strategies were deployed: students tended to use IPSs reactively to address linguistic challenges, while the teacher more frequently initiated and modeled strategy use in a proactive and supportive manner. This dynamic reflected the teacher's directive role in guiding students' communicative development and promoting strategic awareness.

Building on this, the analysis revealed that IPSs played a crucial role in addressing various communication issues. These included linguistic problems (e.g., pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary gaps), interactional challenges (e.g., mishearing, incomplete discourse, or referential ambiguity), and factual issues (e.g., factual instructional and factual regulative). Notably, these strategies were often employed in combination—a phenomenon referred to in this study as *strategic chaining*, which enabled participants to construct meaning collaboratively. The findings also highlighted the multimodal dimensions of classroom interaction, where verbal strategies were reinforced by nonverbal cues, such as gestures, facial expressions, and intonation, thereby enhancing clarity and student engagement.

Through a variety of classroom tasks—including discussions, role-plays, and impromptu role-plays—the study underscored the flexible and pedagogical functions of IPSs in sustaining communicative flow, building students' confidence, and promoting mutual intelligibility. The identification of context-specific IPSs further suggests that strategic language use is shaped not only by linguistic demands but also by cultural norms, instructional objectives, and classroom dynamics. Overall, the findings demonstrate the interconnected and developmental nature of IPSs' use, illustrating how students progress from basic to more complex and coordinated strategy deployment. The study emphasizes the importance of fostering not only individual strategy use but also *strategic interplay*, where multiple IPSs are used in tandem to manage a wide range of communicative demands. The classroom discourse examined affirms that both globally recognized and locally adapted IPSs serve as essential tools in facilitating effective ELF communication. Pedagogical practices that encourage teacher modeling, scaffolding, and the design of interactive tasks were found to be pivotal in creating an environment that supports students' strategic interactional competence.

However, the analysis also uncovered instances of unsuccessful or limited IPSs use, which were often influenced by a combination of internal and pedagogical factors. These challenges were attributed to students' attitudes (ATT)—such as anxiety, fear of making mistakes, or low confidence; pedagogical skills (PDS)—including limited classroom support or unclear task design; and knowledge (KL)—referring to gaps in students' awareness or understanding of when and how to apply IPSs effectively. In such cases, students often hesitated, avoided strategy use, or resorted to overly simplified speech. Furthermore, when teachers did not explicitly scaffold or reinforce the strategic use of IPSs, students missed opportunities to practice and internalize them. These findings suggest that while IPSs offer significant potential to enhance communication, their effectiveness depends on both students' readiness and intentional pedagogical support. Addressing these barriers is essential for promoting more equitable and confident use of IPSs in the EFL classroom.

In addition to the classroom interaction data, insights from both the teacher and students offered a deeper understanding of the role that IPSs play in English language learning. From the teacher's viewpoint, strategies such as repetition (RPT), clarification (CRF), rephrasing (RPS), translanguaging (TLG), and non-verbal (NVB) were considered vital tools for enhancing comprehension, fostering student participation, and boosting students' confidence. The teacher emphasized the importance of using these strategies intuitively and flexibly to respond to the diverse needs of students and to enhance classroom communication. Nonetheless, she also recognized certain limitations—particularly the potential overuse of repetition and the unintentional application of some strategies—thereby highlighting the need for more deliberate and pedagogically informed use of IPSs.

Students' perspectives aligned mainly with the teacher's, with many acknowledging the value of IPSs as effective mechanisms for overcoming communication barriers. They noted that such strategies helped them handle vocabulary gaps, lower anxiety in spontaneous speaking situations, and maintain conversations through techniques like approximation and paraphrasing. Students especially appreciated the teacher's supportive role in demonstrating and encouraging the use of IPSs, and they viewed structured communicative tasks, such as pair work and role-plays, as beneficial in providing authentic practice opportunities. At the same

time, they reported encountering difficulties when using IPSs, particularly when faced with fast-paced speech, unfamiliar pronunciation, limited lexical knowledge, or fear of making errors. These challenges often led to hesitation, avoidance behaviors, or the use of overly simplified language. The data suggest that, while IPSs hold intrinsic value, their successful application is influenced by both linguistic limitations and psychological factors. Students appear to benefit significantly from continued scaffolding, explicit instruction in strategy use, and repeated exposure to interactive speaking environments.

A prominent theme that emerged from both teacher and student feedback was the crucial role of interactive learning in the development of IPSs. Tasks such as peer discussions, impromptu role-plays, and structured communicative activities were perceived as highly effective in building strategic competence, enhancing students' motivation, and fostering a positive learning atmosphere. In Thailand, where opportunities for spontaneous English interaction are often limited, these practices offer a meaningful bridge between classroom learning and real-world communication. Overall, the findings highlight that IPSs are crucial in facilitating effective and purposeful communication in the EFL classroom. Their impact, however, relies heavily on how they are introduced, modeled, and reinforced through intentional, student-centered teaching practices. By acknowledging existing challenges and actively promoting the use of IPSs, educators can foster more engaging, inclusive, and communicatively dynamic environments that equip students for future academic, professional, and intercultural success.

6.2 Contributions of the Present Study

The present study makes a meaningful contribution to the field of ELT, particularly within the domains of classroom interaction and the use of IPSs in ELF contexts. The contributions can be categorized into three main areas: theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical.

6.2.1 Theoretical Contributions

This study enriches the existing body of knowledge on interactional pragmatics by offering a context-sensitive understanding of how IPSs function within a Thai university English language classroom. While previous studies have often

emphasized universal strategies, this research introduces the concept of context-specific Instructional Practices (IPSs)—such as encouragement (ECR), positive-reinforcement (PR), scaffolding (SCF), modeling (MDL), and translanguaging (TLG)—that emerge in response to sociocultural and pedagogical conditions. Additionally, the study advances the concept of *strategic chaining*, referring to the coordinated use of multiple IPSs to collaboratively co-construct meaning. These contributions extend current theoretical models by emphasizing the fluid, adaptive, and multimodal nature of IPSs in actual classroom interaction.

6.2.2 Methodological Contributions

Methodologically, the study demonstrates the value of a *micro-ethnographic approach* combined with discourse and qualitative content analysis for exploring real-time language use in classroom settings. By triangulating data from classroom observations, audio recordings, field notes, and interviews, the study provides a rich, nuanced picture of how strategies are deployed and perceived by both teachers and students. Using *stimulated recall interviews* also adds depth to the analysis, offering insight into participants' thought processes and motivations behind their strategy use. This approach contributes to best practices in classroom-based qualitative research on language interaction.

6.2.3 Pedagogical Contributions

Despite their limitations, episodes of unsuccessful communication provide powerful pedagogical insights:

- Task Redesign: Teachers can preempt some communication breakdowns by integrating scaffolded tasks that gradually increase complexity and allow space for IPSs practice (Ambele, 2022). This can include structured peer interaction before full-class engagement.
- Strategy Diversification: When typical IPSs fail, context-sensitive tools like translanguaging (TLG), modeling (MDL), or non-verbal (NVB) should be incorporated. These strategies address affective and cultural dimensions that influence learner willingness and comprehension.

- Professional Development: Teacher training should include modules on adaptive classroom management, focusing on real-time decision-making, disruption recovery, and attunement to learner needs (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014).
- Encouraging Metacognitive Reflection: Students benefit from reflecting on their communication challenges. Activities such as post-task discussions or peer feedback sessions can help learners identify which IPSs were helpful and why.
- Creating Safe Communicative Spaces: When learners fear judgment or linguistic failure, even the best strategies may go unused. Teachers should foster psychologically safe environments where risk-taking is normalized and errors are framed as learning opportunities (Yashima, 2009).

The analysis of unsuccessful cases reinforces that the value of IPSs lies not only in their presence but in their adaptability to context. These findings challenge assumptions that merely teaching IPSs will automatically lead to communicative success. Rather, IPSs must be deployed as part of a broader pedagogical strategy that considers learner readiness, task design, and classroom dynamics. As this study shows, when IPSs fail, they illuminate the boundaries of classroom pragmatics and open new avenues for pedagogical innovation.

Practically, the findings of this study have direct implications for English language teaching and teacher education in Thailand and similar EFL contexts. The study underscores the importance of explicitly teaching IPSs, modeling their use, and designing interactive, communicative tasks that provide students with opportunities to develop strategic competence. It also highlights the critical role of teacher scaffolding in helping students overcome linguistic and psychological barriers. Moreover, the findings support the integration of *multimodal and culturally responsive strategies* that reflect students' real-world needs and classroom dynamics. These contributions inform curriculum development, teaching practices, and teacher training programs, aiming to enhance classroom interaction and communicative effectiveness.

6.3 Limitations of the Present Study

While this study offers valuable insights into the use of IPSs in a Thai university English language classroom, certain limitations should be acknowledged. These limitations reflect the scope of the research design and the study's contextual constraints.

6.3.1 Limited Scope of Participants and Setting

The study was conducted in a single university classroom with one teacher and a specific group of students. As such, the findings may not be fully generalizable to other educational contexts, institutions, or regions in Thailand. The unique dynamics of the observed classroom—including teacher style, student proficiency, and institutional culture—may have influenced the nature and frequency of IPSs used.

6.3.2 Focus on Spoken Interaction Only

The study concentrated on spoken interactions within the classroom, excluding other modes of communication such as written tasks, online discussions, or feedback-based interactions. These additional forms of communication may also involve strategic language use and could provide further insights into IPSs in broader educational contexts.

6.3.3 Reliance on Self-Reported Data

While semi-structured and stimulated recall interviews added depth to the analysis, they relied on participants' ability to recall and articulate their thoughts, which may be subject to memory limitations or social desirability bias. Participants might have overemphasized positive aspects or underreported difficulties in using IPSs.

6.3.4 Language and Cultural Constraints

The study was situated in a specific cultural and linguistic context—namely, a Thai university classroom where English was used as a Lingua Franca. Cultural norms, language proficiency, and pedagogical expectations specific to this context may have shaped the way IPSs were used and interpreted, potentially limiting the transferability of findings to classrooms in different cultural settings.

6.4 Recommendations for Future Research

Building on the findings and acknowledging the limitations of the present study, several recommendations are proposed for future research to further advance understanding of IPSs in English language education contexts.

6.4.1 Expanding to Multiple Contexts and Participants

Future studies should consider exploring IPSs across a broader range of institutions, including various universities, different levels of education, and diverse geographical regions. Conducting comparative studies with multiple teachers and diverse student populations would allow for greater generalizability and reveal how IPSs vary across different cultural, institutional, and instructional settings.

6.4.2 Investigating Other Modes of Classroom Communication

Given this study's focus on spoken classroom interaction, future research could investigate the use of IPSs in written communication, digital learning environments, and asynchronous platforms, such as discussion boards, messaging apps, or learning management systems. This would provide a more comprehensive understanding of how students deploy pragmatic strategies in multimodal and blended learning contexts.

6.4.3 Employing Mixed-Methods and Longitudinal Designs

To complement the qualitative depth of this study, future research could adopt mixed-methods approaches that combine discourse analysis with quantitative tools, such as coding frequency analysis or surveys measuring students' strategy awareness. Additionally, longitudinal studies tracking students' development of strategic competence over time would offer insights into how IPSs evolve with increased exposure and instructional support.

6.4.4 Exploring the Cognitive and Affective Dimensions of IPSs Use

Further research is needed to understand the cognitive processes and emotional factors that influence the deployment of IPSs. Techniques such as think-aloud protocols, eye-tracking, or students' diaries could reveal how students make real-time decisions during communication, including how they select, monitor, and adapt strategies under pressure.

6.4.5 Designing and Evaluating Strategy-Based Instruction

Future studies could focus on designing, implementing, and evaluating pedagogical interventions that explicitly teach IPSs. Research in this area might explore which instructional approaches—such as task-based learning, project-based learning, or AI-enhanced learning—are most effective in fostering students' strategic competence. Measuring changes in students' use of IPSs before and after intervention would provide valuable evidence for curriculum and teacher development.

6.4.6 Incorporating VDO Recording for Richer Data

Future research could also make use of VDO recording as a complementary tool to capture classroom interaction in greater detail. Unlike audio alone, VDO data allows researchers to analyze non-verbal strategies, gestures, facial expressions, and turn-taking more accurately, thereby offering a more holistic view of IPSs in practice.

6.5 Concluding Remarks

This study has provided an in-depth exploration of IPSs within the ELF classroom at a Thai university. Through classroom observation, discourse analysis, and participant interviews, the research revealed how both the teacher and her students employed a range of IPSs to manage communication, facilitate understanding, and negotiate meaning in real-time interactions. The study also identified context-specific strategies shaped by sociocultural norms and pedagogical practices unique to the local setting.

Notably, the findings highlight that IPSs are not isolated or static tools, but rather dynamic and adaptable resources that evolve in response to communicative needs. The concept of *strategic chaining* introduced in this study illustrates how students and teachers often combine multiple strategies in fluid ways to co-construct meaning. These findings contribute to a more nuanced understanding of classroom discourse, particularly in EFL and ELF environments where students face both linguistic and psychological challenges in communication.

By capturing both the observed practices and the lived experiences of participants, the study emphasizes the central role of interactional strategies in promoting students' engagement, confidence, and communicative competence. It also

highlights the importance of intentional pedagogical practices—such as teacher modeling, scaffolding, and the design of interactive tasks—in fostering strategic language development.

However, the analysis also uncovered instances of unsuccessful or limited IPSs use, which were often influenced by a combination of internal and pedagogical factors. These challenges were attributed to students' attitudes (ATT)—such as anxiety, fear of making mistakes, or low confidence; pedagogical skills (PDS)—including limited classroom support or unclear task design; and knowledge (KL)—referring to gaps in students' awareness or understanding of when and how to apply IPSs effectively. In such cases, students often hesitated, avoided strategy use, or resorted to overly simplified speech. Furthermore, when teachers did not explicitly scaffold or reinforce the strategic use of IPSs, students missed opportunities to practice and internalize them. These findings suggest that while IPSs offer significant potential to enhance communication, their effectiveness depends on both students' readiness and intentional pedagogical support. Addressing these barriers is essential for promoting more equitable and confident use of IPSs in the EFL classroom. In summary, this research contributes to the growing body of literature on classroom pragmatics and provides practical implications for language teaching, curriculum development, and teacher training. As English continues to serve as a global medium of communication, equipping students with the strategic tools to navigate diverse interactional contexts remains a critical goal. It is hoped that the insights from this study will inspire continued research and pedagogical innovation aimed at enriching communicative practices in English language classrooms both in Thailand and beyond.

พหุน ปณ ฑิโต ชีเว

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Appendix A: Informed Consent (English Version)

Protocol Title: Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interactions in a Thai University Setting

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of this study is to explore teachers' and students' perceptions of using IPSs in the classroom.

What you will be asked to do in the study: For the questionnaire, you will be asked to identify perceptions of using IPSs in the classroom. You will also be asked to participate in an interview at the end of the semester.

Time required: For the teacher and students approximately 30-35 minutes.

Risks and Benefits: It is possible that participation in this study may not directly benefit you, but I strongly believe that once you give your information to support this current study, the results are also likely to be useful for Listening and Speaking pedagogical development of the English Program or in general. I believe that your participation will present no risk or discomfort to you. Participation is voluntary and participants are free to withdraw without penalty.

Compensation: -

Confidentiality: Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Your information will be assigned a code number. The list connecting your name to this number will be kept in a locked file in my faculty. When the study is completed and the data have been analyzed, the list will be destroyed. Your name will not be used in any report.

Voluntary participation: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary.

There is no penalty for not participating.

Right to withdraw from the study: You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without consequences.

Whom to contact if you have questions about the study:

Pikul Kulsawang, PhD. student, Learning Center and Local Wisdom Development Building, Khamriang Sub-district, Kantarawichai District, Mahasarakham Province, Tel. +(66) 061-9619819, Email: pikul.msu@gmail.com

Eric A. Ambele, Ph.D. Lecturer, Learning Center and Local Wisdom Development Building, Khamriang Sub-district, Kantarawichai District, Mahasarakham Province, Tel. +(66) 095-1364581, Email: ambesos@gmail.com/ eric.a@msu.ac.th

Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in the study:

Learning Center and Local Wisdom Development Building, Khamriang Sub-district, Kantarawichai District, Mahasarakham Province, Tel. +(66) 0-4375-4369, 0-4375-4361 ext. 4735, 4703, Fax. +(66) 0-4375-4369

Email: human.msu.contact@gmail.com

Website (TH): http://human.msu.ac.th/, Web site (EN): http://human.msu.ac.th/en/

Agreement:

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description.

Participant:_____Date:_____

Researcher:_____Date:_____

Appendix B: Informed Consent (Thai Version)

หนังสือขอความยินยอมเข้าร่วมวิจัย

ชื่อโครงงานวิจัย: กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ

กรุณาอ่านเอกสารขอความยินดีฉบับนี้โดยละเอียด ก่อนตัดสินใจเข้าร่วมการวิจัย

วัตถุประสงค์ของการศึกษาวิจัย: วัตถุประสงค์ของการวิจัยครั้งนี้ จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อศึกษาทัศนคติในการใช้กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในชั้นเรียน

สิ่งที่ท่านจะได้ทำในการวิจัยครั้งนี้: สำหรับแบบสอบถาม ทางผู้วิจัยจะขอความกรุณาท่าน ในการให้ข้อมูลเพื่อระบุความคิดเห็นต่อการใช้กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในชั้นเรียน นอกจากนี้ท่านจะได้เข้ารับการสัมภาษณ์ โดยการสัมภาษณ์จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อแสดงความคิดเห็นต่อการใช้กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในชั้นเรียน

ระยะเวลาที่กำหนด: การดำเนินเก็บข้อมูลจะเกิดขึ้นภายหลังการสอน 16 สัปดาห์ การเก็บข้อมูลจะดำเนินตามวันเวลาที่สะดวกแก่ผู้ให้ข้อมูล โดยเฉลี่ยการสัมภาษณ์สำหรับผู้สอนและผู้เรียนประมาณ 30-35 นาที

การประเมินความเสี่ยงและผลประโยชน์: มีความเป็นไปได้ที่การมีส่วนร่วมวิจัยครั้งนี้ จะไม่เกิดประโยชน์โดยตรงต่อท่าน แต่ทางผู้วิจัยมีความเชื่อเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่า ข้อมูล/ผลจากการเก็บข้อมูลนี้ จะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อรายวิชาการฟังและการพูดภาษาอังกฤษและในรายวิชาทั่วไป ทางเราเชื่อว่าการมีส่วนร่วมของท่านจะไม่ก่อให้เกิดความเสี่ยงหรือทำให้เกิดความไม่สบายใจใดๆ การมีส่วนร่วมครั้งนี้จะถือเป็นความสมัครใจและผู้เข้าร่วมสามารถถอนตัวได้โดยไม่มีการรับโทษใดๆ

สิ่งตอบแทน: -

การเก็บรักษาความลับ: ข้อมูลส่วนตัวของท่านจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับตามข้อกฎหมายที่กำหนด ท่านต้องใส่ข้อมูลเป็นตัวเลขรหัส ข้อมูลที่เชื่อมโยงชื่อของท่านเป็นตัวเลขดังกล่าว จะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับโดยจัดทำ เป็นเอกสารเข้ารหัส เพื่อนำไปเก็บไว้ ณ สำนักงานคณะของที่ปรึกษางานวิจัย เมื่อการวิจัยนี้เสร็จสิ้นและทำการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลแล้ว ผู้จัดทำจะนำข้อมูลดังกล่าวไปทำลาย จะไม่มีการนำชื่อของท่านไปใช้กับรายงานวิจัยอื่นใด

การเข้าร่วมโดยสมัครใจ: การเข้าร่วมงานวิจัยของท่านในครั้งนี้เป็นไปด้วยความสมัครใจโดยสมบูรณ์ จะไม่มีการลงโทษใดๆหากไม่ต้องการเข้าร่วม

สิทธิในการถอนตัวจากงานวิจัย: ท่านมีสิทธิที่จะถอนตัวจากการวิจัยครั้งนี้ได้ทุกเมื่อโดยไม่มีผลใดๆ

บุคคลที่สามารถติดต่อได้ หากมีคาถามในการวิจัยครั้งนี้:

นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก อาคารศูนย์การเรียนรู้พัฒนาภูมิปัญญาท้องถิ่น ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย จังหวัดมหาสารคาม โทรศัพท์ +(66) 061-9619819 อีเมล์ pikul.msu@gmail.com

ดร. Eric A. Ambele ผู้สอนนักศึกษาปริญญาเอก อาคารศูนย์การเรียนรู้พัฒนาภูมิปัญญาท้องถิ่น ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย จังหวัดมหาสารคาม โทรศัพท์ +(66) 0951364581 อีเมล์ ambesos@gmail.com/ eric.a@msu.ac.th

ที่สามารถติดต่อได้ หากต้องการถามถึงสิทธิในการเข้าร่วมงานวิจัยครั้งนี้:

อาคารศูนย์การเรียนรู้พัฒนาภูมิปัญญาท้องถิ่น ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย จังหวัดมหาสารคาม

โทรศัพท์ +(66) 0-4375-4369 0-4375-4361 ต่อ 4735 4703 โทรสาร +(66) 0-4375-4369

อีเมล์: human.msu.contact@gmail.com

เว็บไซต์ (ภาษาไทย): http://human.msu.ac.th/

เว็บไซต์ (ภาษาอังกฤษ): http://human.msu.ac.th/en/

ข้อตกลง:

ข้าพเจ้าได้อ่านขั้นตอนที่กล่าวเอาไว้ด้านบนแล้ว ข้ามเจ้ายินยอมที่จะเข้าร่วมขั้นตอนดังกล่าวโดยสมัครใจ และได้รับสำเนาเอกสารหนังสือขอความยินยอมฉบับนี้แล้ว

ผู้เข้าร่วม:_____วันที่:_____

ผู้วิจัยหลัก:_____วันที่:_____

พหูน ปณฺฑิโต ชีเว

Appendix C: Ethics Approval (English Version)

MAHASARAKHAM UNIVERSITY ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR
RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

Certificate of Approval

Approval number: 572-389/2024

Title : Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interaction in a Thai University Setting.

Principal Investigator : Miss. Pikul Kulsawang
Responsible Department : Faculty of Humanities and Social sciences
Research site : The University in Northeast Thailand

Review Method : Expedited Review

Date of Manufacture : 29 August 2024 **expire :** 28 August 2025

This research application has been reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects, Mahasarakham University, Thailand. Approval is dependent on local ethical approval having been received. Any subsequent changes to the consent form must be re-submitted to the Committee.

Ratree S.
(Assistant Professor Ratree Sawangjit)
Chairman

Approval is granted subject to the following conditions: (see back of this Certificate)

All approved investigators must comply with the following conditions:

1. Strictly conduct the research as required by the protocol;
2. Use only the information sheet, consent form (and recruitment materials, if any), interview outlines and/or questionnaires bearing the Institutional Review Board's seal of approval ; and return one copy of such documents of the first subject recruited to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the record (if applicable);
3. Report to the Institutional Review Board any serious adverse event or any changes in the research activity within five working days;
4. Provide reports to the Institutional Review Board concerning the progress of the research upon the specified period of time or when requested;
5. If the study cannot be finished within the expire date of the approval certificate, the investigator is obliged to reapply for approval at least two month before the date of expiration.
6. All the above approved documents are expired on the same date of the previously approved protocol (Protocol Number.....)

* A list of the Institutional Review Board members (names and positions) present at the meeting of Institutional Review Board on the date of approval of this study has been attached (per requested). All approved documents will be forwarded to the principal investigator.

Appendix D: Ethics Approval (Thai Version)

บันทึกข้อความ

ส่วนราชการ กองส่งเสริมการวิจัยและบริการวิชาการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม **โทร** 4069
ที่ อว 0605.1(9)/4690 **วันที่** 2 กันยายน 2567
เรื่อง ขอส่งหนังสือรับรองจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน

เรียน คณบดีคณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์

ตามที่นิสิตในสังกัดของท่านได้ยื่นโครงการวิจัยเพื่อขอรับการพิจารณาจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน จำนวน 1 เรื่อง ดังนี้

1. กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลางกรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ : Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interaction in a Thai University Setting. (No.67/389)

บัดนี้ ที่ประชุมคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม ครั้งที่ 8/2567 ได้พิจารณาโครงการวิจัยข้างต้นบนพื้นฐานด้านจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคนแล้ว เมื่อวันที่ 29 สิงหาคม 2567 พร้อมทั้งมีมติอนุมัติรับรองโครงการวิจัยแบบเร่งรัด (Expedited Review) ตามเอกสารใบรับรองจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคนที่ส่งมาพร้อมกันนี้ ทั้งนี้หากมีการเปลี่ยนแปลงใดๆ ในโครงการวิจัย ผู้วิจัยจักต้องยื่นขอรับการพิจารณาใหม่

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดทราบและดำเนินการต่อไป

(ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์จตุพร เหลืองอุบล)
กรรมการและเลขานุการคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม



คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

เอกสารรับรองโครงการวิจัย

เลขที่การรับรอง : 572-389/2567

ชื่อโครงการวิจัย (ภาษาไทย) กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลางกรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ
ชื่อโครงการวิจัย (ภาษาอังกฤษ) Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interaction in a Thai University Setting.

ผู้วิจัย : นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง
หน่วยงานที่รับผิดชอบ : คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
สถานที่ทำการวิจัย : มหาวิทยาลัยในภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือ

ประเภทการพิจารณาแบบ : แบบเร่งรัด

วันที่รับรอง : 29 สิงหาคม 2567 **วันหมดอายุ :** 28 สิงหาคม 2568

ข้อเสนอการวิจัยนี้ ได้รับการพิจารณาและให้ความเห็นชอบจากคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคามแล้ว และอนุมัติในด้านจริยธรรมให้ดำเนินการศึกษาวิจัยเรื่องข้างต้นได้ บนพื้นฐานของโครงร่างงานวิจัยที่คณะกรรมการฯ ได้รับและพิจารณา เมื่อเสร็จสิ้นโครงการแล้วให้ผู้วิจัยส่งแบบฟอร์มการปิดโครงการและรายงานผลการดำเนินงานมายังคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม หรือหากมีการเปลี่ยนแปลงใดๆ ในโครงการวิจัย ผู้วิจัยจักต้องยื่นขอรับการพิจารณาใหม่

ภาธร สว่างจิตร

(ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ เภสัชกรหญิงราตรี สว่างจิตร)
ประธานคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

ทั้งนี้ การรับรองนี้มีเงื่อนไขดังที่ระบุไว้ด้านหลังทุกข้อ (ดูด้านหลังของเอกสารรับรองโครงการวิจัย)

นักวิจัยทุกท่านที่ผ่านการรับรองจริยธรรมการวิจัยต้องปฏิบัติดังต่อไปนี้

1. ดำเนินการวิจัยตามที่ระบุไว้ในโครงการวิจัยอย่างเคร่งครัด
2. ใช้เอกสารแนะนำอาสาสมัคร ใบยินยอม (และเอกสารเชิญเข้าร่วมวิจัยหรือใบโฆษณาถ้ามี) แบบสัมภาษณ์ และหรือ แบบสอบถาม เฉพาะที่มีตราประทับของคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมในคน มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม เท่านั้น และส่งสำเนาเอกสารดังกล่าวที่ใช้กับผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยจริงรายแรกมาที่คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน เพื่อเก็บไว้เป็นหลักฐาน
3. รายงานเหตุการณ์ไม่พึงประสงค์ร้ายแรงที่เกิดขึ้นหรือการเปลี่ยนแปลงกิจกรรมวิจัยใดๆ ต่อคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม ภายในระยะเวลา 5 วันทำการ
4. ส่งรายงานความก้าวหน้าต่อคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน ตามเวลาที่กำหนดหรือเมื่อได้รับการร้องขอ
5. หากการวิจัยไม่สามารถดำเนินการเสร็จสิ้นภายในกำหนด ผู้วิจัยต้องยื่นขออนุมัติใหม่ก่อน อย่างน้อย 60 วัน
6. หากการวิจัยเสร็จสมบูรณ์ผู้วิจัยต้องแจ้งปิดโครงการตามแบบฟอร์มของคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมในคน มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

* รายชื่อของคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน (ชื่อและตำแหน่ง) ที่เข้าร่วมประชุม ณ วันที่พิจารณารับรองโครงการวิจัย (หากร้องขอล่วงหน้า)

ECMSU01-05.04

เอกสารชี้แจงผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัย (สำหรับการสัมภาษณ์)
(สำหรับการตอบแบบสอบถาม 18 ปีขึ้นไป)

เรียน .....

เนื่องด้วยข้าพเจ้า นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง นิสิตระดับปริญญาเอก สาขาวิชาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม กำลังดำเนินการวิจัย เรื่อง กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ (Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interaction in a Thai University Setting) โดยมีวัตถุประสงค์ของการวิจัยเพื่อศึกษากลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ ท่านอาจจะไม่ได้รับประโยชน์โดยตรงจากการเข้าร่วมโครงการวิจัยนี้ แต่ข้อมูลที่ได้จะมีประโยชน์ต่อทางวิชาการ

หากท่านตัดสินใจเข้าร่วมการวิจัยแล้ว ผู้วิจัยจะขอให้ท่านทำแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับกลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ ซึ่งประกอบด้วย 3 ส่วน ได้แก่ คำถามทั่วไป คำถามหลักและคำถามเพิ่มเติม หลังจากนั้นผู้วิจัยจะขอสัมภาษณ์และสนทนากลุ่ม เกี่ยวกับประเด็นข้างต้น ซึ่งจะใช้เวลาในการสัมภาษณ์ประมาณ 30 นาที/ชั่วโมง ข้อมูลที่ได้จากการสัมภาษณ์ ผู้วิจัยจะขออนุญาตบันทึกเสียงและบันทึกวิดีโอ และจะดำเนินการทำลายข้อมูลภายหลังเสร็จสิ้นการวิจัย

หากท่านรู้สึกอึดอัด หรือรู้สึกไม่สบายใจกับบางคำถาม ท่านมีสิทธิ์ที่จะไม่ตอบคำถามเหล่านั้นได้ รวมถึงท่านมีสิทธิ์ถอนตัวออกจากโครงการนี้เมื่อใดก็ได้ โดยไม่ต้องแจ้งให้ทราบล่วงหน้า และการไม่เข้าร่วมวิจัยหรือถอนตัวออกจากโครงการวิจัยนี้ จะไม่มีผลกระทบใด ๆ ต่อผลการเรียนของท่าน

ข้อมูลในการสัมภาษณ์จะถูกเก็บรักษาไว้ ไม่เปิดเผยต่อสาธารณะเป็นรายบุคคล แต่จะรายงานผลการวิจัยในภาพรวมเท่านั้น และจะดำเนินการทำลายข้อมูลที่เกี่ยวข้องภายหลังเสร็จสิ้นการวิจัย

การวิจัยครั้งนี้ท่านจะไม่ได้รับค่าตอบแทนและไม่เสียค่าใช้จ่ายใด ๆ ทั้งสิ้น

หากท่านมีข้อสงสัยเกี่ยวกับงานวิจัย โปรดติดต่อได้ที่ นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม เบอร์โทรศัพท์ 061-9619819 หากท่านได้รับการปฏิบัติไม่ตรงตามที่ระบุไว้หรือต้องการทราบสิทธิของท่านขณะเข้าร่วมการวิจัยนี้ สามารถติดต่อได้ที่ "คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในมนุษย์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม กองส่งเสริมการวิจัยและบริการวิชาการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม" โทร. 043-754416 เบอร์ภายใน 1755

ขอขอบพระคุณอย่างสูง

พิกุล กุลสว่าง
(นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง)
ผู้วิจัย

มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม Mahasarakham University
Ethics Committee for Human Research
คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน

ECMSU01-06.03

แบบแสดงความยินยอมให้ทำการวิจัยจากอาสาสมัคร
(สำหรับอาสาสมัครอายุ 18 ปีขึ้นไป)

ข้าพเจ้า (นาง/นางสาว/นาย) ..... นามสกุล ..... อายุ ..... ปี
บ้านเลขที่ ..... หมู่ที่ ..... ตำบล ..... อำเภอ ..... จังหวัด .....

ได้อ่านคำชี้แจง/ รับฟังคำอธิบายจาก นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง เกี่ยวกับการเป็นอาสาสมัครในโครงการวิจัย เรื่อง "กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ (Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interaction in a Thai University Setting)" โดยข้อความที่อธิบายประกอบด้วยรายละเอียดทั้งหมดเกี่ยวกับที่มาและจุดมุ่งหมายในการทำวิจัย, รายละเอียดของขั้นตอนต่าง ๆ ที่ข้าพเจ้าต้องปฏิบัติและได้รับการปฏิบัติ, ประโยชน์ที่ข้าพเจ้าจะได้รับจากการวิจัย และความเสี่ยงที่อาจจะเกิดขึ้นจากการเข้าร่วมการวิจัย รวมทั้งแนวทางป้องกันและแก้ไขหากเกิดอันตราย โดยได้อ่าน/ รับฟังคำอธิบายข้อความในเอกสารชี้แจงสำหรับอาสาสมัครที่ให้สัมภาษณ์โดยตลอด อีกทั้งยังได้รับคำอธิบายและการตอบข้อสงสัยจากหัวหน้าโครงการวิจัยเป็นที่เรียบร้อยแล้ว

ตลอดจนการรับรองจากผู้วิจัยที่จะเก็บรักษาข้อมูลของข้าพเจ้าไว้เป็นความลับ และไม่ระบุชื่อหรือข้อมูลส่วนตัวเป็นรายบุคคลต่อสาธารณชน โดยผลการวิจัยจะนำเสนอในลักษณะภาพรวมที่เป็นการสรุปผลการวิจัยเพื่อประโยชน์ทางวิชาการเท่านั้น

"ในการเข้าร่วมเป็นอาสาสมัครของโครงการวิจัยครั้งนี้ ข้าพเจ้าเข้าร่วมด้วยความสมัครใจ" และข้าพเจ้าสามารถถอนตัวจากการศึกษานี้เมื่อใดก็ได้ ถ้าข้าพเจ้าปรารถนา โดยจะไม่มีผลกระทบและไม่เสียสิทธิ์ใด ๆ ที่ข้าพเจ้าจะได้รับต่อไปในอนาคต

ข้าพเจ้าเข้าใจข้อความในเอกสารชี้แจงอาสาสมัคร และแบบแสดงความยินยอมนี้โดยตลอดแล้ว จึงลงลายมือชื่อไว้ ณ ที่นี้

ลงชื่อ.....อาสาสมัคร
(.....)
วันที่.....

ลงชื่อ.....พยาน *(กรณีที่อ่านคำชี้แจงให้อาสาสมัครฟัง)*
(.....)
วันที่.....

ลงชื่อ พิกุล กุลสว่าง .....ผู้ขอความยินยอม
(นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง)
วันที่.....

มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม Mahasarakham University Ethics Committee for Human Research คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัย

ECMSU01-06.06

แบบเสนอขอรับพิจารณายกเว้นการขอความยินยอมจากอาสาสมัคร (Waiver of Informed Consent)

โดยทั่วไปผู้วิจัยจะต้องไม่ทำวิจัยโดยไม่ได้ขอความยินยอมจากผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัย/อาสาสมัครในกรณีที่จะขอยกเว้นการขอความยินยอม จะต้องได้รับการพิจารณารับรองจากคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคนก่อน โปรดเลือก และใช้รายละเอียดต่อไปนี้ และแสดงเหตุผลในการขอยกเว้น

1	ชื่อโครงการ (ไทย) กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ (อังกฤษ) Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interaction in a Thai University Setting	
2	ชื่อหัวหน้าโครงการวิจัย นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง	
3	**ต้องการ ขอยกเว้นการขอความยินยอมอาสาสมัคร (Waiver of informed consent)** **เลือก 3.1 หรือ 3.2 (หากจะขอยกเว้นเฉพาะการลงนามเป็นลายลักษณ์อักษร ให้เลือกข้อ 4)**	
☐	3.1	**การวิจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการรักษาในภาวะฉุกเฉิน และอาสาสมัครอยู่ในภาวะวิกฤต หรือไม่สามารถให้การยินยอมด้วยตนเอง**
	☐	การวิจัยเกี่ยวข้องกับอาสาสมัครที่ตกอยู่ในภาวะฉุกเฉินหรือภาวะวิกฤตและการรักษาที่มีอยู่ในปัจจุบันยังไม่ได้รับการพิสูจน์หรือไม่มีประสิทธิภาพเพียงพอ และการรวบรวมข้อมูลอย่างถูกต้องตามหลักวิทยาศาสตร์ของโครงการวิจัยนี้จะสามารถตอบคำถามในแง่ประสิทธิภาพและความปลอดภัยของการรักษา อธิบาย .....
	☐	การขอความยินยอมจากอาสาสมัครไม่สามารถกระทำได้ เนื่องจากอาสาสมัครอยู่ในภาวะวิกฤต และการวิจัยไม่สามารถรอการขอความยินยอมจากญาติหรือผู้แทนโดยชอบตามกฎหมายของอาสาสมัคร และไม่มีวิธีการใดที่สามารถติดต่อญาติหรือผู้แทนโดยชอบตามกฎหมายของอาสาสมัครเพื่อขอความยินยอมได้ทัน ในช่วงเวลาดังกล่าว อธิบาย.....
	☐	การวิจัยนี้จะไม่สามารถกระทำได้ (impracticable) หากไม่ได้รับอนุญาตให้ยกเว้นการขอความยินยอม อธิบาย.....
	☐	มีแผนการขอความยินยอมจากญาติหรือผู้แทนโดยชอบตามกฎหมาย ภายในหรือหลังจากผ่านช่วงระยะเวลาการรักษา (therapeutic window) ที่ชัดเจน (เช่น ขอความยินยอมจากผู้ป่วยหรือผู้แทนเพื่อใช้ข้อมูลที่เก็บไว้ โดยขอความยินยอมเมื่อผู้ป่วยอาการคงที่แล้ว) และต้องมีหลักฐานความพยายามในการติดต่อญาติหรือผู้แทนโดยชอบตามกฎหมายเพื่อรายงานความก้าวหน้าต่อ EC อธิบาย.....

มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม Mahasarakham University คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน Ethics Committee for Human Research

ECMSU01-06.06

☑	3.2	**การศึกษาทางด้านพฤติกรรมศาสตร์และมานุษยวิทยา บางประเด็นที่หากอาสาสมัครได้รับแจ้งข้อมูลการวิจัยอาจมีการเปลี่ยนแปลงพฤติกรรมทำให้ผลการวิจัยไม่เที่ยงตรง เช่น deception study ทั้งนี้ผู้วิจัยจะต้องชี้แจงเหตุผลและแจ้งแนวทางการขอความยินยอม หรือการให้ข้อมูลแก่อาสาสมัครเพื่อให้คณะกรรมการพิจารณาความเหมาะสมก่อน**
	☑	การวิจัยมีความเสี่ยงต่ออาสาสมัครไม่มากเกินกว่าความเสี่ยงที่อาสาสมัครจะได้รับในการดำเนินกิจวัตรประจำวัน อธิบาย....แบบสอบถาม และการสัมภาษณ์ในงานวิจัยไม่มีความเสี่ยงต่ออาสาสมัคร และไม่กระทบต่อชีวิตประจำวัน และการเรียนของอาสาสมัคร ผู้วิจัยจะเข้าดำเนินการเก็บข้อมูลในช่วงเวลาที่อาสาสมัครว่างเว้นและสะดวกมากที่สุด....
	☑	การยกเว้นการขอความยินยอมจากอาสาสมัครจะไม่ส่งผลกระทบต่อสิทธิและความเป็นอยู่ที่ดีของอาสาสมัคร อธิบาย...การขอความยินยอม และการเก็บข้อมูลโดยแบบสอบถามและการสัมภาษณ์จากอาสาสมัครจะไม่กระทบต่อสิทธิเสรีภาพ วิถีชีวิตประจำวัน และการเรียนของอาสาสมัคร เนื่องจากผู้วิจัยจะเข้าดำเนินการเก็บข้อมูลในช่วงเวลาที่อาสาสมัครยินยอมและว่างเว้นและสะดวกมากที่สุด....
	☑	การวิจัยไม่สามารถกระทำได้ (impracticable) หากไม่ยกเว้นการขอความยินยอมจากอาสาสมัคร อธิบาย .....เนื่องจากการศึกษากลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ หากอาสาสมัครได้รับแจ้งข้อมูลการวิจัยอาจมีการเปลี่ยนแปลงพฤติกรรมทำให้ผลการวิจัยไม่เที่ยงตรง.....
	☑	อาสาสมัครจะได้รับแจ้งเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับการวิจัยตามความเหมาะสมในภายหลัง (debriefing) อธิบาย .....ภายหลังเก็บข้อมูล วิเคราะห์และสรุปผลการวิจัย ผู้วิจัยจะดำเนินการนำผลการวิจัยกลับไปให้กลุ่มเป้าหมายที่เป็นอาสาสมัครศึกษาและตรวจสอบข้อมูลผลการวิจัย เพื่อเป็นการแจ้งอาสาสมัครและพัฒนาคุณภาพงานวิจัยต่อไป.....

<u>หมายเหตุ</u> กรณีเป็นโครงการวิจัยยาหรือเครื่องมือแพทย์ที่อยู่ในระหว่างวิจัยเพื่อขอขึ้นทะเบียนยาของอค์กรอาหารและยา ไม่สามารถขอยกเว้นได้

ลงชื่อ.....พิกุล กุลสว่าง.....

(นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง)

หัวหน้าโครงการวิจัย

มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม Mahasarakham University Ethics Committee for Human Research คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน

ECMSU01-06.06

สำหรับกรรมการ

☐ รับรองการขอยกเว้นการขอความยินยอม

☐ ปรับปรุงแก้ไขเพื่อรับรอง

☐ ไม่รับรอง ไม่เข้าข่ายการขอยกเว้นการขอความยินยอม

หมายเหตุ .....

.....

ลงชื่อกรรมการ .....

(.....)

วันที่ .....





ที่ อว 0605.3/ 897

คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย
จังหวัดมหาสารคาม 44150

22 เมษายน 2567

เรื่อง ขออนุญาตให้นิสิต/นักศึกษาเก็บข้อมูลงานวิจัย

เรียน .....

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย 1) เอกสารคำชี้แจงสำหรับอาสาสมัคร/ผู้ให้ข้อมูล จำนวน 1 ชุด
2) แบบสอบถาม และแนวทางการสัมภาษณ์ จำนวน 1 ชุด

ด้วย นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง รหัสนิสิต 65010161001 นิสิตระดับปริญญาเอก หลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม กำลังศึกษางานวิจัย เรื่อง **กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ** (Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interaction in a Thai University Setting) ดังนั้น เพื่อให้การศึกษาในครั้งนี้สำเร็จลุล่วงด้วยดี คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม จึงใคร่ขออนุญาตให้นิสิต/นักศึกษาดังกล่าว เข้าดำเนินการเก็บข้อมูลงานวิจัยในพื้นที่ของท่าน

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณาอนุญาต คณะฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าคงได้รับความร่วมมือจากท่านด้วยดี และขอขอบพระคุณมา ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.นิตยา วรรณกิตร์)
คณบดีคณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
ปฏิบัติราชการแทน อธิการบดีมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม



คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
โทร. 043-754369 ภายใน 4782

Appendix E: Invitation Document of Validation of Research Instruments for Experts



ที่ อว ๐๖๐๕.๓/ ๒๓๗๘

คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย
จังหวัดมหาสารคาม ๔๔๑๕๐

๗ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๗

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์เป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญในการตรวจสอบเครื่องมือในการทำวิทยานิพนธ์

เรียน ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.เสาวนีย์ ตรีรัตน์ อเลกซานเดอร์

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย เครื่องมือในการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ จำนวน ๒ ชุด

ด้วย นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง นิสิตปริญญาเอก สาขาวิชาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม ได้รับอนุมัติให้ดำเนินการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง "กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ" ซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตร ปร.ด. การสอนภาษาภาษาอังกฤษ โดยมี Dr.Eric Agrie Ambele เป็นอาจารย์ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์

คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม พิจารณาแล้วเห็นว่าท่านเป็นผู้มีความรู้ความสามารถและมีประสบการณ์เกี่ยวกับเรื่องดังกล่าวเป็นอย่างดียิ่ง จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัย เพื่อนิสิตจะนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปดำเนินการขั้นตอนต่อไป

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณา คณะฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าจะได้รับความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านด้วยดีและขอขอบคุณ ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.นิตยา วรรณกิตร์)
คณบดีคณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
ปฏิบัติราชการแทน อธิการบดีมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

งานบัณฑิตศึกษา คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ โทรศัพท์ ๐-๔๓๗๕-๔๓๖๑
นิสิต นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง โทรศัพท์ ๐๖๑-๙๖๑๙๘๑๙



ที่ อว ๐๖๐๕.๓/๒๓๙๓

คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย
จังหวัดมหาสารคาม ๔๔๑๕๐

๓๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๗

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์เป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญในการตรวจสอบเครื่องมือในการทำวิทยานิพนธ์

เรียน รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.อัครพนท์ เนื้อไม้หอม

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย เครื่องมือในการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ จำนวน ๒ ชุด

ด้วย นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง นิสิตปริญญาเอก สาขาวิชาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม ได้รับอนุมัติให้ดำเนินการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง "กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ" ซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตร ปร.ด. การสอนภาษาภาษาอังกฤษ โดยมี Dr.Eric Agrie Ambele เป็นอาจารย์ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์

คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม พิจารณาแล้วเห็นว่าท่านเป็นผู้มีความรู้ความสามารถและมีประสบการณ์เกี่ยวกับเรื่องดังกล่าวเป็นอย่างดียิ่ง จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัย เพื่อนิสิตจะนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปดำเนินการขั้นตอนต่อไป

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณา คณะฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าจะได้รับความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านด้วยดีและขอขอบคุณ ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.นิตยา วรรณกิตร์)
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นิสิต นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง โทรศัพท์ ๐๖๑-๙๖๑๙๘๑๙



ที่ อว ๐๖๐๕.๓/๒๓๘๐

คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย
จังหวัดมหาสารคาม ๔๔๑๕๐

๗ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๗

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์เป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญในการตรวจสอบเครื่องมือในการทำวิทยานิพนธ์

เรียน ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ลักษมี นวมถนอม คีมูระ

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย เครื่องมือในการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ จำนวน ๒ ชุด

ด้วย นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง นิสิตปริญญาเอก สาขาวิชาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม ได้รับอนุมัติให้ดำเนินการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง "กลวิธีทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง กรณีศึกษานักศึกษาไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ" ซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตร ปร.ด. การสอนภาษาภาษาอังกฤษ โดยมี Dr.Eric Agrie Ambele เป็นอาจารย์ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์

คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม พิจารณาแล้วเห็นว่าท่านเป็นผู้มีความรู้ความสามารถและมีประสบการณ์เกี่ยวกับเรื่องดังกล่าวเป็นอย่างดียิ่ง จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัย เพื่อนิสิตจะนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปดำเนินการขั้นตอนต่อไป

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณา คณะฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าจะได้รับความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านด้วยดีและขอขอบคุณ ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.นิตยา วรรณกิตร์)
คณบดีคณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
ปฏิบัติราชการแทน อธิการบดีมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

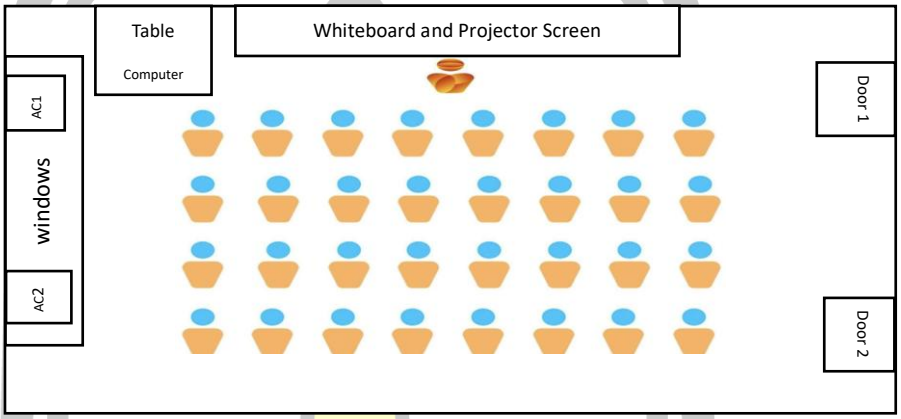
งานบัณฑิตศึกษา คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ โทรศัพท์ ๐-๔๓๗๕-๔๓๖๑
นิสิต นางสาวพิกุล กุลสว่าง โทรศัพท์ ๐๖๑-๙๖๑๙๘๑๙

Appendix F: Field Notes

Example Field Note 1

Location of observation: 2A-303	Participants' code: T1
Date of observation: 19 July 2024	Time: 8.50-12.10 p.m.
Course title: Listening and Speaking 2	Course's code: 1551114
Topic of the lesson: Chapter 1: I am only a child	

Classroom setting



- **Layout**: Traditional arrangement of desks facing a whiteboard and projector screen.
- **Technology**: Projector, computer, microphone, two air conditioning units.
- **Classroom Size**: Approximately 45 students present.

Classroom Activities

- Discussion
- Group and pair work activities

Teacher's Roles	Students' Roles
Facilitator 1. The topic was introduced using a PowerPoint presentation, with key points on the screen. 2. Students were engaged in a discussion about vocabulary. The teacher asked open-ended questions and used repetition to clarify meanings. 3. Students were guided through a structured pair-work exercise describing family relationships while the teacher closely monitored their conversations.	**Active Participants** 1. Students listened attentively during the lecture portion and took notes. 2. Students participated in the discussion by answering the teacher's questions with varying confidence and fluency. 3. Students practiced conversational patterns, repeating sentences as the teacher modeled pronunciation. 4. Students worked individually on classroom activities in English.

Encourager 1. Understanding was frequently checked by asking students to repeat key phrases and vocabulary. 2. The teacher circulated the room during a group activity, offering guidance and answering questions. **Classroom Manager** The lesson began by reviewing the course outline and book's content for five minutes. Then, the teacher gave clear instructions before each activity, ensuring students understood their roles in pair and group work. **Evaluator** 1. The session concluded with a summary of the key points and the homework assignment. 2. Giving constructive feedback during student's pair work.	**Collaborators** 1. Students engaged in pair work, taking turns to ask about family members and practicing vocabulary in conversations. 2. Higher-proficiency students-initiated conversations confidently, while others needed prompting from the teacher. **Explorers** 1. Students practiced conversational patterns, repeating sentences as the teacher modeled pronunciation. 2. Students asked clarifying questions about unfamiliar terms. **Observers** 1. Students listened attentively to vocabulary explanations, took notes, and asked clarifying questions about unfamiliar terms. 2. Most students appeared hesitant to speak, while some were more willing to contribute. **Peer Supporters** 1. Higher-proficiency students-initiated conversations confidently and supported others during pair work. 2. Some students expressed difficulty constructing sentences and required additional scaffolding from the teacher.

Field Note

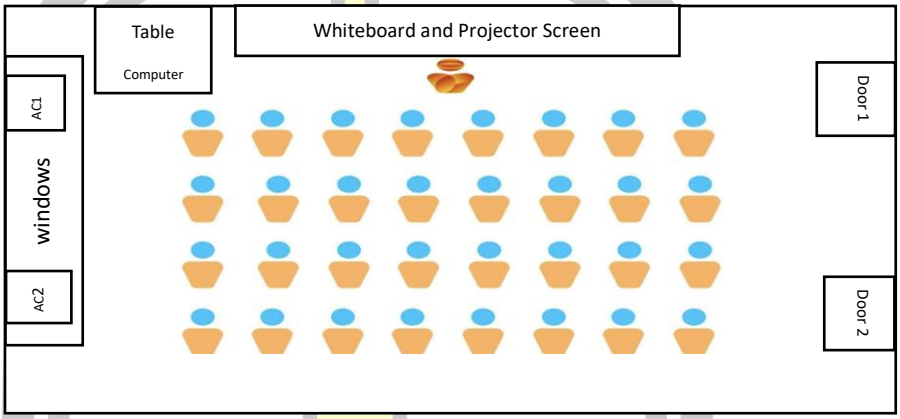
Descriptive Field Note	Reflective Field Note
Setting The classroom was well-lit, with large windows allowing natural light. The traditional desk arrangement allowed for easy interaction between the teacher and students.	**Researcher's Role** As an observer, I noticed that my presence in the room did not significantly affect the students' behavior. However, some students did glance at me occasionally, perhaps wondering about the purpose of my observation.

Interactions The teacher frequently used clarification and repetition to emphasize and clarify the points, which can help the teacher and students understand each other. For example, the teacher struggled with the cultural nuances of the students' Thai nicknames, leading students to clarify their names by repeating them several times. Moreover, the teacher's emphasis on pronunciation, particularly on stressing important words in sentences, helped students identify key phrases (e.g., "older brother," "middle child"). However, some students struggled to pronounce the more complex terms (e.g., "fiancée"). Mostly, students paid attention when discussing complex ideas with teacher and friends. Some students requested the teacher for repetition because they were unclear about the answer. One student repeated an explanation to help the teacher clarify the meanings of Thai nicknames. **Behavior** There was a noticeable difference in participation levels; some students were more active in discussions, while others were more reserved. The teacher's encouragement led to increased participation over time.	**Challenges** It was challenging to keep track of all the student interactions, especially during individual interaction, as I paid attention to some students who sat in front of the first row of the classroom because they could speak quite well in English. According to group work, I also focused more on particular groups, possibly leading to a bias in my observations. **Thoughts** I was struck by how language proficiency influenced classroom dynamics. Students with stronger English skills were more willing to participate, while others remained quiet. This might be an essential factor in the interactional pragmatic strategies employed in this setting.

Example Field Note 2

Location of observation: 2A-303	Participants' code: T1
Date of observation: 23 August 2024	Time: 8.50-12.10 p.m.
Course title: Listening and Speaking 2	Course's code: 1551114
Topic of the lesson: Chapter 9 Do you know?	

Classroom setting



- **Layout**: Traditional arrangement of desks facing a whiteboard and projector screen.
- **Technology**: Projector, computer, microphone, two air conditioning units.
- **Classroom Size**: Approximately 45 students present.

Classroom Activities

- Discussion
- Group and pair work activities

Teacher's Roles	Students' Roles
Facilitator 1. The teacher began the lesson by scaffolding the concept of indirect questions and negative sentences. The teacher broke the topic into manageable steps: first explaining direct questions and then how to transform them into indirect forms using key phrases like "Do you know…?" and "Can you tell me…?" The teacher also used scaffolding to model for grammatical accuracy, such as "I don't have no idea" and "I have no idea." 2. The teacher used visual aids on the	**Active Participants** Most students actively engaged in the pair work activity, enthusiastically matching vocabulary items with questions and practicing polite phrases. For example, one student confidently asked, "Can you tell me where I can find the health food store?" **Collaborators** In group and pair work activities, students worked well in pairs, taking turns asking and answering questions. They shared ideas and corrected each other's mistakes. For instance, one student helped the partner improve the

whiteboard, such as charts and example sentences, to guide students through forming indirect questions. 3. The teacher provided additional support to struggling students during the pair work activity. For example, when a student hesitated with, "Do you know where…?" the teacher prompted, 'Think about what you'd like to ask—maybe about the lunch special? Let's try: "Do you know if the lunch special includes a drink?" 4. The teacher also asked guiding questions like, "What do you think is the polite way to ask this?" or "What happens to the word order in indirect questions?" to encourage deeper thinking. 5. The teacher gradually reduced support for students who showed progress, allowing them to try independently. **Encourager** 1. The teacher used positive-reinforcement, such as nodding, smiling, and verbal praise, to motivate students. Phrases like "Excellent job! That sounds very polite" and "Great! You're getting the hang of it" were commonly heard. 2. The teacher encouraged students to take risks with language, reassuring them that making mistakes is part of the learning process. **Classroom Manager** The teacher gave clear instructions before each activity, ensuring students understood their pair and group work roles.	question by suggesting, "Suda, 'Do you know if there's a food court nearby?' instead of just 'Food court where?' **Explorers** Several students demonstrated initiative in group and pair work activities by creating indirect questions not listed in the examples. For instance, one pair asked, "Can you tell me how late the buses run?" showing creativity and applying the language in new contexts. **Observers** A few students initially observed their peers before attempting the activity themselves. These students appeared hesitant but gained confidence after hearing from others and receiving teacher scaffolding. **Peer Supporters** Stronger students took on supportive roles, helping their peers correct grammar, word order, or pronunciation errors. For example, one student explained the difference between "Do you know where it is?" and "Where is it?"

Evaluator

1. The teacher walked around the room as students practiced, listening carefully to their conversations. The teacher also offered immediate feedback, correcting errors like incorrect word order ("Can you tell me where is the salon?" to "Can you tell me where the salon is?").
2. The teacher noted which students needed more help with pronunciation and intonation for follow-up practice in future lessons.

Field Notes

Descriptive Field Notes	Reflective Field Notes
Setting The class used indirect questions, conducted in a supportive and interactive environment. Students worked in pairs or groups using resources like whiteboards and textbooks. The activities encouraged collaboration and real-world language application. **Interactions** ***Teacher-Student Interactions*** The teacher scaffolded learning through step-by-step instructions, prompts, and immediate feedback. The teacher also modeled correct language use and guided students through errors, encouraging participation and critical thinking. ***Student-Student Interactions*** Students collaborated actively, correcting each other's mistakes and practicing indirect questions. Stronger students often supported peers, fostering a culture of	**Researcher's Role** As the observer, my primary role was documenting the teacher's and students' dynamics during the lesson. I focused on capturing details of the teacher's IPS strategies and the students' collaborative behaviors. I maintained a non-intrusive presence to ensure natural interactions while noting how the classroom environment supported learning. I aimed to understand the impact of the teacher's roles and students' engagement in achieving the lesson's goals. **Challenges** ***Balancing Observation and Note-Taking*** It was challenging to capture all the interactions, especially during pair and group activities, where multiple conversations happened simultaneously. ***Student Diversity*** Not all students participated equally; some

mutual learning.

Behavior

Teacher Behavior

The teacher effectively balanced the facilitator, scaffolder, and evaluator roles, adapting support based on individual needs. The teacher also maintained engagement and promoted participation through positive-reinforcement.

Student Behavior

Most students engaged actively, showing creativity in forming their questions. Hesitant students gained confidence with peer and teacher support, while stronger students naturally took on leadership roles.

were hesitant or passive, requiring me to focus on active and less engaged learners, which was time-intensive.

Interpreting IPS Strategies Impact

While the teacher used effective IPSs, determining how much individual students benefited in real-time was challenging, as some required repeated prompts to respond.

Thoughts

Teacher's Effectiveness:

The teacher's scaffolding, such as breaking tasks into smaller steps and offering prompts, was essential for building student confidence.

Student Collaboration:

Peer support played a significant role in fostering engagement, especially for hesitant students. Stronger students naturally took on leadership roles, enhancing the collaborative environment.

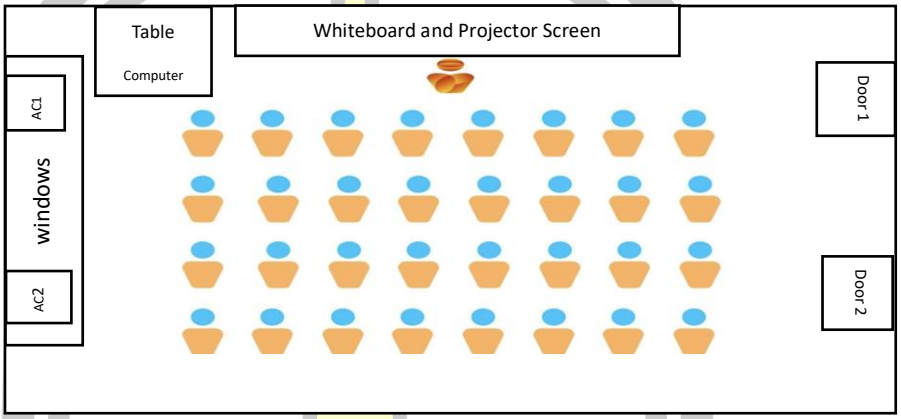
Future Focus

I noted the need for a closer analysis of how scaffolding strategies influence hesitant learners over time. Additionally, observing how quieter students transition from passive to active roles could provide deeper insights into their learning processes.

Example Field Note 3

Location of observation: 2A-303	Participants' code: T1
Date of observation: 24 September 2024	Time: 8.50-12.10 p.m.
Course title: Listening and Speaking 2	Course's code: 1551114
Topic of the lesson: Chapter 12 Sorry, my mistake.	

Classroom setting



- **Layout**: Traditional arrangement of desks facing a whiteboard and projector screen.
- **Technology**: Projector, computer, microphone, two air conditioning units.
- **Classroom Size**: Approximately 45 students present.

Classroom Activities

- Discussion
- Group and pair work activities

Teacher's Roles	Students' Roles
Facilitator 1. The teacher begins by reviewing the course outline and book's content for five minutes to set the lesson's context. 2. Introduce indirect questions using a PowerPoint presentation with clearly displayed key points, ensuring students understand the structure and context. 3. Demonstrates correct pronunciation and intonation for indirect questions, such as "Do you know how much the sweater is?" and "Can you tell me if you get the wrong change?"	**Active Participants** Students actively engaged in the discussion by expressing their confusion and seeking clarification using English and their first language (L1). For example, S23 verbalized the confusion about the absence of yellow, saying, "mai me yellow?" (Thai: "don't have yellow?"). They used non-verbal behavior (NVB) to emphasize their questioning area, like pointing to the printed material. These actions demonstrated the willingness to contribute to the problem-solving process.

4. The teacher effectively introduced indirect questions by leveraging translanguaging techniques, such as briefly using students' first language (L1) to explain challenging concepts like word order or politeness markers in indirect questions. This approach ensured that students with lower English proficiency could understand and participate. Additionally, the teacher incorporated non-verbal strategies, such as gestures and pointing to vocabulary on the board, to emphasize key points and clarify meanings. During pronunciation practice, the teacher modeled rising intonation patterns for indirect questions, using visual cues like arrows on the board to guide students.	**Collaborators** Students engaged in pair work, taking turns to ask about the wrong change, pointing out mistakes politely, and apologizing.
Encourager 1. Provides positive-reinforcement during activities, using phrases like "Good job!" and "That's a great way to ask the question!" 2. Encourages quieter students by offering prompts and supportive feedback, such as "Try this phrase: 'Please tell me…?" 3. Creates a supportive environment where students feel comfortable asking clarifying questions using translanguaging and non-verbal cues.	**Explorers** During the interaction, students worked collaboratively to resolve the misunderstanding. S11 contributed to the discussion by pointing out that orange, not yellow, was present. They used translanguaging by responding in Isan, saying, "me tea orange" (Isan: "has only orange"), to clarify their point. Alongside their verbal input, NVB, such as pointing to the specific section on the paper, helped others understand the issue. This collaboration facilitated a shared effort to clarify and solve the problem.
Classroom Manager 1. Clearly explains the instructions for vocabulary matching, role-playing, and group discussions, ensuring smooth	**Observers** Some students observed the interaction quietly, relying on their peers' contributions to understand the issue. These students demonstrated NVB by nodding along or maintaining focused eye contact while listening to their peers speak in Thai, Isan, or English. Their observation helped them process the discussion before actively engaging or providing input. **Peer Supporters** Stronger students took on a supportive role by encouraging hesitant classmates to participate and validating their contributions. For example, S11 supported S23's clarification by agreeing and further

transitions between tasks. 2. Circulates the room during pair and group work to observe students' participation, answer questions, and keep them on task. 3. Ensures all students are actively engaged by redirecting off-task behavior and balancing involvement in group activities. **Evaluator** 1. Frequently assesses comprehension by using translanguaging and non-verbal asking students to repeat key phrases and vocabulary or restate indirect questions with the correct intonation. 2. Evaluates students' ability to use indirect questions during role-plays and real-life practice by observing fluency, accuracy, and pronunciation. 3. The teacher evaluated students' understanding through both verbal and non-verbal means. For instance, the teacher asked students to repeat indirect questions and used gestures to correct intonation or emphasize word stress. Additionally, the teacher incorporated translanguaging to assess comprehension, asking follow-up questions in students' L1 to confirm their understanding before prompting them to respond in English.	emphasizing the presence of orange. They also used NVB, such as nodding and gesturing toward the relevant section, to reinforce S23's point. Their use of translanguaging allowed them to make the conversation accessible to students with varying levels of English proficiency, ensuring everyone could follow and contribute.

Field Notes	
Descriptive Field Notes	**Reflective Field Notes**
Setting The classroom was medium-sized. A whiteboard at the front displayed key points for the lesson, and students had printed materials for reference. The teacher used a combination of verbal instructions, gestures, and a PowerPoint presentation to introduce indirect questions. The environment was lively, with students engaging in discussions and using their first language (L1) and English to communicate. Visual aids, including charts and highlighted text on worksheets, supported the students' understanding of the task. **Interactions** ***Teacher-Student Interactions*** 1. The teacher encouraged students to express their thoughts using English and L1. 2. The teacher frequently used non-verbal behavior (NVB), such as pointing to the worksheet, nodding, and maintaining eye contact, to clarify their points and reassure students. ***Student-Student Interactions*** Students collaborated in pairs and small groups to resolve the misunderstanding. For example, S11 pointed out the presence of orange instead of yellow using Isan language and gestures, which helped their peers better understand the situation.	**Researcher's Role** As an observer, my role was to document the classroom dynamics. I paid attention to how the teacher facilitated understanding and managed interactions and how students engaged in collaborative problem-solving. My position was non-intrusive, ensuring that I did not influence the natural flow of interactions. I aimed to capture detailed notes on verbal and non-verbal communication, as well as IPSs employed by the teacher to address language barriers and scaffold learning. **Challenges** ***Capturing Multiple Interaction*** With multiple conversations happening simultaneously, it was challenging to document every instance of translanguaging or NVB. Some subtle non-verbal cues, such as quiet gestures or facial expressions, were difficult to observe across the room. ***Language Variability*** The students' use of Thai, Isan, and English created a rich but complex linguistic environment. It was sometimes difficult to interpret the full meaning of certain exchanges, especially when they rapidly switched between languages. ***Student Hesitation*** While many students participated actively, some were hesitant to speak or engage. This made it challenging to assess their understanding or reliance on peer support

Behavior ***Teacher Behavior*** 1. The teacher maintained a supportive tone throughout the lesson, using TLG (Thai and Isan language) and NVB, such as raising an eyebrow or tilting their head to demonstrate curiosity and encourage participation. 2. The teacher responded to students' questions patiently, using a combination of verbal explanations and gestures to clarify complex ideas. ***Student Behavior*** 1. Most students actively participated in the discussion, with some confidently sharing their observations and others relying on their peers or teacher for support. 2. Hesitant students observed their peers nodding or maintaining eye contact to follow the conversation. **Group Behavior** The class displayed cooperative behavior, with stronger students naturally taking on supportive roles to help their peers.	fully. **Thoughts** ***Effective Use of Translanguaging and NVB*** The teacher's translanguaging significantly supported student comprehension, such as incorporating Thai and Isan to explain complex concepts. Combining this with NVB, like pointing and nodding, helped bridge communication gaps and fostered a collaborative learning atmosphere. ***Peer Support as a Strength*** Students' reliance on peers for clarification and support was a key factor in their engagement. For instance, S11's role in explaining the absence of yellow and pointing out orange demonstrated how peer contributions can complement the teacher's scaffolding. ***Potential for Future Focus*** Observing hesitant students further might provide insights into their learning strategies and barriers to participation. Additionally, tracking how students transition from passive observation to active engagement could inform strategies for scaffolding and encouragement.

Appendix G: Semi-Structured Interview for Teacher
(English Version)

MAHASARAKHAM UNIVERSITY

Postgraduate Study in English

Language Teaching: ELT Programme

Research Title: Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in English as a Lingua Franca Classroom Interactions in a Thai University Setting

This research aims to explore teacher's and students' perceptions of using IPSs in an ELF classroom interaction through the following research question:

What are the teacher and students' perceptions of interactional pragmatic strategies usage in a Thai university English language classroom

Semi-Structured Interviews for Teacher	
Grand Tour Questions	
1	Please tell me about your educational background and work experiences related to English.
2	While studying English, did you have the opportunity to talk with other people in that language? Whom with? In which situation(s)?
3	How did you use English in your work? Whom did you talk to regularly?
4	Please tell me about using English in your daily routine.
Main Questions	
1	How would you describe your general experiences with classroom interactions in an English language classroom?
2	How do you perceive the role of interactional pragmatic strategies in facilitating communication in your classes?
3	What strategies (paraphrasing, repetition, clarification, etc.) do you commonly use to manage classroom interactions, especially when a communication breakdown occurs?
4	How do you adjust your language or communication style to enhance mutual understanding with your students?
5	How do you typically respond when a communication problem arises between you and your students?
6	What strategies do you find most effective in resolving misunderstandings during classroom discussions?
7	From your observation, what strategies do your students use to clarify

	misunderstandings or to ensure they are understood?
8	How do you assess the effectiveness of these strategies? (refer to No.7)
9	How do cultural and linguistic differences among students influence your interactional strategies in the classroom?
10	In what ways do you accommodate these differences to maintain effective communication? (refer to No. 9)
11	How do you think these strategies impact the learning outcomes of your students?
12	What is your overall perception of using interactional pragmatic strategies in your teaching practice?
Follow-up Questions	
1	You mentioned using (a specific strategy) in that situation. Could you elaborate on why you thought this was the most effective approach?
2	When you rephrased your instructions, what alternative strategies did you consider? Why did you choose it?
3	How do you usually determine whether the strategies you used were successful in aiding mutual understanding?
4	You said that repeating helps students understand better. How do you decide when repetition is necessary versus when it might be redundant?
5	You noted that students responded well to your use of (a specific strategy). Have you identified any situations where this strategy didn't work as well? Why do you think that was the case?
6	How do you adapt your strategies when you notice that some students struggle?
7	You talked about adapting your strategies for students from different cultural backgrounds. Can you share a specific example of how this adaptation was particularly challenging or rewarding?
8	How do you balance maintaining your teaching styles while accommodating the cultural and linguistic needs of your students?
9	You mentioned that you believe interactional pragmatic strategies are crucial in your teaching. Can you provide more details on how these strategies impact long-term learning outcomes?
10	In what ways do you think students perceive the effectiveness of these strategies? How did you receive any direct feedback from them?

Appendix H: Semi-Structured Interview for Students

MAHASARAKHAM UNIVERSITY

Postgraduate Study in English

Language Teaching: ELT Programme

Semi-Structured Interviews for Students	
Grand Tour Questions	
1	Please tell me about your educational background related to English and your background in English.
2	Please tell me about using English in your daily routine.
3	Explain how important English is for you now and in the future.
4	How often do you think you will use English? Why do you think so? Who would you like to communicate with in English?
Main Questions	
1	How do you feel about talking with your teacher and classmates in English during class?
2	Can you explain why communicating in English in class is easy or hard?
3	What do you do when you don't understand what the teacher is saying or when the teacher doesn't understand you?
4	Can you identify any points to ensure your teacher and classmates understand what you're saying?
5	How do you handle situations when there is a misunderstanding in the classroom and you have some time to address it?
6	What strategies help you most when you are trying to fix these misunderstandings?
7	How do you feel about how your teacher helps you understand the lessons?
8	Which of the teacher's strategies works best to make communication more transparent?
9	How do your culture and first language influence how you speak in class?
10	In what ways do you think your teacher and classmates consider cultural and first language differences when you speak in class?
11	What do you think about how communication strategies are used in the classroom?
12	How do you think communication strategies help you to learn effectively?
Follow-up Questions	
1	You said you used (a specific strategy) during a communication breakdown. Could you explain why you chose that particular approach?
2	When you responded to the teacher's question in (a specific way), what were you trying to achieve? How did you know that your message was understood?
3	You mentioned that the teacher's use of (a specific strategy) helped you understand better. Can you describe a time when this strategy didn't work well for you? What happened?
4	When the teacher rephrased or simplified their explanation, how did you know? How did it change your understanding of the lesson?

5	You discussed how you try to resolve some misunderstandings with the teacher. Can you share more about when this didn't work as well as you expected? What did you do next?
6	How do you feel when a misunderstanding occurs in the classroom? How do you usually handle misunderstandings?
7	You mentioned that your cultural background affects how you communicate in class. Can you explain how this influences your interactions with the teacher and other students?
8	How do you feel when the teacher addresses cultural or linguistic differences in the classroom? Explain how this helps with your understanding or participation.
9	You noted that interactional strategies are essential for communication in the classroom. Give some examples of a strategy that you found particularly helpful or unhelpful.
10	How do you think your classmates feel about the strategies used by the teacher? How have you discussed these strategies with them? What was the consensus?

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Appendix I: Transcription Conventions

Codes for Transcription

Symbol	Description
T	Teacher
S1, S2, etc.	Identified student
Ss	Several students at once or the whole class
USs	Unidentified students
/ok/ok/ok/	Overlapping or simultaneous utterances by more than one student
[do you understand?] [I see]	The outset and end of a spate of overlapping talk
=	A latched turn: One speaker continues what another speaker was saying without pausing
(.)	Pause for one second or less
(0.4)	Silence; length given in seconds
(( ))	A stretch of unintelligible speech with the length given in seconds
::	A colon after a vowel or word is used to show that the sound is extended. The number of colons shows the length of the extension
(hm, hh)	Onomatopoeic representations of the audible exhalation of air
.hh	An audible inhalation of air, e.g., a gasp. The more *hs*, the longer the in-breath
?	A question mark indicates that there is a slightly rising intonation
.	A period indicates that there is a slightly falling intonation
,	A comma indicates the continuation of the tone
-	A dash indicates an abrupt cut-off, where the speaker stops speaking suddenly

Symbol	Description *(Continued)*
↑ ↓	Up or down arrows are used to indicate that there is sharply rising or falling intonation. The arrow is placed just before the syllable in which the change in intonation occurs
Under	Underlines indicate the speaker's emphasis on the underlined portion of the word
CAPS	Capital letters indicate the speaker spoke the capitalized portion of the utterance at a higher volume than the speaker's normal volume
° °	This indicates an utterance much softer than the usual speech of the speaker. This symbol will appear at the beginning and the end of the utterance in question
< >	Talk that is produced more slowly and deliberately than surrounding talk
> <	Talk that is produced more quickly than surrounding talk
→	Arrows in the left margin point to specific parts of an extract discussed in the text
(would)	When a word appears in parentheses, it indicates that the transcriber has guessed what was said because it was indecipherable on the tape. Nothing would appear within the parentheses if the transcriber could not guess what was said.
(T organizes groups)	Bold indicates the editor's comments
@	laughter
<@>text</@>	Speaking with laughter
[P:26.7.24.W4]	Extract headings refer to the transcript library source of the research that initially collected the data

* Speaker codes are assigned for each conversation

* Adapted from Walsh (2014) and Smit (2010)

Appendix J: The Extracts of the Problem Adaptations Discussion

Extract E(1)

1→	T:	Witsuda , nickname ?	PI (Self-CRF)
2→	S25:	Nun↓/nûn/	R (Other-CRF)
3→	T:	Nun ↓/nûn/ N-O-O-N?	PI (Self-CRF, RP)
4		how do you spell your s ?	
5→	S25:	[N-]	R (Other-RPT)
6→	T:	[again ?]	PI (Self-PT)
7→	S25:	Nun↓ /nûn/	R (Other-RPT)
8→	T:	Nun↓	R (Self-RPS, DAH, CRF, RPT)
9		is there another Nun↓ in here?	
10		you're also Nun↓ ?	
11		N-O-O-N ? Noon:: /nuːn/ and Nun↓ /nûn/	
12		you're Noon:: /nuːn/	
13		Nun↓ /nûn/ , Nun↓ /nûn/ or Noon:: /nuːn/ ?	
14		how do you say name ? Nun↓ /nûn/	
15		no::: , that's Noon:: /nuːn/	
16		this is Noon:: /nuːn/ , Noon:: /nuːn/	
17→	S25:	Nun↓ /nûn/	R (Other-RP)
18→	T:	Noon:: /nuːn/afternoon:: okay ?	PI (Self-RPS, RP, CFM)
19→		so:: Nun↓ /nûn/ okay ?	
20→	S25:	or:::::: okay::	U (Other-AKL)

Extract E(2)

1→	T:	yes , but I mean , no , no , no:: I mean	
2		I agreed to flight attendant ?	
3		I didn't agree to flight attendant::	
4→	S2:	flight agent	R (Self-RPD)
5→	T:	flight agent ?	PI (Other-RPT)
6→	S19:	yes:: sorry:::@ flight attendant::@	U (Self- AKL)
7→	T:	>flight attendant and flight agent	U (Other-AKL, TLG, NBV)
8		>is not the same<	
9		>that's why I'm ngong< okay:::	

Extract E(3)

1→	T:	Bew ?	PI (Self-CRF)
2→	S8:	>sick leave /sɪk li:v/<	R (Other-CRF)
3→	T:	[Be-?]	PI (Self-RPT)
4→	S8:	[sick leave:: /sɪk li:v/]	R (Other-RPT&CRF)
5→	T:	she will be late:: /leɪt/ ?	PI (Self-RPS)
6→	S8:	sick leave /li:v/	R (Other-CRF) & (Self-RPT)
7→	T:	huh:: ? she's late:: /leɪt/ ?	PI (Self-UFL, CRF)
8→	S8:	leave:::/li:v/	R (Other-CRF) & (Self-RPT)
9→	T:	leave /li:v/? why ? is she working ?	PI (Self-CRF, RPT)
10		(0.8) what kind of a leave is that?	
11		we are not- , you're not working for me	
12		you're a student so you cannot [have leave/li:v/]	
13→	S12:	[she's sick]	R (Other-CRF)

14→	T:	she ↓sick	U (Self-CRF, UFL) & (Other-RPT)
15		((0.5)) I'm not your employer:::	
16		you don't say leave /liːv/	
17		hh::: sick	

Extract E(4)

1→	T:	>what?< [this one]?	PI (Other-CRF)
2→	S6:	[flexible /ˈfɪ.sɪ.bəl/ ? person.	R (Self-RPD)
3→	T:	you are a what ? (.) flexible /ˈfɪ.sɪ.bəl/?	PI (Self-CRF) & (Other-RPT)
4→	S6:	flexible /ˈflɛk.sɪ.bəl/ ?	R (Self-RP)
5→	T:	okay , ↑I'm a flexible person (0.2) okay:	U (Other-MDL, RPT, PR)
6		choose one because you need to memoriz::	
7		(.) okay ? choose one because you need to memorize	
8		(.) okay ? okay ? good::	

Extract E(5)

1→	S3:	° hello:::can I help you ? ° , ° I am a server::: °	PI (Self-CRF)
2→	T:	>lou↑der, please:::< I cannot hear you , again:: ?	R (Other-DAH)
3→	S3:	↑hello::: I am a server::: how can I hep you ?	PI (Self-CRF)
4→	T:	yes:: um::: I'm lost , and I want to go home	R (Other-CRF)
5		but I don't have a car:::	
6→	S3:	I can..I can call a taxi for ↑you	U (Self-RPT, RP)
7→	T:	yes , please..that would be great:::	U (Other-AKL)
		thank you so much::	

Extract E(6)

1→	T:	A ? A ? you're A ?	PI (Self-CRF)
2→	S3:	yes:::	R (Other-RPD)
3→	T:	I thought A. ((0.4)) oh::: sorry I have a friend::	R (Self-UFL, CRF)
4		she's a girl and her name is A , you are a cute boy:::	
5→	S3:	@ nice to meet you	U (Other-NVB, RPD)
6→	T:	nice to meet you too	U (Self-RPT)

Extract E(7)

1→	T:	so, what are the problems in the room ?	
2		hm::: Hong ? what are the problems in the room ?	
3		now , for example , I will be the hotel clerk (0.1)	
4		you are the guest , you call me , this room:::	
5→	S7:	hi , guest , I [want to::]	R (Self-RPD)
6→	T:	[no:::::::..] , you are the guest	PI (Other-RP, CRF, SCF)
7		I am hotel clerk	
8		you are the guest , you check in , okay ?	
9		you are the guest , check in , this is your room	
10		you pay::: but you get in the room and this is what you see	
11		so:: what are the problems in the room ? you call me:::	
12		ring , ring , ring::: okay:: >ring , ring , ring<	
13		hello , front desk:: how can I help you ?	
14→	S7:	(0.2) hello, clerk , how can I help you ?	PI (Self-RPD)
15→	T:	I am the clerk , you are the guest	R (Other-RP, CRF)
16		I am the clerk , you are the guest	

17 you are the guest

18→ S7: or:::::.. okay::: R (Self-RPD, AKL)

19→ T: okay ? again::: ring , ring , ring R (Other-CRF)

20 hello , front desk , how can I help you ?

21→ S7: (0.3) hello clerk , can you help me ? R (Self-DAH, CRF, RPT)

22 (0.2) hello , clerk , there are some problems in my room

23→ T: yes , ma'am , what can I do for you ? R (Other-RPD)

24→ S7: my room is dirty R (Self-CRF)

25→ T: oh:: I'm sorry to hear that U (Other-UFL, CRF)

26 I tell the housekeeper to your room right away

Extract E(8)

1→ S2: hello::: I' m a teacher

2→ T: oh yes , hi teacher:: R (Self-DAH, CRF)

3 ah::: I'm new here and ah:::

4 I'm new here , can you help me?

5 ah:::that would be grate:::

6 can you help me PLEASE ?

7→ S2: NO::: PI (Other-RPD)

8→ T: NO ? you're not going to help me ? R (Self-CRF, DAH, RPT)

9 I really need your help , like I'm a foreigner here

10 and I don't even know everything

11 can you help me please ?

12→ S2: ah::: I can help you::: R (Other-RPD)

13→ T: yes , that would be so amazing R (Self-RPD)

14→ S2:	ah:::I can call a taxi for you::	U (Other-RPD)
15→ T:	yes please , that would be so amazing , call a taxi	U (Self-AKL, CRF)
	(0.8) you're memorizing	
	you know that you just have to go with the flow::::	
	right ? you listen to me it's like you're talking to me	
	not memorize okay ? thanks:::	

Appendix K: Example of Textbook Tasks Including IPSs

1 | Vocabulary

A Complete the sentences. Match the types of people with the correct definitions.

a. role model	c. follower	e. loner	g. pessimist
b. problem solver	d. born leader	f. optimist	h. know-it-all

Repetition

1. An f feels positively about the future.
2. A ____ feels negatively about the future.
3. A ____ tries to find solutions.
4. A ____ acts as an example to others.
5. A ____ thinks he or she has all the answers.
6. A ____ prefers to be alone.
7. A ____ follows the crowd.
8. A ____ guides or directs others naturally.

2 | Conversation

CD1 12 **A** Listen. Why didn't Megan keep the change the salesclerk gave her? What did the salesclerk do for Megan?



Megan: Hey, Derek. It's me. You'll never guess what happened. ____

Derek: What?

Megan: Well, I was in a department store today, and I found a new dress. When I paid for it, the salesclerk gave me too much change. She gave me *a lot* more—

Derek: Sorry, but can I interrupt for a second? Did you keep the change?

Megan: No, of course not. That wouldn't be honest. I gave it back. ____

Derek: I bet she was happy.

Megan: She was. I didn't want her to lose her job. She was so grateful that she offered me a special discount. ____

Derek: She gave you a discount? ____

Megan: I tried to refuse, but she insisted. I've never experienced such kindness from a stranger before.



Repetition

4| Pronunciation Linking sounds

CD1 16 **A** Listen and practice. Notice how consonant sounds at the end of words are linked to the vowel sounds that follow them.

1. Do you have a reservation?
2. Could you fill in this card?

Repetition

B **PAIR WORK** Practice these sentences and questions. Pay attention to linked sounds.

1. Can I have your ID card?
2. Wireless is free here in the lobby.
3. Please enjoy your stay with us.
4. Is there anything more I can do?

3| Language Booster

A Notice how we report what someone said.

Comment	Reporting what someone said
I'm sorry.	She said she was sorry.
They have good food there.	He told me they had good food there.
He arrived at 8:30.	He said he had arrived at 8:30.
I haven't been here for long.	She said she hadn't been there for long.
I will ask her for an autograph.	I said I would ask her for an autograph.

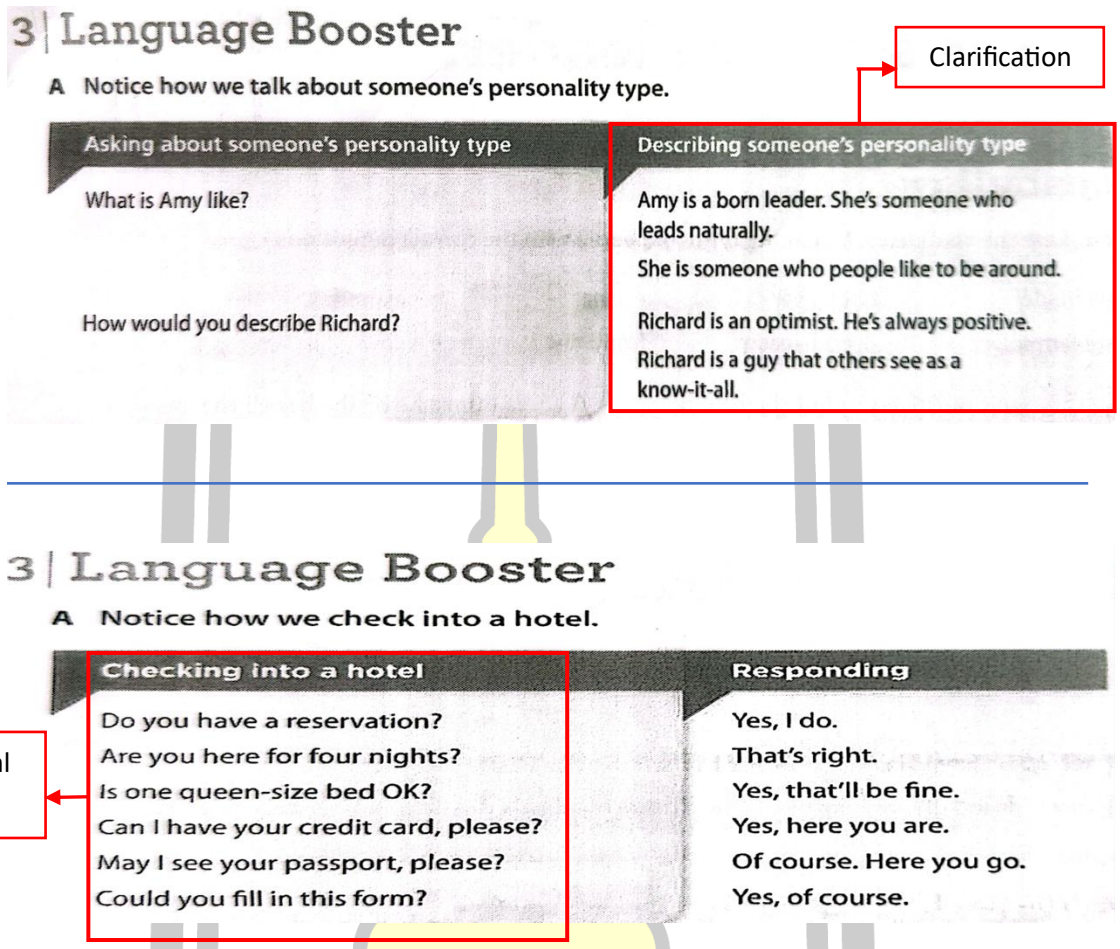
Paraphrasing

3| Language Booster

A Notice the different ways we make and acknowledge recommendations.

Acknowledgment

Making recommendations		Acknowledging recommendations
One thing we should do is	stop our gym membership.	I hadn't thought of that.
Something else we could do is	eat at home more often.	That's a good idea.
We could		I like that idea.
		I'm not so sure about that.
		I don't really like that idea.



3 | Language Booster

A Notice how we talk about someone's personality type.

Clarification

Asking about someone's personality type	Describing someone's personality type
What is Amy like?	Amy is a born leader. She's someone who leads naturally. She is someone who people like to be around.
How would you describe Richard?	Richard is an optimist. He's always positive. Richard is a guy that others see as a know-it-all.

3 | Language Booster

A Notice how we check into a hotel.

Direct Appeal for Help

Checking into a hotel	Responding
Do you have a reservation?	Yes, I do.
Are you here for four nights?	That's right.
Is one queen-size bed OK?	Yes, that'll be fine.
Can I have your credit card, please?	Yes, here you are.
May I see your passport, please?	Of course. Here you go.
Could you fill in this form?	Yes, of course.

Text book: Bohlke, D., & Richards, J. C. (2012). *Speak Now 3: Communication with confidence.* Oxford University Press.

Appendix L: Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in EFL Context

No.	Strategies	Definition	Example	Description
1	Acknowledgment (AKL)	Acknowledgments help maintain conversation flow. Moreover, it shows the listener's engagement, understanding, agreement, and encouragement without interrupting the speaker.	1→S23: it's final to the total::: (Self-CRF) 2→ T: yeah , final total:: (Other-RPT, BCC, **AKL**) 3 ↑oh , not yellow::sorry 4 my bad:: , not yellow::	S23 clarified that yellow referred to the final total, resolving the misunderstanding (line 1). The teacher acknowledged the correction, apologized for the mistake, and expressed politeness, fostering a supportive and collaborative environment (lines 2-4)
2	Backchanelling Cue (BCC)	Backchanelling Cue refers to verbal and non-verbal use by the *listener*. It maintains conversation flow by signaling engagement, sympathy, understanding, and encouragement such as "Uh-huh," "I see," or "Really?" and gestures such as nodding, smiling, and eye contact, allowing the speaker to continue.	1→S28: hi:: I'm a restaurant manager (Self-PT) 2 what would you like to order::? 3→ T: ah:: yes:: I heard that (Other-**BCC**, CRF) 4 tomorrow you're going 5 to give free pizza 6 if we get a table	S28 introduced the restaurant as S28 was a manager offering assistance and prompting the teacher to provide specific information, creating the context for the discussion (lines 1-2). The teacher acknowledged and referenced the free pizza promotion the next day, explaining the interest in getting a table (lines 3-6).
3	Confirmation (CFM)	Confirmation is used when speakers seek confirmation from listeners to continue the conversation. Requests for confirmation and confirmation checks ensure the previous utterance was heard or understood correctly.	1→T: you give me back 400 ? (Self-RPT, RPS, CRF, 2 you know:: UFL, TLG, NVB) 3 how many ice cream is 400 4 how many ice cream 5 or 400 is already for shabu shi 6 ↓im mak:: loei::@ 7→S6: sure @ (Other-**CFM**)	The teacher reinforced the lesson by repeating the scenario, further assessing S6's confidence and comprehension (lines 1-6). S6 reaffirmed the answer, showing clarity and understanding (line 7).
4	Clarification (CRF)	Clarification occurs when a speaker realizes their interlocutor does not understand and adjusts their speech to ensure clarity. This may involve repeating or rephrasing statements for better comprehension. It also includes asking for clarification by requesting	1→ S4: teacher how to [describe?] (Other-DAH) 2→ T: [hh:: just a moment] (Self-STL, **CRF**) 3 let me finish my message 4 (0.4) because someone is in my house 5 ° maybe it is important ° 6 give me:: 10 seconds (0.2) just a moment (0.14)	S4 directly appealed to the teacher for help with a question unrelated to the teacher's initial query, showing an attempt to engage despite the broader focus of the teacher's question (line 1). The teacher, needing to address a personal emergency, stalled

		an explanation of unfamiliar meanings or structures.		the interaction and provided a brief explanation to clarify the delay (lines 2-6).
5	Direct Appeal for Help (DAH)	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge. It proposes to seek clarification, translation, or an explanation directly.	1→ T: what are the classroom rules:: ? (Self-**DAH**) 2 number ↑one ? 3→ S3: keep phones away (Other-RPD)	The teacher asked about classroom rules, demonstrated a processing issue, and reflected on the teacher's effort to prompt student participation (lines 1-2). S3 responded correctly, resolving the interaction and marking a resolution (line 3).
6	Encouragement (ECR)	Encouragement involves positive words, actions, or gestures to support, motivate, and boost confidence, especially in learning environments. During interactions, verbal encouragement in the classroom includes phrases like "Great job! Keep it up!" or "You're improving every day!" Non-verbal encouragement guidance to understand and imitate accurate language use.	1→ S15: hi:: do you know how much::: (Self-DAH) 2 the ticket in Korea is ? 3→ S14: it's two thousand baht (Other-RPD) 4→ T: okay , good:::: (Other-**ECR**)	S15 initiated the conversation by asking about the ticket price (lines 1-2). S14 responded to the ticket price (line 3). The teacher responded to S15 and S14 with encouragement (line 4).
7	Guessing (GS)	Guessing is similar to a confirmation request, but the latter implies greater certainty regarding the keyword, whereas guessing involves real indecision.	1→ T: no::: again:::? (Self-RPD 2→S12: Is it reception:: ? (Other-**GS**)	The teacher encouraged further clarification and prompted them to elaborate (line 1). The student repeated "reception" but with hesitation, showing some uncertainty (line 2).
8	Interpretive Summary (ITS)	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly.	1→ S4: = ↑oh::: 90 (Other-RPT) & (Self-BCC) 2→ T: yes:: ↑so:: high (Self-**ITS**, RPT, CFM, CRF) 3 right ? ↑so:: high , 90 4 my ↑gosh , teacher , so high , 90 , of ↑course 5 if I want to give you a grade A 6 it means we can talk in English 7 you talk to me in English 8 you understand my English:: 9 ↑yes , sure:: I will give you a grade A 10 ↑MAjor in ↑ENGlish:: 11 you get a grade A , you can speak ENGlish::	S4 interjected with "oh::: 90," expressing surprise and acknowledgment. (line 1). The teacher elaborated on the significance of 90%, describing it as "so high" and using rhetorical questions like "right?" to encourage reflection. This elaboration served as ITS, a form of CRF, where the teacher expanded

			12 okay ? that's 90	on the key point to connect the percentage to its contextual importance (lines 2-3). The teacher extended the explanation, linking the grading criteria to English proficiency and communication skills. By elaborating and repeating key points, the teacher used CRF as a scaffolding tool, ensuring students grasped the relevance of achieving this high standard (lines 4-12).
9	Modeling (MDL)	The process of demonstrating a behavior, skill, or strategy to help learners understand and replicate it. It provides learners with clear and structured guidance to understand and imitate accurate language use.	1→ T: may:: I come in , please ? = (Self-**MDL**) 2→ S3: = may I come in , please ? (Other-RPT)	The teacher uses MDL through a modal construction, providing a linguistic framework for the student to follow (line 1). The student's immediate repetition indicates adoption and internalization of the modeled structure, reinforcing correct modal usage in polite requests (line 2).
10	Message Abandonment (MSA	A speaker leaves a message unfinished because they encounter difficulties expressing themselves, often due to a lack of vocabulary,. grammatical knowledge, or confidence in the target language	1→ S28: (0.7) can for:: for:: (Self-RTV, RPT, **MAB**) 2 I don't know @ 3→ T: tomorrow you have an event (Other-RPS, CRF) 4 you're giving FREE pizza 5 if we get a spot tomorrow	S 28 struggled, admitting uncertainty with fragmented and hesitant speech, reflecting the challenge of articulating the idea and attempting to respond but failing to complete the message by "saying I don't know" (lines 1-2). The teacher redirected the conversation by reiterating the details of the free pizza promotion and emphasizing the need for a spot to help clarify the situation (lines 3-5).
11	Non-verbal (NVB)	Non-verbal refers to communication that occurs	1→ S6: sure @ (Other-CFM, **NVB**)	S6 reaffirmed the answer, showing clarity,

		without spoken or written words. It includes various forms of body language, gestures, facial expressions, tone of voice, and other physical cues that convey meaning or emotion.	2→ Tsure ? no shabu shi ? (Self-CFM, TLG, NVB)	understanding, and NVB by laughing (line 1). The teacher gave the example of food by using TLG (line 2)
12	Own-accuracy Check (OAC)	Checking that what was said was correct by asking a question or check. Moreover, it refers to a communication strategy where a speaker consciously verifies the accuracy of their speech while speaking. It involves self-monitoring to ensure grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, or meaning correctness.	1→ S19: Nam↑pheung , 2→ T: Nam↓pheung (Self-TLG, NVB, **OAC**) & (Other- RPT) 3 Nam↑pheung 4 ↑yeah:::	S19 responded with "Nampheung," the correct translation (line 1). The teacher repeated the word by checking the intonation, acknowledging the student's input, and reinforcing the understanding. This exchange exemplified effective communication and mutual learning in a language classroom (lines 2-4).
13	Prompting (PT)	Encouraging or stimulating learners to take action, respond, or think by giving a hint, cue, or question. It guides or assists someone in producing a desired response or behavior when they might not have done so independently.	1→ T: no::: not room service (Self-RP, **PT**) 2 what do you call a hotel clerk 3 when you are at the front ? 4→ S12: receptioner casher ? (Other-GS)	The teacher rejected this suggestion, clarified it was incorrect, and provided further PT to guide by asking what the term would be when referring to someone at the front of a hotel (lines 1-3). The student responded with another guess, saying "receptioier cashier," which was again incorrect (line 4).
14	Paraphrasing (PRPS)	Paraphrasing means restating someone's words or ideas differently while keeping the original meaning. It helps clarify, simplify, or adapt information for better understanding. In conversation, paraphrasing ensures comprehension and can involve rewording, summarizing, or restructuring a sentence.	1→S19: no:: , no:::::. (Other-CFM) 2→T: .hh:: , I see:: (Self-UFL, RPT, TLG, NVB, RP, RPT, **PRPS**) 3 Hong , room::: 4 you know, like ↑Hong Nam::::	PRPS is used by the teacher to clarify meaning, ensuring the student understands. By reformulating and expanding on the original utterance, the teacher provides additional context to aid comprehension.

15	Positive-reinforcement (PR)	Positive-reinforcement strengthens desired behavior, responses, or learning outcomes through positive feedback, rewards, or corrective support. It helps students build confidence and retain knowledge. Verbal reinforcement includes phrases like "Great job! You pronounced that perfectly!" while non-verbal	1→ S7: er::: hon:: /ˈhɔːrn (Self- RTV, BCC) 2 ah::: honesty /ˈɑː.nɪ.sti/ 3→ T: ↑very good:: (Other-RPT, **PR**, CRF) 4 honesty /ˈɑː.nɪ.sti/ 5 o↑kay::: that's the value of this story	S7 attempts to recall and articulate a word (lines 1-2), and the teacher provides supported PR, RPT, and CRF to facilitate learning. (lines 3-5).
16	Responding (RPD)	Responding refers to responding or reacting to what someone else has said or done during a conversation.	1→ T: what are the classroom rules:: ? (Self-DAH) 2 number ↑one ? 3→ S3: keep phones away (Other-**RPD**)	The teacher initiated the interaction by asking about classroom rules, demonstrating a processing issue, and reflecting on the teacher's effort to prompt student participation (lines 1-2). S3 responded correctly, resolving the interaction and marking a resolution (line 3).
17	Repetition (RPT)	Self-repetition refers to repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said. Other-repetition refers to repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.	1→ S2: Dao:: /daʊ/ (Other-RP) 2→ T: Dao:: /daʊ/ okay:: (Self-RP, RPS, **RPT**) 3 please change it 4 I will read it as Do /duː/ 5 ↑Do/duː/	S2 responded clearly, clarifying the correct pronunciation (line 1). The teacher deployed RP to instruct a spelling revision to ensure accuracy moving forward. Finally, the teacher repeated the proper pronunciation to confirm understanding and prevent future confusion (lines 2-5).
18	Retrieval (RTV)	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item, a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures must be said before reaching the optimal form.	1→ S12: re::: , re::: , ah::: (Other-RPD) & (Self-RPT, BCC, **RTV**) 2 ↑or::: receptionist 3→ T: receptionist:: ↑good ↑job (Self-RPT) & (Other- RPT, CRF, PR)	S12 struggles with word retrieval, using RPT, BCC, RTV, and RPD before successfully recalling the word "receptionist" (lines 1-2). The teacher PR is learning the correct word by RPT, confirming accuracy using CRF, and providing positive feedback ("good job"). (line 3)

19	Repair (RP)	The learners establish a new speech plan when their first attempt fails	1→ S28: um::: um::: spot ? (Self-UFL, RPT, CRF) 2→ T: ↑yes::: if you- (Other-CRF) & (Self-**RP**, RPS) 3 if I can get a spot tomorrow 4 I can get the free pizza	S28 appeared confused about the term "spot," repeating it with hesitation, which indicated the word was unfamiliar with its usage (line 1). The teacher confirmed the term, and RP elaborated further on the request, specifying the teacher's intent to secure a spot for free pizza (lines 2-4).
20	Rephrasing (RPS)	A previous utterance is reformulated in a different sentence with a slight variation of utterances; the keyword or phrase is remained.	1→T: yes:: not:: not today , tomorrow::: (Other-RPS) & (Self-RPT) 2→ S22: do you want me to:: to:: to call to:::: ? (Self-RPT) 3→ T: no:::: , but I want to reserve (Other-**RPS**, CRF) 4 for <tomorrow> 5 I want to join the tour in zoo tomorrow::	The teacher reassured S22 by affirming the need but repeated that the activity was scheduled for "tomorrow," clarifying the time frame once again (line 1). Following this, S22 asked if the teacher wanted to make a call, showing a willingness to assist further without precisely aligning with the teacher's request (line 2). The teacher clarified again, restating the primary need to reserve a spot for the zoo tour the following day, reinforcing the intent by repeating the key details (lines 3-5).
21	Scaffolding (SCF)	Scaffolding is a teaching strategy where a teacher or knowledgeable individual provides temporary support to help learners accomplish tasks or understand concepts beyond their current ability. This support is gradually withdrawn as learners gain confidence and independence.	1→ S14: sorry (Other-RPD) & (Self-RPT, TLG, NVB) 2 I don't:: I have (0.4) 3 sorry I don't:: have >ei young kor< 4 I don't have no idea::: 5→ T: I have = (Other-**SCF**, RPT) 6→ S14: = I have::: , I have no idea (Self-RP, RPT)	S14 to provide an opinion or judgment. S14 struggled to respond, resulting in hesitations, repetitions, and the use of translanguaging (lines 1-4). The teacher intervened with scaffolding by repeating the words to assist S14. This reflected understanding as the teacher offered linguistic support to help S14 complete the response (line 5). S14 completed the utterance, resolving the earlier difficulty by combining repair with the

				teacher's scaffolding (line 6).
22	Stalling (STL)	Speakers use fillers and hesitation devices to delay time for thinking.	1→T: you give me back 40 (Self-CRF, RPT, CFM) & (Self-RPT) 2 are you sure ? 3→S6: um let my:: let me think:: ah:: (Other-**STL**, RPT, RTV) 4 I give:: gave:: I will give , I will give you back	S6 uses STL with hesitation markers and RPT to delay responding while processing the correct sentence (lines 3-4).
23	Translanguaging (TLG)	Translanguaging is the practice of using multiple languages flexibly and strategically within communication. It also allows speakers, especially bilingual or multilingual individuals, to draw on their entire linguistic repertoire to express meaning, aid understanding, and facilitate learning.	1→ T: ↑oh::: , I thought it was room:: (Self-UFL, RPD) 2→ S19: no:: , no:::::. (Other-CFM) 3→ T: .hh:: , I see:: (Self-UFL , RPT, **TLG**, NVB, RP, RPT) 4 Hong , room::: 5 you know, like ↑Hong Nam::::	When S19 mentioned "Hong" in Thai, the teacher initially thought it meant "room," as in "Hong Nam" (bathroom) (line 1). However, S19 confirmed that in this context, "Hong" did not mean "room" (line 2). The teacher acknowledged the correction, expressing understanding and aligning with the student's explanation. The teacher engaged in RP by clarifying the term "Hong" after realizing a potential misunderstanding associated with "room" in Thai, as in "Hong Nam" (meaning "bathroom" or "toilet" in Thai), to correct the previous assumption and align with the student's explanation) (lines 3-5).
24	Use of Fillers (UFL)	Using gambits to fill pauses, stall, and gain time in communication. It uses *the speaker* phrases like "um" and "you know" to maintain the flow of speech.	1→ T: hh::: >no<what ? (Self-RPS, **UFL**) 2 what's the name of the store ? 3→ S26 Playboy:::. /ˈpleɪ.bɔɪ/ (Other-RPD), (Self- RPT)	To resolve the misunderstanding, the teacher explicitly started using UFL future to rephrase the question to clarify that the teacher asked for the store's name (lines 1-2). S26 repeated "Playboy" with more explicit emphasis, which explained the misunderstanding (line 3).

Appendix M: Communication Strategies

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Inventory and Classifications of Communication Strategies

Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a,1995 and indications whether they were included in any other taxonomies)
ne, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok,1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
1. Message abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of some language.	*It is a person er... who is responsible for a house, for the block of house... I don't know... [laughter]*	T, F&K, W
2. Message reduction (topic avoidance)	Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources.	[Retrospective comment by the speaker:] *I was looking for "satisfied with a good job, pleasantly tired," and so on, but instead I accepted less.*	T, F&K, W
3. Message replacement	Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it.	[Retrospective comment after saying that the pipe was broken in the middle instead of "the screw thread was broken":] *I didn't know "screw thread" and well, I had to say something.*	F&K, W
4. Circumlocution	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action.	*it becomes water* instead of "melt"	T, F&K, W, P; B: "description"; N: appr. "analytic strategies"
5. Approximation	Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure.	*plate* instead of "bowl"	T, W; B and P: "semantic contiguity"; F&K: "generalization"; N: appr. "holistic str."
6. Use of all purpose words	Extending a general, "empty" lexical item to contexts words where specific words are lacking.	The overuse of *thing, stuff*, make, do, as well as words like *thingie, what-do-you-call-it;* e.g.: *I can't can't work until you repair my.....thing.*	W: "smurfing"
7. Word coinage	Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.	[Retrospective comment after using dejunktion and *unjunktion* for "street clearing":] *I think I approached it in a very scientific way: from 'junk' I formed a noun and I tried to add the negative prefix "de-"; to "unjunk" is to 'clear the junk' and "unjunktion" is*	T, F&K, B, W; N: appr. "morphological creativity"

		'street clearing'.	
8. Restructuring	Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan.	On Mickey's face we can see the... so he's he's he's wondering.	F&K; W: under "self-repair"
9. Literal translation (transfer)	Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2.	I'd made a big fault [translated from French]	T,W,N; F&K: under "interlingual transfer"; P and B: "transliteration"
10. Foreignizing	Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology.	reparate for "repair" [adjusting the German word'reparieren']	B, W; F&K: under "interlingual transfer"; N: under "transfer"
11. Code switching (language switch)	Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.	Using the Latin *ferrum* for "iron".	T, F&K, B, W; N: under "transfer"
12. Use of similar sounding words[1]	Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which which sounds more or less like the target item.	[Retrospective comment explaining why the speaker used *cap* instead of "pan":] *Because it was similar to the word which I wanted to say:"pan".*	
13. Mumbling[1]	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.	And uh well Mickey Mouse looks surprise or sort of XXX [the 'sort of ' marker indicates that the unintelligible part is not just a mere recording failure but a strategy].	
14. Omission[1]	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said.	*then... er... the sun is is... hm sun is... and the Mickey Mouse....* [Retrospective comment: *I didn't know what 'shine' was.*]	
15. Retrieval	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.	*It's brake er... it's broken broked broke.*	F&K
16a. Self-repair	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech.	*then the sun shines and the weather get be... gets better.*	W
16b. Other-repair	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.	Speaker:... *because our tip went wrong...* [...] Interlocutor: *Oh, you mean the tap.* *S: Tap, tap...*	
17. Self- rephrasing[2]	Repeating a term, but not quite	*I don't know the material...what it's*	(Tarone&Yule,

	as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase.	*made of...*	1987)
18. Over-explicitness (waffling)[3]	Using more words to achieve a particular communicative goal than what is considered normal in similar L1 situations.	(This CS was not included in Dörnyei & Scott's , 1995a, 1995b, taxonomy)	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
19. Mime	Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration.	[Retrospective comment:] *I was miming here, to put it out in front of the house, because I couldn't remember the word.*	T, F&K, B, P, W; N: under either"analytic" or "holistic strategies"
20. Use of fillers[4]	Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty.	Examples range from very short structures such as *well; you know; actually; okay,* to longer phrases such as *this is rather difficult to explain; well, actually, it's a good question.*	
21a. Self- repetition[5]	Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.	[Retrospective comment:] *I wanted to say that it was made of concrete but I didn't know 'concrete' and this is why "which was made, which was made" was said twice.*	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
21b. Other- repetition	Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.	Interlocutor: *And could you tell me the diameter of the pipe? The diameter.* *Speaker: The diameter? It's about er... maybe er... five centimeters.*	
22. Feigning understanding[6]	Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand.	Interlocutor: *Do you have the rubber washer?* Speaker: *The rubber washer? ... No I don't.* [Retrospective comment: *I didn't know the meaning of the word, and finally I managed to say I had no such thing.*]	
23. Verbal strategy markers[7]	Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.	E.g.: (strategy markers in bold): (a) marking a circumlocution: *On the next picture...* **I don't really know what's it called in English**... *it's uh this kind of bird that... that can be found in a clock that strikes out or [laughs] comes out when the clock strikes*; (b) marking approximations: *it's some er... it's* **some kind of** *er... paper*; (c) marking foreignizing: ... *a panel [with an English accent],* **I don't know whether there's a name in**	

		English or not *[laughter] just it's a panel flat*; (d) marking literal translation: *it's er... a smaller medium flat and in*, **we call them** *blockhouse, but it's not it's not made of blocks*; (e) marking code switching: *the bird from the clocks come out and say "kakukk"* **or I don't know what**; *see also the example for message abandonment.*	
24a. Direct appeal for help	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge.Purpose: To seek clarification, translation, or an explanation directly.	*it's a kind of old clock so when it strucks er... I don't know, one, two, or three 'clock then a bird is coming out. What's the name?*	T, F&K, W
24b. Indirect appeal for help	Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally.	*I don't know the name... [rising intonation, pause, eye contact]*	T, F&K, W
25. Asking for repetition	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.	*Pardon? What?*	
26. Asking for clarification	Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.	*What do you mean?, You saw what?* Also 'question repeats,' that is, echoing a word or a structure with a question intonation.	W
27. Asking for confirmation	Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly.	Repeating the trigger in a 'question repeat' or asking a full question, such as *You said...?, You mean...?, Do you mean...?*	W
28. Guessing	Guessing is similar to a confirmation request but the latter implies a greater degree of certainty regarding the key word, whereas guessing involves real indecision.	E.g.: *Oh. It is then not the washing machine. Is it a sink?*	
29. Expressing non-understanding	Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.	Interlocutor: *What is the diameter of the pipe?* Speaker: *The diameter?* I: *The diameter.* S: *I don't know this thing.* I: *How wide is the pipe?* Also, puzzled facial expressions, frowns and various types of mime and gestures.	

30. Interpretive summary	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly.	*So the pipe is broken, basically, and you don't know what to do with it, right?*	W
31. Comprehension-check	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you.	*And what is the diameter of the pipe? The diameter. you know what the diameter is?*	W
32. Own-accuracy check	Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.	*I can see a huge snow... snowman? snowman in the garden.*	
33a. Response: repeat	Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other-repair).	See the example of other-repair.	
33b. Response: repair	Providing other-initiated self-repair.	Speaker: *The water was not able to get up and I...* Interlocutor: *Get up? Where?* *S: Get down.*	
33c. Response: rephrase	Rephrasing the trigger.	Interlocutor: *And do you happen to know if you have the rubber washer?* Speaker: *Pardon?* I: *The rubber washer... it's the thing which is in the pipe.*	
33d. Response: expand	Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context.	Interlocutor: *Do you know maybe er what the diameter of the pipe is?* Speaker: *Pardon?* I: *Diameter, this is er maybe you learnt mathematics and you sign er with th this part of things.*	
33e. Response: confirm	Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.	Interlocutor: *Uh, you mean under the sink, the pipe? For the…* Speaker: *Yes. Yes.*	

1Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) first discussed these three strategies; they are stop-gap devices whose use is motivated by the assumption that the over-determined, redundant nature of language normally allows the listener to guess the incomplete or missing word from the context, much as in a cloze or a C-test. For this reason, these strategies are not merely instances of message reduction or abandonment. Dörnyei and Scott found few unambiguous examples of these strategies in their corpus but, for example, mumbling is very common in languages with complex verb conjugation systems, where the speaker often swallows the conjugation suffix about which he/she is uncertain.

2Tarone and Yule (1987) first identified this strategy. They assumed that it was used with non-native listeners for whom the speaker wants to make the task easier. In Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) investigation, however, the listener's (that is, the interviewer's) L2 competence was superior to the speaker's; that such strategies were still used points to their more gen- eral applicability. As the retrospection extract demonstrates, self-repetition is related to over-explicitness, stemming from speakers' uncertainty about whether their L2 language use expresses their meaning closely enough.

3Tarone and Yule (1987) first identified this strategy as a CS but Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) also discussed the lan- guage phenomenon; Edmondson and House (1991) call it "waffling", defining it as "excessive use of linguistic forms to fill a specific discourse 'slot' or 'move'" (p. 273); they suggested that it is caused by speakers' insecurity about their L2 ability as well as by not having access to standardized routines or phrases.

4Fillers make up a broad category, including words and phrases used to fill pauses, cover for hesitations, gain time, and pro- vide smooth transformation in breakdowns. Rohde (1985) talked about the function of such gambits as “safe islands” (pp. 48–49) onto which the speaker can jump when experiencing problems, which very aptly describes a core feature of fillers. On the other hand, fillers also fulfill a number of subtle discourse roles (see Edmondson & House, 1981; Færch & Kasper, 1984b), some of which are definitely not problem-oriented; hence, it is difficult to tell the strategic and non-strategic uses apart.

5Tarone and Yule (1987) pointed out that research has paid little attention to a very common interlanguage phenomenon, the frequent repetitions of words or whole structures and clauses. They argue that repetitions are CSs used for two purposes: (a) to stall, and (b) to provide the listener with another chance to hear and process the information. Chen (1990) emphasized the “communication maintenance” function of repetition in Chinese students’ use of English: “Only one avoidance strategy was used by one low-proficiency learner. The learners would rather carry on the communication task by repeating what they had said than avoid the communication task” (p. 174).

6Wong-Fillmore (1979) and Aston (1986) highlighted feigning understanding as an important communication maintenance strategy that allows the speaker to remain in the conversation regardless of a lack of understanding of what the other said.

7Discussing code switching, Harper (1985) distinguished two types, one where the speaker signals to the interlocutor that a CS is coming “as if to enclose the borrowed item in inverted commas” (p. 91), and another that “does not prepare the micro- context into which the borrowed item will be introduced” (p. 91). Similarly, Clark (1994) wrote about “editing terms” (e.g., “you know” and “I mean”, p. 249), which speakers use to prepare the interlocutor for a repair, and “hedges” (e.g., “kind of”, “sort of”, and “like”) they use to indicate that they are being less accurate and to “prevent interpreting certain words or phrases too precisely, too literally” (p. 250). This latter, broad conceptualization of “hedges” is analogous to Dörnyei and Scott’s (1995a, 1995b) conception of “strategy markers,” referring to any warning signals or “verbal inverted commas” whose function is to indicate to the interlocutor that a strategy is used (i.e., that a word/phrase does not carry the intended meaning perfectly), eliciting attentive cooperation and thereby helping to achieve shared meaning and integration of the less-than- perfect interlanguage structure into the L2.

Appendix N: Categories of Repairables, Examples Taken from the Hotel Management Programme (HMP) Data Set

(Smit, 2010)

Category name	Code	Explanation and example
linguistic:		
pronunciation	pro	phonological and pronunciation-linked problems T: the six seven star hotel the only one in the world Abdul, in Dubai Abdul some S: **Al Arab Burj** T: **BURJ Al Arab**
grammar	gra	morphological and syntactic problems S: **in** Stadtpark not T: **at the** Stadtpark not
vocabulary	voc	lexical choice, unclear denotation or idiomatic expressions, technical terms (can overlap with 'ref ' and 'facI') S: unless you buy- throw away **pa- er** @ <1> @ </1> T: <1> **plastic plates**</1> or you use plastic plates. S: yeah @
interactional:		
mishearings	mis	problems of intelligibility (can overlap with 'pron', 'voc', 'ref ') T: what do we what do we control , S: income ? the cost ? the money , T: we control **the past**, S: the cost , T: the cost .
reference	ref	problems of referential specifications, situated meaning S: =you have to be very careful about (x of course) T: **the food you get ?** S: because everybody's (.) sick .
discourse	dis	problems of topic development and turn-taking T: you decide well , the money you're allowed to spend I s'pose mh ? S: is the budget , T: ja . **but I was gonna say** let's ignore the cost of the course
factual:		
instructional	facI	topic or content-linked repairables in instructional register T: well it's belongs to Holiday Inn= S: =Sheraton T: **Sheraton is a separate chain again**
regulative	facR	topic or content-linked repairables in regulative register T: on the next part it says calculate overhead totals of the production environments . S: **erm where ?** T: after the first set of numbers .

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