LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network
(ISSN: 2630-0672 (Print) | ISSN: 2672-9431 (Online)
Volume: 14, No: 2, July – December 2021
Language Institute, Thammasat University
https://so04.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/LEARN/index

Thai University Students' Problems of Language Use in English Conversation

Kornsak Tantiwich[a*], Kemtong Sinwongsuwat[b]

[a] kornsak.t@psu.ac.th, Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Thailand
[b] ksinwong@gmail.com, Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Thailand

APA Citation:
Tantiwich, K. & Sinwongsuwat, K. (2021). Thai university students' problems of language use in English conversation. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network, 14*(2), 598-626.

Received 29/11/2020

Received in revised form 30/03/2021

Accepted 18/04/2021

Keywords
EFL learners; English conversation problems; Conversation Analysis; Thai undergraduates

Abstract

As part of the effort to elevate the oral English proficiency of Thai EFL learners, this paper explores university students' target-deviant English use in conversation, which should be systematically tackled in conversation teaching. Data examined included 41 two-three-minute video-recorded role-play dialogues from two English conversation classes. The data was transcribed and analyzed following the Conversation Analysis (CA) framework. The students' conversational English problems were detected in four key areas. First, those involving segmental organization included final-sound omission and incorrect pronunciation of vowel sounds (with the highest frequency); and [l] or [r] deletion in consonant clusters. Second, problems with super-segmental organization contained stress (third-highest frequency), and too many pauses within turn construction units (TCUs). Next, ungrammatical TCUs (second-highest frequency) were found in syntactic organization. Finally, problems with sequence organization included abrupt conversation closing; irrelevant

	adjacency pairs; topic shifts without signposts; inappropriate expressions to identify oneself on the phone; and inappropriate responses to an announcement of bad news. It is recommended that in conversation class, students be made more aware of correct English pronunciation and provided more opportunities to practice making goal-oriented, casual conversation with explicit feedback regarding natural conversation mechanisms involved in realizing particular interactional goals.

1. Introduction

Although most Thais have spent over 10 years learning English from kindergarten to university, their college proficiency remains at the level of basic users, or A2, according to the global scale of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015). This means that they can comprehend only simple sentences and common expressions in reading and listening, but often cannot communicate fluently and appropriately in writing and speaking. When engaged in oral interaction, they cannot understand the message of a long, complex conversation or respond clearly and spontaneously to everyday talk on a variety of topics. The Ministry of Education requires Thai undergraduates to reach the minimum level of B2 English proficiency before their graduation (Office of the Education Council, 2017) given that the English language proficiency of Thai students, on average, is relatively low and that English conversation skills are of vital importance in the globalized world.

Conversation Analysis (CA)-informed instruction has been promoted in several recent studies (see, e.g., Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015; Waedaoh & Sinwongsuwat, 2019) to enhance conversational skills of the Thai EFL students in this context. Through explicitly explaining the structure and sequential organization of conversation, such instruction enables students to better understand language input and output (Markee, 2009; Seedhouse, 2005). It teaches them the target norm of interaction and helps to develop their interactional competence (Barraja-Rohan, 2011). Apart from helping to improve EFL leaners' English conversational skills, the CA-informed approach is also used to diagnose students' particular problems in speaking English (Tantiwich & Sinwongsuwat, 2019). These studies have strengthened a large body of the

previous research promoting CA applications in second language teaching and learning (Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Seedhouse, 2005; Waedaoh & Sinwongsuwat, 2019).

Several studies maintained that CA could be used to highlight sociocultural differences in conversation across languages and to raise English learners' awareness of conversational mechanisms and interactional norms (Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Seedhouse, 2005). It was also asserted in Sinwongsuwat et al. (2019) that CA can help identify Thai EFL learners' problems in conversation, referred to in the study and this study as those occurrences of interactional resource use in deviation from the target language norm. Some of the problems outlined in the literature include mispronunciation, misuse of stress and intonation, incorrect grammar, inappropriate turn construction and allocation, and difficulties in manipulating topics to expand and maintain conversations. Problems were also found in students' use of common tokens such as *yes* and *no*. Despite being used in a range of functions similar to those of native speakers', these tokens tend to be overused, used alone, or repeatedly or redundantly used with other expressions of the same functions.

Therefore, as part of the effort to elevate the oral English proficiency of Thai undergraduates to reach the proficiency goal of the university (B2), the initial step is to explore in greater depth particular problems encountered by the majority of Thai university students when conversing in English. This study, unlike previous studies, further investigated the sequential contexts in which these problems occurred. It is hoped that with CA as a tool, it can uncover how the problems emerge and should be dealt with. Findings should also enable teachers to prioritize the problems and ultimately create appropriate English conversation lessons to address the problematic issues systematically.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 Thai Students' Oral English Proficiency

English is a primary tool for global communication; however, Thais' English proficiency was classified at a very low level according to Education First English Proficiency Index in 2020. Most Thais aged over 18 are able to communicate in English only at a basic level. Several studies examining the English proficiency of Thai university students revealed the average

proficiency level of only basic users, A1-A2, based on CEFR (Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015; Waluyo, 2019). At this proficiency level, many Thai undergrads are unable to move beyond communication on familiar topics with simple sentences and common expressions. Struggling with English pronunciation and grammar, they face grave challenges to achieve the goal set by the Ministry of Thai Education to have university students graduated at a B2 level.

To raise the level of Thai university students' English proficiency, oral communication is one of the essential skills which needs to be emphasized as it is the skill that most Thai students are apparently struggling with (Yusica, 2014). Several causes of poor oral communication skills among Thai students have been discussed in the literature. First, most Thai learners have few opportunities to communicate in English in daily life, making it a difficult language to acquire orally. The opportunity to practice speaking both inside and outside the classroom is essential for developing L2 fluency. Second, there is a lack of everyday English media among the Thai majority. This can make it difficult for learners to practice listening and become used to spoken English. Listening comprehension ability is no doubt essential for oral communication. Finally, most English classrooms in Thailand still lack a supportive environment for speaking practice as most students are still engaged more in grammar translation, rote learning, reading and writing than in appropriate English interaction (Tantiwich & Sinwongsuwat, 2019; Yusica, 2014).

While Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been promoted in English classrooms to develop students' communicative competence, there have been observed challenges to the implementation of CLT in Thai ELT contexts. Thai teachers reportedly found CLT concepts hard to comprehend, thereby not applying them to their teaching (Kwon, 2017). Additionally, CLT-based textbooks prescribed by the government often contain complex cultural content for Thai students to relate to (Inprasit, 2016). While engaged in practicing conversation, students largely depend on rote memorization of model conversation scripts provided in the books (Inprasit, 2016; Kwon, 2017). The emphasis on scoring in the Ordinary National Education Test (O-NET) has also forced teachers to shift their focus to linguistic rather than communicative competence inspired by CLT (Kwon, 2017).

Learner factors also play a major role in determining the success of CLT implementation (Inprasit, 2016; Kwon, 2017). Many students are not motivated to learn English and become passive in class. Some are shy and do not want to speak for fear of making mistakes and being ridiculed. Students' English proficiency is generally too low for the implementation of genuine CLT, requiring substantial communication in English. Learners' lack of knowledge of grammar, useful expressions, and word pronunciation can lower the probability of making a comprehensible conversation in English. Consequently, in class, they tend to remember talk scripts provided in the lesson and often fail to perform an unscripted talk.

As reported in a number of studies conducted in Thailand, most learners have difficulties in English pronunciation. Focusing on word stress, Khamkhien (2010) found that learners had difficulties with the stress placement of five- and two-syllable words. In a survey on Thai teachers' teaching problems and needs for professional development, Noom-ura (2013) reported teachers' concern about their students' pronunciation problems. Yusica (2014) later confirmed that pronunciation difficulty was a major barrier to Thais' English speaking. Investigating the Thai undergraduates' opinions on pronunciation problems, Sahatsathatsana (2017) specifically discovered serious problems both at segmental and suprasegmental levels, including the articulation of consonants (e.g. /Θ/, /ð/), consonant clusters (e.g., /dr/, /sm/, /st/, /Θr/), final sounds with -d, -ed, -ch, -ch, -ge, -s, and -es; monophthong and diphthong vowel articulation (e.g. /e/, /a/, /əʊ/, /ei/); intonation and linking sounds, and word and sentence stress.

In addition to pronunciation problems, syntactic problems are also pervasive in Thai learners' spoken English. Examining transcribed spoken English data obtained from Thai undergraduates in a communicative business English course, Phettongkam (2017) revealed two types of spoken errors. The first type involves verb and article omission. The second includes the misuse of tenses, word choices, and subject-verb agreement, followed by the plural ending *-s* in nouns, and excessive use of prepositions.

Despite an emerging body of research on Thai learners' spoken English, none of the previous studies has applied theoretical insights into natural mechanisms of conversation to their investigation. As argued in Couper-Kuhlen and Selting (2018), to determine how linguistic resources

are organized or used in talk, it is integral to understand the fundamental mechanisms shaping them. Language units or structures, whether sentences, clauses, or phrases, are considered situated accomplishments built and rebuilt in interaction in a context-sensitive fashion; therefore, they must be described and explained adequately with reference to the context in which they emerge (Seedhouse, 2005).

2.2 Conversation Analysis (CA) as a Diagnostic Tool

In dissecting language in talk-in-interaction, CA has proven to be one of the most powerful tools in previous studies. The premise of CA is that utterances in talk are produced based on what talk participants are doing in response to interactional contingencies at that particular moment. They emerge as the participants create social meaning with and for each other, thereby collaboratively building social reality which shapes and is shaped by the utterances (Couper-Kuhlen & Selting, 2018). CA aims at uncovering the interactional order and organization of this reality. It attempts to reveal how participants understand, interpret, and respond to one another systematically in their turns at talk such that their interactional goals can be orderly accomplished (Liddicoat, 2007; Markee, 2009; Seedhouse, 2005).

CA has been used to examine both ordinary everyday talk and talk in institutional settings. In fact, it has long served research in health science especially in uncovering important patterns involved in the proceedings of medical encounters, helping to develop effective ways for doctors and patients to reach a common understanding of a disease and a medical treatment (Maynard & Heritage, 2005). This has contributed to the improvement of doctor-patient communication and become an integral part of successful medical diagnosis and healthcare provision.

Just as CA has been used to identify interactional irregularities in patients with dementia, allowing for early detection of diseases such as Alzheimer's (de la Fuente Garcia et al., 2019), in language teaching, it can also be beneficial for teachers to identify learners' deviant usages of L2 which could potentially pose problems in their real-life communication. CA can especially assist language teachers in diagnosing these problems and designing appropriate lessons to address them to improve learners' L2 interaction (Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015). Nevertheless, in the Thai ELT context, applied-CA studies have only started

to emerge over the past few years, investigating EFL learners' interaction and offering a diagnosis of a limited number of linguistic forms (see, e.g., Tantiwich & Sinwongsuwat, 2019).

2.3 Interactional Practices in Conversation

Via CA, interactional practices, such as turn-taking, sequencing, overall structuring, and repair practices are unveiled (Wong & Waring, 2010), allowing the fine-grained details of conversation including language in talk to be understood. Discussed below are practices central to the application of CA in this study.

Turn-taking practices are considered one of the most fundamental organizations of talk-in-interaction (Schegloff, 2007; Wong & Waring, 2010). In turn-taking, turn-constructional units (TCUs) are created to complete communicative acts from a range of language resources such as speech sounds, melody, vocabulary, and grammar. They can be produced as a word, a phrase, a clause or sentence, or even an audible sound, as shown in Excerpt (1) at lines 4, 3, 6, and 1, respectively.

Excerpt (1) [CA ASI 2004 data—modified]

01		→	((ring))	(an audible sound)
02			(5.0)	
03	Shelley:	→	District attorney's office.	(a phrase)
04	Debbie:	→	Shelley:,	(a word)
05	Shelley:		Debbie,=	
06	Debbie:	→	↑what is the dea::l.	(a sentence)
07	Shelley:		what do you ↑mean.	

(Couper-Kuhlen & Selting, 2018; Wong & Waring, 2010)

TCUs also have allocational properties as at the end of each TCU, or a transition relevance place (TRP), where the exchange of speakers' roles can occur (Wong & Waring, 2010). The ability to project TRPs is therefore essential for learners to maneuver through natural conversation. To be able to do this, they need to master the use of phonological, grammatical, and pragmatic resources in the target language. For instance, prosodically, they need to be able to recognize the beginning, continuing or ending of a turn judging from different intonation patterns such as leveling, rising or falling intonation. Grammatically, it is essential that they can project how a particular sentence, clause, phrase, or even a word should end. Pragmatically, they also need to be able to

recognize actions completed through speakers' utterances such as an offer, an invitation, or a request.

Sometimes it may be too late to wait till a TRP to initiate a turn. Therefore, learners should also be made aware of and trained to master practices involved in early turn entry and next-speaker self-selection, involving practices such as (1) overlapping; (2) using turn entry devices; (3) recycling turn beginning; and (4) making a nonverbal start (Wong & Waring, 2010).

Overlap is one technique to achieve an early start. To overlap appropriately, not too early and not too late, TRPs need to be closely monitored via all the linguistic resources available. A next speaker can start his/her turn right before the current speaker's final sound ends, referred to as transitional overlap. As shown in Excerpt (2) below, Bette starts her turn at the find sound of the word *taxed* in line 02.

Excerpt (2) [Jefferson, 1983, p.3, as cited in Wong & Waring, 2010]

01	Andrea:		The first bit of income isn't tax[ed
02	Bette:	→	[No: that's right,
03			mm;

Sometimes, next speakers start their turn as soon as they recognize the thrust of the current speaker's utterances, called recognitional overlap. As illustrated in Excerpt (3), Heather started his turn right away after he recognized what Steven was going to say in line 02.

Excerpt (3) [Jefferson, 1983, p.18—modified, as cited in Wong & Waring, 2010]

01	Steven:		A very ha[ppy New Ye]ar. (to the-)
02	Heather:	→	[Thank you:] a nd a happy ( ).

To enter a turn space, at times speakers rely on turn-entry devices or turn-initial items such as *well, but, and, so, you know,* or *yeah*. These devices not only help minimize damage that might be caused by an overlap but also absorb the abruptness of the overlap, as well as not impairing the beginning of an actual turn (Schegloff, 1987; Wong & Waring, 2010). As demonstrated in Excerpt (4), Ellen used the turn-entry device well to preface her overlapping turn in line 04 to become the next speaker after Tamar finished her turn in line 03.

Excerpt (4) [Wong & Waring, 2010, p41 - Waring seminar data]

01	Tamar:		so that could be related to the oral tradition how you
02			tell a story not just to how you process the
03			infor[mation.]
04	Ellen:	→	[Well] that' why it's narrative structure
05			we're talking about discourse knowledge?
06	Tamar:		Yeah.

Another practice that the next speaker may use to get a turn started involves recycled turn beginning, repeating what might have been absorbed in the overlapped talk. As shown in Excerpt (5), K repeats the utterances buried in the overlap in line 05.

Excerpt (5) [Schegloff, 1987, p.75]

01	R:		Well the uhm in fact they must have grown a
02			Culture, you know, they must've- I mean how long-
03			he's been in the hospital for a few days, right? Take
04			a[bout a week to grow a culture]
05	K:	→	[I don't think they grow a] I don't
06			think they grow a culture to do a biopsy.

Finally, nonverbal language such as gazing, head turning, facial expressions, lip parting, cough, or throat clearing can also be employed to succeed early starts (Schegloff, 1996), which need to be mastered by the learner. For example, a pointing gesture (at documents on the table) might be used as a tool for self-selection in a meeting (Mondada, 2007).

In addition to turn-taking practices, it is essential for learners to be guided through sequencing practices so that they know what social action is being performed and how to respond appropriately to each social action. To be able to do this, learners should be trained and master (1) generic sequencing practices (adjacency pair and preference structure); (2) type-specific sequencing practices; (3) and response tokens.

An adjacency pair is a sequence of two turns ordered as first pair-part (FPP) and second pair-part (SPP). A greeting, for example, calls for a return greeting. As shown in Excerpt (6) below, the utterances in lines 03 and 04 constitute one adjacency pair. Hyla's FPP turn in line 03 required Nancy to provide the specific type of SPP in line 04.

Excerpt (6) [CA ASI 2004 data, as cited in Wong & Waring, 2010]

01		((ring))
02	Nancy:	H'llo:?

03	Hyla:	→	Hi:,
04	Nancy:	→	↑HI::.

Another generic sequencing practice is preference structure or preference organization, explaining how actions in interaction are systematically designed to encourage or weaken social solidarity (i.e., preferred vs. dispreferred). Preferred actions, natural, normal, or expected, are those premeditated to undermine face threats, preserve social solidarity as well as elude conflicts (Heritage, 1984). There are three criteria to decide what is preferred: (1) regularity of occurrence; (2) potential for sequence-closing; and (3) unmarked turn shape (Wong & Waring, 2010). The preferred action normally refers to what is often done. As shown in Excerpt (6) above, the responses in lines 02 and 04 are preferred because they are expected to be uttered after the FPPs in lines 01 and 03. Additionally, preferred actions accelerate the closing of a sequence. For instance, if a request is made, the acceptance of the request is the fastest way to finish the sequence, thereby being a preferred action. Lastly, the preferred actions are regularly done without any delay, mitigation, or accounts. As seen in Excerpt (7), Priya's utterance in line 03 was produced succinctly and straightaway.

Excerpt (7) [Wong & Waring, 2010, p. 63 - Waring tutoring data]

01	Liam:		Okay be↑fore I lose this, go through all of
02			Those. Periods. Double space.
03	Priay:	→	Oh yeah I will.

In contrast, dispreferred actions, e.g., a refusal to an invitation, are performed with delay, mitigation, or accounts. As in excerpt (8) below, before delivering the dispreferred response in line 03, signaled by a pause, Graham prefaces his turn with not only the hesitation token (tuh- uh) but an apology, followed by an account for the refusal in line 4. Via the utterance in line 06, he expresses his willingness to accept the invitation under other circumstances, indicating his orientation towards an ongoing friendly relationship with James.

Excerpt (8) [Liddicoat, 2007, p. 118 - Tools]

01	James:		How about going out for a drink tonight
02	Graham:	→	(0.2)
03			tuh- uh sorry b' d I can' make it=c' z
04			Jill has invited some' ve her friends over.

05 Perhaps some other time

Aside from general sequencing practices, learners should be made aware of type-specific sequences, such as agreement and disagreement, news announcement, complaint, invitation, offer, and request. To participate successfully in everyday social interaction, they need to master the organization of these sequences, especially those that are complicated and can easily evoke embarrassment and conflicts. For instance, to make a news announcement, they need to be able to assess whether their news is worth telling, thereby going through the pre-announcement before announcing news. The news recipient also needs to know how to respond appropriately to the news delivered, whether with encouragement, discouragement or ambivalence (Maynard, 2003; Wong & Waring, 2010).

Apart from the generic and type-specific sequences, learners should know how to use response tokens for various purposes, for instance, to acknowledge prior talks (*mm hm*), to invite continuation (*mh hm, yeah*), to offer assessments (*great*), to indicate unnecessary persistence of prior speaker (*no no no, alright alright alright*), and to signal incipient speakership (*yeah*). These tokens are essential especially for boosting engagement in talk.

In terms of the overall structure, it is important for learners to know how to begin and exit a conversation. Telephone openings, for example, typically include four kinds of sequences such as (1) summons-answer; (2) identification-recognition; (3) greeting; and (4) how-are-you patterns as in Excerpt (9) below.

Excerpt (9) [Schegloff, 1986, p.155 – modified, as cited in Wong & Waring, 2010]

01		((ring))	summons-answer
02	A:	Hello,	
03	C:	Hello, Jim?	identification-recognition
04	A:	Yeah,	
05	C:	It's Bonnie.	identification-recognition
06	A:	Hi,	greeting
07	C:	Hi, how are yuh.	greeting + first *how are you*
08	A:	Fine, how're you,	second *how are you*
09	C:	Oh, okay I guess.	
10	A:	Oh okay,	
11	C:	Uhm, (0.2) what are you	anchor point
12		doing New Year's Eve.	

Finally, since problems such as false starts, mishearings, and misunderstanding are very common in everyday conversation, learning how to organize repair to fix the problems will help learners to overcome the problems and to keep their talk going smoothly (Wong & Waring, 2010). There are four types of repair that learners need to be aware of, including (1) self-initiated self-repair; (2) self-initiated other-repair, (3) other-initiated self-repair, and (4) other-initiated other-repair.

Self-initiated self-repair is one type of problem treatment in conversation. In so doing, a speaker initiates a trouble source before rectifying it. Here is a demonstration of self-initiated other-repair.

Excerpt (10) [CA ASI 2004 data — modified, as cited in Wong & Waring, 2010]

01	Shelley:		alright well I talked to him earlier and I told
02			him I didn't know what the scoop was and
03		→	now: I don't know .hh if I should jus- if I
04			should blow off u:m tha:t stupid trial thing
05			or what I mea:n (.) I don't know.

As shown in Excerpt (10), after a cut-off (*jus-*) in line 3, Shelly repeats what came before with "self-repair" to continue with her turn.

The second type of repair is self-initiated other-repair, used to fix a problem in conversation which has been addressed by another speaker as shown in the example below.

Excerpt (11) [Schegloff *et al*., 1977 – BC:Green:88, as cited in Wong & Waring, 2010]

01	B:	He had dis uh Mistuh W- whatever k- I can't
02		think of his name, Watts on, the one thet
03		wrote [that piece,
04	A:	[Dan watts

In Excerpt (11), B has some difficulties figuring out a name, indicated by *W-* and *k-* in line 01, as well as *I can't think of his name*. In line 04, A come to B's rescue by supplying the name.

Next, other-initiated self-repair is a treatment of the problem pointed out by a recipient, as demonstrated below.

Excerpt (12) [Liddicoat, 2007, p.189 – Lunch]

01	Harry:		Aren't you suppose to go up there with John
02			though?
03	Joy:	→	Wha'¿

04	Harry:	Aren't you goin' up there with John.
05	Joy:	Na:h that fell through weeks ago.

In this Excerpt, Joy is having a problem comprehending what Harry means in lines 01-02, so *Wha'¿* in line 03 is uttered to prompt Harry to clarify what was said in line 04, resulting in other-initiated self-repair.

Finally, other-initiated other-repair is a process to fix a problem in talk by its recipient. As shown below, Ken's utterance *the police* in line 01 is treated as a trouble-source by Roger, who replaces it with *the cops!* in line 04, which in turn gets embedded in Ken's uptake in line 05.

Excerpt (13) [Jefferson, 1987, p. 93—modified, as cited in Wong & Waring, 2010]

01	Ken:	→	Well- if you're gonna race, the police have said this
02			to us.
03	Roger:		That makes it even better. The challenge of running
04		→	from the cops!
05	Ken:	→	The cops say if you wanna race, uh go out at four
06			or five in the morning on the freeway…

3. Methods

3.1 Data Collection

Video-recorded data of 41 role-play conversations examined were obtained from an elective English conversation course at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Thailand. Participants were second-to fourth-year students from different faculties including the Faculties of Management Sciences, Pharmaceutical Science, and Engineering. Their proficiency level, measured with an online English proficiency test, was at A2 according to CEFR. After 10-minute preparation, the participants were asked to role-play telephone calls for different purposes such as to break off a relationship, to deliver bad news, to make a request, to accept/refuse an offer, and to order some takeout. Each of the two-party role-play conversations lasted two-three minutes with roughly 25 - 30 turns.

3.2 Data Analysis

Forty-one spoken English interaction excerpts of the students' role-plays were analyzed using CA methods. The excerpts were transcribed following the transcription convention developed by Gail Jefferson, taken from Hutchby & Wooffitt (1998) and shown in Appendix 1. The interactional problems were then identified and classified into four groups; namely, (1) segmental organization, (2) super-segmental organization, (3) syntactic organization, and (4) sequence organization. The frequency of occurrence of each instance of the problems was subsequently determined.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Types and Frequency of Students' Problems in English Conversation

The samples of 41 video-recorded telephone conversations were thoroughly examined, and ten conversation problems were identified. Excerpt (14), a phone conversation between two students is presented below to illustrate the problems found in English conversation among the students. The conversation in this excerpt took place as Student W, who missed a class, wanted to borrow Student B's class notes. Before the conversation ended, B set an appointment to meet with W to give him his class notes.

Excerpt (14)

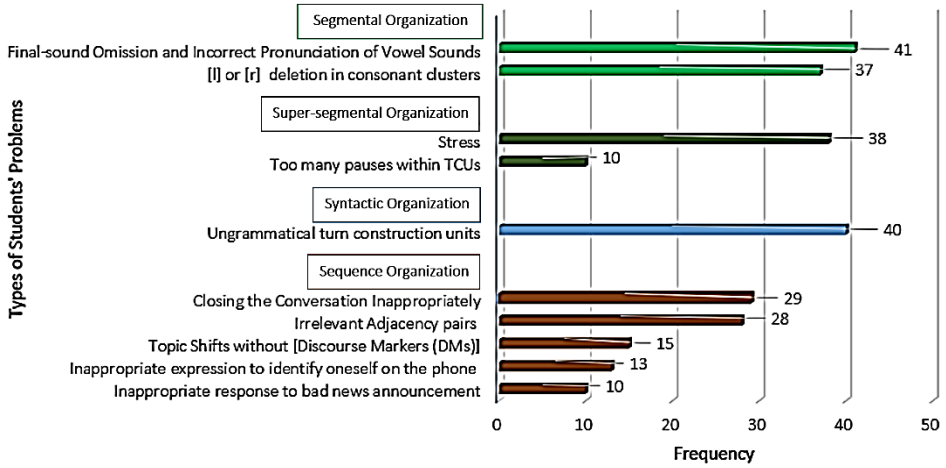
1	W:	Hello (0.6) I'm (0.5) Khung (0.5) That (0.3) Joe, ri::gh?
2	B:	Yes (0.4) Why you (0.3) absent (0.3) this ca:d (0.3) today.
3	W:	Uhh. I: (.) I sick today.
4		(3.0)
5	B:	O::h (0.4) you have (0.4) a stomach(.)ache.
6	W:	Oh no I (0.7) I have headache today.
7	B:	OK
8	W:	and can I borrow your (0.5) ca:d node?
9	B:	Yes yes. (0.4) Today (0.3) study (0.3) is (.) a little bit.
10	W:	Oh Ah:: (4.0) When you (3.8) When you take it at home.
11	B:	(4.0) Oh I:: (.) take ca:d node to you (0.3) on 7 o'clock. (0.6) OK?
12	W:	(1.5) OK thank you
13	B:	Thank you

The problems found are related to four areas including (1) segmental organization; (2) super-segmental organization; (3) syntactic organization; and (4) sequence organization, and these problems also

recurred in the rest of the conversations--40 excerpts examined. As shown in Figure 1, the most frequent problem was final-sound omission and incorrect pronunciation of vowel sounds, (41 occurrences). The second and third most common problems were ungrammatical turn construction units, found in 40 conversations, and wrong stress, noticed in 38 conversations.

Figure 1

Frequency of Students' Problems



The problems such as final-sound omission, incorrect pronunciation of vowel sounds, [l] or [r] deletion in consonant clusters, and stress are apparently not sequential context-specific in the sense that they were found regardless of embedding sequences. The other problems were more contingent on particular sequential contexts. For instance, too many pauses within TCUs were mostly found when students had to provide detailed information on a topic, formulate questions, and respond to referential questions requiring an elaborate answer. In fact, question-answer sequences also occasioned the production of most ungrammatical turn construction units found in the study. Additionally, grammatical problems mostly emerged when the students had to elaborate on bad news in a news-delivery sequence. Finally, it was noticeable that sequencing problems including providing an irrelevant response to a FPP

turn, an abrupt topic shift, and inappropriate closing occurred more often in casual conversations than in those enacted in service encounters. The latter, considered a type of institutional talk, require a relatively predictable, restricted range of verbal contributions and impose a relatively fixed organization of the overall sequential structure (Drew & Heritage, 1992).

4.2 Students' Problems in English Conversation

4.2.1 Segmental Organization

Final-sound Omission and Incorrect Pronunciation of Vowel Sounds.

Most of the participants did not pronounce final consonant sounds and were inclined to lengthen English vowel sounds, making them similar to Thai long vowels. In Excerpt (15) below, extracted from Excerpt (14), neither the final stop at the end of the turn in words such as in *right* (line 1) nor the final fricative before a pause of words such as *class* (line 2) was pronounced, approximating Thai final consonant sounds which do not allow aspirated stops or fricatives.

Excerpt (15)

1	W:	Hello (0.6) I'm (0.5) Khung (0.5) That (0.3) Joe, ri::gh?
2	B:	Yes (0.4) Why you (0.3) absent (0.3) this ca:d (0.3) today.

The differences between English and Thai final sound systems, therefore, appear to be one of the main causes of the problems. As suggested in Yangklang (2006), unlike English words, the final consonant sound of Thai words is usually not released at the end of a turn or before a pause. Additionally, the students also lengthened vowels such as the dipthong [ai] in the word *right*—one long vowel combining the sound /a/ and the sound /i/. In this case, the duration of time that the vowel sound was held was rather longer than usual in comparison with English native speakers. This may be because most English courses in Thai schools were mainly focused on written grammar (Tantiwich & Sinwongsuwat, 2019). Most of the time, Thai students were asked to do writing-oriented exercises, and pronunciation of problematic sounds was rarely addressed in class.

[l] or [r] Deletion in Consonant Clusters.

Apart from the omission of word-final consonants at the end of a turn or before a pause, the students had difficulties pronouncing initial clusters. The [l] sound, for instance, was deleted from initial consonant clusters. For instance, words such as *class note*, shown in Excerpt (16) below (lines 8 and 11), were unclearly produced with the deletion of [l] by both students as [kaːd noʊd].

Excerpt (16)

8	W:	and can I borrow your (0.5) ca:d node?
9	B:	Yes yes. (0.4) Today (0.3) study (0.3) is (.) a little bit.
10	W:	Oh Ah:: (4.0) When you (3.8) When you take it at home.
11	B:	(4.0) Oh I:: (.) take ca:d node to you (0.3) on 7 o'clock. (0.6) OK?

This is probably due to the negative transfer of the deletion process from Thai into English. In Thai, initial-consonant cluster reduction is very common in fast speech (Klangburum, 2015). For example, the sound /l/ of the Thai word เปล่า [plàʊ] (meaning *no* in English) is often deleted, resulting in [pàʊ] in casual speech. However, in everyday spoken English, the process of consonant cluster deletion, or consonant cluster simplification, hardly occurs in the initial position but usually appears in the final position (Nordquist, 2018). For instance, *first day* [fɜːrst deɪ] becomes [fɜːrs deɪ] as the final /t/ is dropped before a word beginning with a consonant. The difference in the simplification process between learners' native language and English often contributes to mispronunciation (Major, 2001). In fact, it was reported that learners of different L1s tended to transfer patterns of simplified consonant clusters from the native language into their L2 when such patterns do not even exist in the target language (Al-Shuaibi, 2006).

4.2.2 Super-Segmental Organization

Stress.

Word stress is one of the most common problems in Thai students' talk. Apparently influenced by the syllable-timed nature of their mother tongue, most of the students investigated put equal weight on every syllable when talking; there was no distinction made between stressed/accented and unstressed/unaccented syllables. As shown in Excerpt (17), the words *absent* (line 2) and *stomachache* (line 5) are not stressed on any syllable. Additionally, the stress was also placed on wrong

syllables. For example, the second syllable is incorrectly stressed in the word *borrow* (line 8).

Excerpt (17)

2	B:	Yes (0.4) Why you (0.3) absent (0.3) this ca:d (0.3) today.
3	W:	Uhh. I: (.) I sick today.
4		(3.0)
5	B:	O::h (0.4) you have (0.4) a stomach(.)ache.
6	W:	Oh no I (0.7) I have headache today.
7	B:	OK
8	W:	and can I borrow your (0.5) ca:d node?

This may be because these Thai undergraduates do not have much knowledge about English pronunciation and that their abilities in di/multi-syllabic stress are fairly limited (Plansangket, 2016). Isarankura (2018) affirms that the more syllables English words have, the less certain Thai students will be about the required stress.

Too Many Pauses within TCUs.

Turns are produced by the students word by word instead of in one single complete constituent (structural unit), and there are many pauses within TCUs as shown in Excerpt (18) (lines 2, 9 and 11). The three pauses within a TCU in line 2, for instance, make the speech sound unnatural and difficult for the co-participant to identify the speaker's turn allocation.

Excerpt (18)

2	B:	Yes (0.4) Why you (0.3) absent (0.3) this ca:d (0.3) today.
3	W:	Uhh. I: (.) I sick today.
4		(3.0)
5	B:	O::h (0.4) you have (0.4) a stomach(.)ache.
6	W:	Oh no I (0.7) I have headache today.
7	B:	OK
8	W:	and can I borrow your (0.5) ca:d node?
9	B:	Yes yes. (0.4) Today (0.3) study (0.3) is (.) a little bit.
10	W:	Oh Ah:: (4.0) When you (3.8) When you take it at home.
11	B:	(4.0) Oh I:: (.) take ca:d node to you (0.3) on 7 o'clock. (0.6) OK?

According to Lundholm Fors (2015), people do not usually pause after each word in naturally occurring conversation unless the utterances are quite long and they will pause when they need to think or breathe, or when they are interrupted. Additionally, pauses are usually used to signal

to the next speaker when turn endings happen or where TRPs are (Ford & Thompson, 1996). Considered as turn-yielding cues, pauses often occur at the point where the completion of grammatical and prosodic units coincides.

4.2.3 Syntactic Organization

Ungrammatical Turn Construction Units.

Apparently, the students did not have enough knowledge to construct grammatical L2 turns larger than words, resulting in problems in their talk. A helping verb was often left out in questions. As shown in Excerpt (19) below, B fails to form correct *wh*-questions in lines 2 and 10. A linking verb between a subject and an adjective is also left out in line 3. Wrong prepositions were found in the students' talk as in line 11, where the preposition *on* is employed with the time expression (*7 o'clock*) instead of *at*. Additionally, the students often produced their turns word by word based on the Thai word order. The turn in line 9 is an example showing that Thai grammar was used to form an English sentence.

Excerpt (19)

1	W:	Hello (0.6) I'm (0.5) Khung (0.5) That (0.3) Joe, ri::gh?
2	B:	Yes (0.4) Why you (0.3) absent (0.3) this ca:d (0.3) today.
3	W:	Uhh. I: (.) I sick today.
4		(3.0)
5	B:	O::h (0.4) you have (0.4) a stomach(.)ache.
6	W:	Oh no I (0.7) I have headache today.
7	B:	OK
8	W:	and can I borrow your (0.5) ca:d node?
9	B:	Yes yes. (0.4) Today (0.3) study (0.3) is (.) a little bit.
10	W:	Oh Ah:: (4.0) When you (3.8) When you take it at home.
11	B:	(4.0) Oh I:: (.) take ca:d node to you (0.3) on 7 o'clock. (0.6) OK?
12	W:	(1.5) OK thank you
13	B:	Thank you

Therefore, the lack of English grammatical knowledge and the negative influence of their native language are more likely to be the causes of these problems, which may lead to misunderstanding when interacting with English speakers.

4.2.4 Sequence Organization

Closing the Conversation Inappropriately.

The students experienced problems closing the conversation. In Excerpt (20) below, they ended the conversation without any closing sequence.

Excerpt (20)

11	B:	(4.0) Oh I:: (.) take ca:d node to you (0.3) on 7 o'clock. (0.6) OK?
12	W:	(1.5) OK thank you
13	B:	Thank you

According to Schegloff and Sacks' (1973) archetype closing model of a typical conversation, there are two sets of adjacency pairs, the pre-closing pair and the terminal exchange pair. The former is used to introduce the idea of closing or provide the reason for an interlocutor's leaving the conversation. The latter involves an exchange of goodbyes, indicating that the interlocutors are no longer on the phone after the successful pre-closing pair. An example of a closing sequence is shown in Excerpt (21) below.

Excerpt (21) [Wong & Waring, 2010, p.193]

1	Emma:	um [sleep good tonight swee[tie,	
2	Lottie:	[Okay- [Okay well I'll- I'll	
3		see you in the mor[ning	The pre-
4	Emma:	[Al:right,	closing pair
5	Lottie:	Alright,	
6	Emma:	B'ye bye de[ar.	The terminal
7	Lottie:	[Bye bye, ((end of call))	exchange

Apparently, based on the reseachers' experience of teaching at the university where the study was conducted, Thai students were not explicitly taught ways to end a conversation appropriately other than a final exchange of a simple goodbye. Such lack of explicit learning of sequencing and its related interactional resources as well as of overall structure of natural conversation in the school environment also seems to be the cause for the rest of the sequencing problems outlined as follows.

Topic Shifts without Discourse Markers (DMs).

A swift entrance into a sequence with a new topic was also noticeable in the students' talk. Often, the topic was abruptly initiated without any signals or topic shift markers. In Excerpt (22) below, in lines

2-7, two students were talking about W's absence from class. In line 8, a new topic was introduced without any topic shift devices.

Excerpt (22)

1	W:	Hello (0.6) I'm (0.5) Khung (0.5) That (0.3) Joe, ri::gh?
2	B:	Yes (0.4) Why you (0.3) absent (0.3) this ca:d (0.3) today.
3	W:	Uhh. I: (.) I sick today.
4		(3.0)
5	B:	O::h (0.4) you have (0.4) a stomach(.)ache.
6	W:	Oh no I (0.7) I have headache today.
7	B:	OK
8	W:	and can I borrow your (0.5) ca:d node?
9	B:	Yes yes. (0.4) Today (0.3) study (0.3) is (.) a little bit.
10	W:	Oh Ah:: (4.0) When you (3.8) When you take it at home.
11	B:	(4.0) Oh I:: (.) take ca:d node to you (0.3) on 7 o'clock. (0.6) OK?
12	W:	(1.5) OK thank you
13	B:	Thank you

To avoid miscommunication and make a clear shift from one topic to another, a topic shift clue such as *By the way*, *Anyway*, or *Anyhow* should be employed when shifting the topic as demonstrated in line 7 in Excerpt (23) below.

Excerpt (23) [Schegloff & Sacks, 1973, p.320]

1	Caller:		You don't know w- uh what that would be, how much it
2			costs.
3	Crandall:		I would think probably, about twenty five dollars
4	Caller:		Oh boy, hehh hhh!
5			Okay, thank you.
6	Crandall:		Okay dear.
7	Caller:	→	OH BY THE WAY. I'd just like to say that uh, I DO like the
8			news programming. I've been listening, it's uh…

Irrelevant Adjacency Pairs.

The students sometimes produced a second pair part (SPP) irrelevant to the first pair part (FPP) of the adjacency pair. As previously seen in Excerpt (22), the FPP, *Thank you* (line 12), was uttered by W to show his gratitude. In the next turn (line 13), student B, however, responded to it with *Thank you* instead of *You're welcome!, My pleasure!,* or *No problem,* deviating from the norm of returning thanks demonstrated below.

Excerpt (24) [Schegloff & Sacks, 1973, p.298]

1	A:		Thank you.
2	B:	→	You're welcome.

Inappropriate Response to Bad News Announcement.

Aside from an irrelevant response to a FPP in a general sequence, the students had problems with responding to bad news in a news-delivery sequence. In Excerpt (25) below, student B inquires why student W was absent from class in line 2. The reply *I am sick today* in line 3 can be treated as a bad news announcement. While appropriately registering his acknowledgement of the news with the news receipt token *oh* (Schegloff, 2007) in line 5, he made an assumption about W's illness via *You have a stomachache* instead of providing an assessment response to the news just heard in the rest of the turn. This apparently occurs in response to W's failure to elaborate on the bad news in line 3, indicated by the micropause (0.4), line 5. The assumption B made turns out to be wrong based on W's repair turn in line 6. In line 7, B simply accepts the repair with 'OK' but still fails to offer an appropriate assessment of the bad news.

Excerpt (25)

1	W:	Hello (0.6) I'm (0.5) Khung (0.5) That (0.3) Joe, ri::gh?
2	B:	Yes (0.4) Why you (0.3) absent (0.3) this ca:d (0.3) today.
3	W:	Uhh. I: (.) I sick today.
4		(3.0)
5	B:	O::h (0.4) you have (0.4) a stomach(.)ache.
6	W:	Oh no I (0.7) I have headache today.
7	B:	OK
8	W:	and can I borrow your (0.5) ca:d node?
9	B:	Yes yes. (0.4) Today (0.3) study (0.3) is (.) a little bit.
10	W:	Oh Ah:: (4.0) When you (3.8) When you take it at home.
11	B:	(4.0) Oh I:: (.) take ca:d node to you (0.3) on 7 o'clock. (0.6) OK?
12	W:	(1.5) OK thank you
13	B:	Thank you

According to Maynard (1997), the prototypical News Delivery Sequence (NDS) contains four parts, namely announcement, announcement response, elaboration, and assessment of the news. In Excerpt (25), it seems that the students are struggling to construct a turn elaborating and assessing the bad news in line 7. Normally, when hearing about someone's illness, loss, or sad news, it would be more proper to

receive bad news with sympathy responses, such as *Oh, I'm sorry to hear that* (Maynard, 2003).

5. Conclusion and Suggestions for Future Research

This paper reports on the conversational English problems found in phone call role plays by Thai EFL undergraduates enrolled at a public university in Southern Thailand. The major problems found include the mispronunciation of vowels, deletion of final and consonant cluster sounds, incorrect syllabic stress, inappropriate prosodic breaks, and the formation of grammatically incorrect turns particularly in question-answer sequences. The problems regarding the sequential organization of talk such as irrelevant responses to turns and abrupt topic shifts were also observed, which could potentially obstruct the smooth flow of real-life communication, and make the students appear impolite to other English speakers.

Therefore, to boost Thai students' level of conversation skills, these problems should be prioritized in a teaching plan and explicitly dealt with in the speaking classroom. Class activities should encourage students to pay attention to the importance of not only syntactic or grammatical, but also phonological and pragmatic knowledge for real-life interaction. More opportunities should be provided for students to practice and apply what they have learned via interactive activities such as unscripted role-plays, shown to better approximate features of natural talk the students would face in real life (Naksevee & Sinwongsuwat, 2013; Rodpradit & Sinwongsuwat, 2012). In addition, via these activities, they should be encouraged to participate in both casual and institutional talk with different types of sequences, whether generic or specific.

While allowing teachers to foresee difficulties Thai students might have in making L2 conversation, this research has unveiled only a partial list of the problems involved. Given a limited range of topics and amount of classroom time used to elicit the students' role-plays, further research should engage students in interaction on a wider range of topics and sequence types so that other difficulties students at this level may experience can be treated. Additionally, despite the daunting task posed by CA, closer single-case analysis should be performed of some of the instances to provide further insights into the phenemona revealed in this and other studies. Future research to prove whether these problems really

cause breakdown or pose face threats in learners' communication with other English speakers will also assist teachers to prioritize the problems to be dealt with in the classroom for better improvement of EFL students' conversation skills.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to express our appreciation to Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Thailand for the research grant #LIA 590389S, without which this study would not have been possible. Contributions from all the parties involved, which have led to the materialization of this paper, have also earned our gratitude.

About the Authors

Kornsak Tantiwich is A lecturer in Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Songkhla, Thailand

Kemtong Sinwongsuwat is Associate Professor in Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Songkhla, Thailand

References

Al-Shuaibi, A. (2006). *Phonological analysis of English phonotactics of syllable initial and final consonant clusters by Yemeni speakers of English* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Department of English Language Studies, University Science Malaysia. http://www.languageinindia.com/nov2009/ganithesis.pdf

Barraja-Rohan, A-M. (2011). Using conversation analysis in the second language classroom to teach interactional competence. *Language Teaching Research*, *15*(4), 479-507. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1362168811412878

Couper-Kuhlen, E., & Selting M. (2018). *Interactional linguistics: Studying language in social interaction*. Cambridge University Press.

de la Fuente Garcia, S., Ritchie, C. W., and Luz, S. (2019). Protocol for a conversation-based analysis study: Prevent-ed investigates

dialogue features that may help predict dementia onset in later life. *BMJ open*, *9*(3): e026254.

Drew, P., & Heritage, J. (1992). *Talk at work: Interaction in institutional settings.* Cambridge University Press.

Ford, C. E., & Thompson, S. A. (1996). Interactional units in conversation: Syntactic, intonational, and pragmatic resources for the management of turns. In E. Ochs, E. A. Schegloff, & S. A. Thompson (Eds.), *Interaction and grammar* (pp. 134-184). Cambridge University Press.

Heritage, J. (1984). *Garfinkel and ethnomethodology*. Polity Press.

Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (1998). *Conversation analysis*. Polity Press.

Inprasit, C. (2016). *Thai native teachers' experiences of using communicative language teaching in extended education schools* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Language Institute, Thammasat University.

Isarankura S. (2018). The effects of stress and tones in Thai on the pronunciation of English polysyllabic loanwords among Thai EFL students. *LEARN Journal*, *11*(2), 66-83.

Khamkhien, A., (2010). Thai learners' English pronunciation competence lesson learned from word stress assignment. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *1*(6), 757-764.

Klangburum, Ch. (2015). Adolescent language and Thai grammar changes in social network. *Academic Journal of Mahamakut Buddhist University Roi Et Campus*, *4*(1), 345-354.

Kwon, Y. (2017). A study of Thai teachers' perceptions toward the implementation of communicative language teaching of English. *HRD Journal*, *8*(1), 114-125.

Liddicoat, A. J. (2007) *An introduction to conversation analysis*. Continuum.

Lundholm Fors, K. (2015, September 30) *Pauses can make or break a conversation*. ScienceDaily. https://www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2015/09/150930110555.htm

Major, R. (2001). *Foreign accent*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Markee, N. (2009) *Conversation analysis*. Taylor & Francis.

Maynard, D. W. (1997). The news delivery sequence: Bad news and good news in conversational interaction. *Research on Language and Social interaction*, *30*(2), 93-130.

Maynard, D. W. (2003). *Bad news, good news conversational order in everyday talk and clinical settings*. The University of Chicago Press.

Maynard, D. W., & Heritage, J. (2005). Conversation analysis, doctor–patient interaction and medical communication. *Medical Education*, *39*(4), 428–435.

Mondada, L. (2007). Multimodal resources for turn-taking: pointing and the emergence of possible next speakers. *Discourse Studies*, *9*(2), 194-225.

Naksevee, N., & Sinwongsuwat, K (2013). Using non-scripted role-play to teach speaking skills: A study of English conversation of Thai college students at Yala Rajbhat University. *Asian International Journal of Social Sciences*, *11*(1), P36-2-P36-12.

Noom-ura, S. (2013). English-teaching problems in Thailand and Thai teachers' professional development needs. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(11), 139-147. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n11p139

Nordquist, R. (2018, December 18). *Aphaeresis (Words): Glossary of grammatical and rhetorical terms*. Thoughtco. https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-aphaeresis-words-1688993

Office of the Education Council. (2017). *National education plan B.E. 2560 - 2579*. Bangkok: Office of the Education Council.

Phettongkam, H. (2017). Grammatical errors in spoken English of undergraduate Thai learners in a communicative business English course. *LEARN Journal*, *10*(1), 93-117.

Plansangket, C. (2016). *Word stress errors of graduate students in Thailand: A study of CEIC program* [Unpublished Master's research paper]. Language Institute, Thammasat University.

Rodpradit, S., & Sinwongsuwat, K. (2012). Using scripted and non-scripted role-plays to improve English speaking performance of hotel engineering staff. *APHEIT Journal. 18*(1), 17-25.

Sahatsathatsana, S., (2017). Pronunciation problems of Thai students learning English phonetics: A case study at Kalasin University. *Journal of Education*, *11*(4), 67- 84.

Schegloff, E. A. (1987). Recycled turn beginnings: A precise repair mechanism in conversation's turn-taking organization. In G. Button & J.R. E. Lee (Eds.), *Talk and social organization* (pp. 70-85). Multilingual Matters.

Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction: A primer in conversation analysis*. Cambridge University Press.

Schegloff, E. A., & Sacks, H. (1973). Opening up closings. *Semiotica*, 8(4), 289-327.

Schegloff, E. A., (1996). *Turn organization: One intersection of grammar and interaction*. In E. Ochs, E. A. Schegloff, & S. A. Thompson (Eds.), *Interaction and grammar* (pp. 52-133). Cambridge University Press.

Seedhouse, P. (2005). Conversation analysis and language learning. *Language Teaching*, *38*(4), 165-187.

Sinwongsuwat, K., Nicoletti, K., Teng, B., Tantiwich, K., & Fischer, R. (2019). *Using Conversation Analysis (CA) to enhance Thai university learners' English conversation skills: A study of CA as instructional, exploratory and diagnostic tools* [Unpublished Manuscript]. Department of Languages and Linguistics, Prince of Songkla University.

Tantiwich, K., & Sinwongsuwat, K. (2019). Thai university students' use of yes/no tokens in spoken interaction. *English Language Teaching*. *12*(3), 1-14.

Teng, B., & Sinwongsuwat, K. (2015). Improving English conversation skill through explicit CA-informed instruction: A study of Thai university students*. PASAA Paritat Journal, 30*(15)*,* 65-104.

Waedaoh, A., & Sinwongsuwat, K. (2019). Enhancing English language learners' conversation abilities via CA-informed sitcom lessons: A case study of Thai high school students. *International Journal of Language Studies, 13*(1)*,* 41-56*.*

Waluyo, B. (2019). Thai first-year university students' English proficiency on CEFR Levels: A case study of Walailak University, Thailand. *Institute for English Language Education Assumption University*. *13*(2), 51-71.

Wong, J., & Waring, H. Z., (2010). *Conversation analysis and second language pedagogy*. Taylor & Francis.

Yangklang, W. (2006). *Improving English final /-l/ pronunciation of Thai students through computer-assisted instruction program* [Unpublished master's thesis]. English Lanuage Studies, Suranaree University of Technology.

Yusica, U. (2014). *Problem faced by Thai students in speaking English* [Unpublished master's thesis]. English language department, The State Islamic Institute of Tulungagung.

Appendix A

Transcription convention

Symbol	Meaning
(0.5)	The number in brackets indicates a time gap in tenths of a second.
(.)	A dot enclosed in a bracket indicates a pause in the talk of less than two-tenths of a second.
=	The 'equals' sign indicates 'latching' between utterances.
[ ]	Square brackets between adjacent lines of concurrent speech indicate the onset and end of a spate of overlapping talk.
.hh	A dot before an 'h' indicates speaker in breath. The more h's, the longer the in-breath.
Hh	An 'h' indicates an out-breath. The more h's the longer the breath.
(( ))	A description enclosed in a double bracket indicates a non-verbal activity, or double brackets may enclose the transcriber's comments on contextual or other features.
-	A dash indicates the sharp cut-off of the prior word or sound.
:	Colons indicate that the speaker has stretched the preceding sound or letter. The more colons the greater the extent of the stretching.
!	Exclamation marks are used to indicate an animated or emphatic tone.
()	Empty parentheses indicate the presence of an unclear fragment on the tape.
(guess)	The words within a single bracket indicate the transcriber's best guess at an unclear utterance.
.	A full stop indicates a stopping fall in tone. It does not necessarily indicate the end of a sentence.

,	A comma indicates a 'continuing' intonation.
?	A question mark indicates a rising inflection. It does not necessarily indicate a question.
*	An asterisk indicates a 'croaky' pronunciation of the immediately following section.
↓	Pointed arrows indicate a marked falling or rising intonational shift. They are placed immediately before the onset of the shift.
a:	Less marked falls in pitch can be indicated by using underlining immediately preceding a colon.
a:	Less marked rises in pitch can be indicated using a colon which itself is underlined.
Under	Underlined fragments indicate speaker emphasis.
CAPITALS	Words in capitals mark a section of speech noticeably louder than that surrounding it.
° °	Degree signs are used to indicate that the talk they encompass is spoken noticeably quieter than the surrounding talk.
Thaght	A 'gh' indicates that the word in which it is placed had a guttural pronunciation.
> <	'More than' and 'less than' signs indicate that the talk they encompass was produced noticeably quicker than the surrounding talk.
→	Arrows in the left margin point to specific parts of an extract discussed in the text.
[H:21.3.89:2]	Extract headings refer to the transcript library source of the researcher who originally collected the data.